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S^r. JOHN HAWKINS

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NAVAL BIOGRAPHY;

OR,

THE HISTORY AND LIVES

OF

DISTINGUISHED CHARACTERS

IN

THE BRITISH NAVY,

FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD OF HISTORY
TO THE PRESENT TIME.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

ELEGANT PORTRAITS,

ENGRAVED BY EMINENT ARTISTS.

VOL. I.

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THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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INTRODUCTION.

THE history of the British navy is best learned in the lives of the British naval heroes. The biographer separates the individual from the rest of his class, examines his motives, appreciates his means, and compares his impediments. The history of the age and of the event furnish documents, and supply the very materials for this task; but in history, the relations are given on a scale too expansive for minuteness, and the figures are combined in masses too grand to admit of any, except, perhaps, the most prominent, being selected as the peculiar object of contemplation. In remote periods where the attainment of certainty is often difficult, if not impossible, it must necessarily occur, from the nature of the times, and the various occupations of those who then assumed the direction of naval exploits, that the life of an admiral will contain but a small portion of maritime adventure, while the remainder of his transactions relate to the land service, the cabinet, the tribunal, or even the church. In the more early ages, even this scanty information is not attainable; if we occasionally find a record of the exploits of a fleet, we are left in total ignorance of the name and character of the admiral. It will therefore be necessary first to sketch a brief outline of the naval history of Britain from its establishment, and for some time after-

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wards to give the lives of such illustrious men as have distinguished themselves on the ocean, connecting by means of their names the progressive series of naval events, even though not immediately transacted by the individuals themselves.

In a work professedly biographical, the research of the antiquarian may be considered in some degree unnecessary, but as the lives of illustrious mariners form a distinguished feature in the national history of great Britain, it cannot be improper to trace the history of that naval force which now astonishes and rules the world, to its earliest authenticated origin. In this attempt it is not intended to ascend into those regions of obscurity where history is so intermixed with fable as to render discrimination impossible, and reduce a series of laborious deductions to nothing more than a happy conjecture: it is not intended to discuss whether the aborigines of Britain possessed fleets, by which they maintained an extensive commerce, and disputed in arms the sovereignty of the ocean: it is merely designed to fix the first national establishment of a navy, and proceeding from that point, with as little interruption as the nature of events, and the obscurity of records will allow, trace the grand basis of British glory, the great bulwark of British prosperity, from the first moment of its known existence, to its present state of strength and pre-eminence.

Even in objects of minute importance the name of founder is contemplated with a degree of enthusiastic veneration, but when every beneficial establishment, every grand national endowment, combine to give celebrity to one individual, how great must be his estimation, how transcendent his glory! With what rapture must he be regarded

regarded by his country, with what honours must his name be crowned! With all these sentiments, hailing him at once as the parent of their constitution, their commerce, their envied liberty, and its best guardian, their invincible navy, Britons repeat the name of Alfred.

This monarch, to whom even the envy of foreigners has not denied the name of Great, came to his throne at a period of unexampled distress. His subjects drained by rapacious invaders, scared by repeated cruelties, and rendered listless by continued exactions, seemed to have abandoned all; even the thought of self-preservation had left them, and they awaited in stupid indifference the mandate of authority, or the impulse of rapacity, which should extinguish their name by dispersion, slavery, or extermination. To subjects so dispirited it was the task of Alfred to give animation; to unite them in the bonds of mutual confidence; and fan the feeble spark of languid self-love into the brilliant flame of patriotism, and the genial ardour of liberty. In all these objects he succeeded, though not without encountering difficulties, sustaining reverses, and exercising talents and virtues commensurate to the magnitude of his object. He defeated and expelled the Danish invaders; vindicated the rights of his people, and restored them to that state which is the real glory of a Briton, that of being subject to none but their sovereign and the law.

Sensible that without adequate security to individuals, the progress of science and legislation, both of which he sincerely wished to establish, would be but slow, and ineffectual, Alfred meditated the best means of securing his dominions from foreign invasion. The luxuriancy

of the soil, the riches of the inhabitants, and the facility of approach, had hitherto drawn over swarms of freebooters, who distinguished their steps by cruelty and rapacity, who spread terror by murder and fire, and whose object was to retreat with their plunder, or to found their authority in the kingdom on the reduced and miserable state of the natives. Against such a foe the English monarch saw that the march of armies was vain: they were not ambitious of honour acquired in the shock of battle; they would not stay to dispute their acquisitions in the field, and even if they were overtaken and defeated, victory could not replace what rapine had destroyed, or reanimate those whom cruelty had deprived of life.

Alfred determined therefore to protect his kingdom by a FLEET, a project worthy of his wisdom, and executed with his usual judgment and success.

Conscious of the weakness attending on infancy, he was anxious to give the navy of which he was parent all the advantages which could be derived from unusual strength, and novelty of construction. His learning, and the constant encouragement he gave to men of science, added to the resources of his own vigorous mind, furnished the means of effecting this desirable object. He soon saw himself master of a fleet of ships, larger, swifter, and more easily managed than those of his adversaries: they were built of seasoned materials, and manned with the most expert seamen, both English and foreign, that could be obtained. The Danes, long practised in naval expeditions, were confounded and astonished at seeing themselves opposed, on an element where they had hitherto considered themselves secure, by an enemy who had but recently

recently become formidable on land. They saw with surprize their fleets defeated by English squadrons not exceeding half or a third of their numbers, and they were reduced to a state of helpless non-resistance by the construction of the vessels. They were so formed as to prevent boarding or grappling; if the enemy had the advantage of the wind, the English recovered their situation by means of oars, for their ships partook of the construction of galleys; the men on board fought with vigour, and exempt from fear, because the height of the vessels rendered them inaccessible; they bore down with irresistible impetuosity, and having made some wholesome examples of retaliation on their barbarous foes by refusing quarter, succeeded in inspiring fear abroad, and securing safety at home.

Convinced by experience of the utility and importance of his new plan, Alfred sought to give it extension and stability. He augmented the number of his ships, provided them with warlike engines and able seamen, and stationed them all round his kingdom, so that not only the Danes, but pirates of every description, were taught to fear the British flag, and numbers paid with their lives for the temerity of opposition. Once only, in the year 893, the Danes under Hastings, a successful free-booter, ventured to try the fortune of an invasion. They came with a fleet of three hundred and thirty sail, effected a landing, and met with a temporary success. But the civil establishments formed by Alfred were so excellent, and his vigilance so great, that their total defeat and ruin seemed certain. The king himself prepared to attack them, but the Danes settled in East Anglia and Northumberland, encouraged by the presence of their coun-

trymen, rose, and embarking on board two hundred and forty vessels, appeared before Exeter. Alfred wisely judging that it was of the greatest importance first to subdue these rebels, whose success might have emboldened others, marched suddenly into the west of England, and falling on them before they were aware, pursued them to their fleet with great slaughter. They next sailed to Suffex, but were there repelled by the inhabitants, and forced to return with discomfiture and loss to their ships; some of which were taken, and the Danish rebels effectually deterred from prosecuting any further enterprises.

While the king was absent in the west, Hastings advanced into the country, and committed great depredations; but the army left in London, being joined by some of the citizens, attacked him in his intrenchments at Bamfleet, and defeated him with great slaughter. When Alfred returned from his expedition he was greeted with the news of this success, and Hastings's wife and two sons were delivered up prisoners to him. These he generously spared, and made their restitution the price of Hastings's quitting the kingdom.

A party of Danes still remained, who, being unwilling to retire without booty, seized and fortified Shobury at the mouth of the Thames, and marched to Boddington in Gloucestershire, where they intrenched themselves. The king surrounded them with his whole force, determined not to risque the lives of his men in battle, but rather by means of famine reduce the enemy to submission. They remained thus pent up till they were compelled for subsistence to devour their own horses, when they resolved to sell their lives as dearly as possible, or effect their release.

leaf. They accordingly made a sally, and though the greater part of them were cut to pieces, the few who escaped did some mischief in the kingdom. They attacked Leicester with success, defended themselves in Hertford, and then fled to Quatford, where they were finally broken and subdued. A few of them joined Sigefert, a Northumbrian free-booter, who being acquainted with Alfred's naval tactics, built some vessels larger than those in the royal fleet; but the king built others still higher, longer, and more swift, with which he attacked Sigefert, took twenty of his ships, and having tried the crews at Winchester, caused them all to be hung as pirates, the common enemies of mankind.

Alfred the Great passed the remainder of his reign in peace, ever attentive to the establishment of that wise system of jurisprudence which to him owes its being, anxious for the extension of commerce, and the progress of useful discoveries, and particularly solicitous for the welfare of the navy, upon which all else must ultimately depend. No prince was ever more abundantly or more justly venerated. In his character were united the hero, the statesman, the scholar, the philosopher, and the christian.

Edward the elder, Athelstan, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, the successors of Alfred, were not inattentive to the navy, which continued to increase during their reigns, and was of great service in repelling the invasions of the Danes, Scots, and Irish, and in opposing the insurgent Danes settled in Northumberland, and other parts.

Edgar, who ascended the throne at a very early age, about the year 959, was next after Alfred surnamed the

Great. Approaching the radiance of that conspicuous British luminary, his title shines with diminished brightness, but upon comparison with most other monarchs to whom it has been attributed, Edgar will not be found deficient in claims to that distinction. He took great delight in maritime affairs, and augmented the British navy to an unexampled number. The fabulous genius of that age has shewn itself in an unwonted degree of exaggeration on this point. Some authors state his naval armament to have consisted of three thousand six hundred ships of war, some say four thousand, and others carry it to four thousand eight hundred; but these accounts are utterly incredible, and probability is more consulted by those who estimate it at less than a thousand, which is still a most formidable force, and justifies the observation by which the other accounts are constantly accompanied, that his fleet was more powerful than those of all the other European princes put together. If it were to be supposed that Edgar equipped four thousand and eight hundred ships, it would follow that, exclusive of soldiers who might be embarked on board for particular expeditions, the number of seamen constantly employed in rowing and navigating the grand fleet would amount to more than a hundred thousand men, allowing only twenty-one men to each ship, which is less than the full complement: but such a number of seamen could not by any means be supported in those days, nor perhaps could they at any subsequent period have been employed in one single service, without injury and ruin to all the rest.

His fleet, whatever might be its force, was divided into three squadrons, one of which was constantly stationed on the east, another on the west, and a third on the

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the north coast of the island, and every year, after Easter, the king passing from one of these squadrons to the other made a complete circuit of his dominions, and looked into every creek and bay, not only on the English but on the Scottish coast, in Ireland, and the Hebrides. Thus by constantly shewing a formidable front, prepared for war, he maintained his dominions in peace: the Danes were convinced that to invade the territories of so active a monarch, was a hopeless attempt; and those who were resident in England prudently resolved not to incur the penalties of an insurrection which promised neither honour nor advantage. Once only Edgar's reign was disquieted by the turbulence of the Welch, who committed some ravages in his dominions. He attacked them with vigour, and permitted his soldiers to retaliate on them by plundering the borders of Wales; but when he saw that the presence of distress had brought the delinquents to a proper sense of their error, accompanied with contrition, the generous monarch commanded restitution to be made of the property which had been taken from them; thus subduing their stubborn minds no less by lenity than by military force.

Yet Edgar maintained tenaciously the dignity of his throne. He once held his court at Chester, where all his feudatory princes, eight in number, being assembled to do him homage, he made them enter a barge, and, sitting four on each side, row him on the river Dee, while he steered. Thus they proceeded to the monastery of Saint John, where they took their oaths of fealty. Among these princes were Kenneth III. king of Scotland; Malcolm, king of Northumberland; and Mac-

cusius,

cusius, king of Man; the remaining five were petty kings of the Britons.

If prosperity could give a claim to the epithet Great, Edgar's title was undisputed. He was uncommonly fortunate during a reign of sixteen years; aggrandized his realm; maintained his subjects in peace and happiness; promoted civilization by the seasonable encouragement afforded to foreigners; and advanced the influence of true piety by restraining and reforming the clergy: truly GREAT could he have restrained his own passions, which, besides somewhat more of pride than becomes a hero, betrayed him, in the course of his amours, into cruelty, weakness, and injustice.

Edward, son of Edgar, was but a child when he succeeded to the throne; he reigned only three years, and acquired the title of the martyr, from the tragical circumstance of his being murdered by command of his step-mother Elfrida, in the year 978.

Elfrida committed this crime for the purpose of giving the throne to her own son Ethelred, who, coming to the sovereign dignity in so inauspicious a manner, seemed to give immediate promise of verifying those dismal prophecies which superstition had made respecting him in his earliest years*. In the third year of his reign, the English coast was insulted, and Southampton plundered by a Danish squadron consisting of no more than seven ships, and in a few years after they ravaged and desolated the coast. Ethelred, governed by his

* *Minxit namque cum baptizaretur, in sacro fonte. Unde vir domini exterminium Anglorum in tempore ejus futurum predixit. Hen. Hunt. l. IV. Gul. Malmf. l. II. c. 10,*

wicked mother, and swayed by pusillanimous counsels, endeavoured to bribe the invaders by a subsidy of ten thousand pounds, which gave rise to the infamous and oppressive tax called Danegeld. The Danes, like wild beasts, who grow more savage and ferocious when once they have tasted blood, instead of desisting from their ravages, renewed them from year to year with greater violence, and uninterrupted success. The feeble Ethelred, who, from his extreme weakness, had acquired the surname of the Unready, opposed to these barbarians no other arms than supplication, and exhorted his subjects by repeated taxes to gratify the increasing avarice of the invaders.

Driven to despair by repeated outrage, Ethelred, by the advice of the great council of the nation, at last had recourse to that measure which ought to have suggested itself at first: instead of raising money to bribe the Danes, he applied the same sums in the equipment of a fleet to oppose them. But a king who is weak enough to neglect his own honour, seldom finds those whom he employs sufficiently honest or disinterested to keep that of the public good invariably in view. Ethelred was betrayed by his servants. The Danes with a considerable fleet approached the eastern coast, in the year 991. A great naval force having been raised, it was resolved to surround and destroy the Danes; but this plan was frustrated by that conspicuous traitor Alfric, duke of Mercia, who not only apprized the enemy of their danger, and thus enabled them to avoid it, but, in the heat of the action, deserted and joined them with the squadron under his command. Ethelred, in revenge, put out the eyes of Alfric's son; but this was a mere ebullition of
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rage, unattended with any beneficial consequences, for such was the power of the Earl of Mercia, that, notwithstanding his treason, he returned to court; and such was the weakness of the king, that though he must have been conscious Alfric could never forgive the injury done to his son, he was constrained again to employ him in offices of high trust, and was again a victim to his treachery.

In 993, Unlaff, a famous pirate, invaded the kingdom, and with a fleet of ninety-three ships sailed up the river to Staines, wasting the country on both sides the Thames. From Staines he returned to Kent, where Ethelred sent an army to oppose them; but the army was defeated, and the general slain.

From this period, to the year 1013, England was continually a prey to these barbarous invaders, who ravaged all parts of the country, committing the greatest violences, and extorting immense sums, which were occasionally the price of a short-lived truce, but sometimes did not procure even that alleviation of misery. In this crisis, Ethelred, instead of the legitimate arms of a sovereign, had recourse to the base artifices of an assassin. In the year 1002, he instigated his subjects to a general massacre of the Danes, which took place in all parts of the kingdom on the thirteenth of November, being Saint Brice's day. The king not only authorized but participated in these sanguinary excesses, in which neither sex nor age was spared, and which extended not only to the invading Danes, but to those who had been long settled in the island. This outrage could not pass unrevenged: the Danes poured a new force into the kingdom, and the English, deprived of their
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best protection, a fleet, exhausted by frequent exactions, and their spirits broken by unavailing opposition, began at length to submit, and swear fealty to Sweyn, king of Denmark. Ethelred, who had only the policy resulting from cowardice, fled for refuge to the court of Richard duke of Normandy, whose sister he had espoused.

Sweyn was prevented by death from enjoying the fruits of his conquest, and the English nobility, still retaining an affection for their native sovereign, invited him to resume the throne he had abandoned. He returned to England in 1014; but misfortune had not taught him wisdom, or inspired courage, prudence, or moderation. He still distinguished himself by preferring traitors, and disgraced his reign by murder and rapacity. The Danes, under Canute, renewed their invasions with their accustomed success, and Edric, the king's son-in-law, who had succeeded Alfric in the government of Mercia, and the command of the army, by his repeated treasons destroyed all the hopes derived from the intrepidity of prince Edmond.

Ethelred, after an inglorious reign protracted to the period of thirty-five years, died at London, while his son Edmond was preparing to engage the enemy. This prince, who possessed many virtues, and from his extraordinary valour and strength was surnamed Ironside, found his affairs in so desperate a state, that soon after his accession he was forced to consent to a partition of the kingdom with Canute, and was, in a month afterwards, murdered at Oxford by his own chamberlains.

Thus in little more than a century after the death of the founder of the British navy, and in forty years after the

the decease of Edgar, who had carried it to its greatest possible extent, their successor lost the kingdom by neglecting that only safe, and never-failing defence, a superiority at sea.

The period of the Danish usurpation affords no interesting traits of the British naval history. The Saxon line was, for a short interval, restored in the person of Edward the Confessor, who succeeded to the throne in 1041. The Danes, being then distracted by civil commotions at home, had neither the power to prevent his coronation, nor to trouble the quiet of the kingdom. Edward appears to have had a due sense of the importance of a navy, by his establishing and incorporating the cinque ports, for the purpose of obtaining a constant supply of ships and men; but his character was weak, and his reign was rendered uneasy by domestic troubles, originating in the too great power of his nobles, and in his own disposition to afford too much encouragement to foreigners. Earl Godwin, a most powerful baron, father to the queen, opposed him with success; and though the earl and his sons were at one time banished, they returned with a fleet procured in foreign countries, and Edward having imprudently dismissed his sailors, they took from him all his ships, and compelled him to re-admit them to their former rank and honours.

Edward was succeeded, in 1066, by Harold, son of earl Godwin; William, duke of Normandy, early declared himself a competitor for the throne, and, to weaken Harold as much as possible, excited against him Tostig, his own brother, who joining Harold Harfagar, king of Norway, invaded England with three hundred ships. The king fitted out a fleet to oppose them, and
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marched with his army into the north, where the enemy had intrenched themselves. He attacked them with spirit, and entirely defeated their army (25th September, 1066); Tosti and Harfagar were slain in the contest. His fleet was no less successful at sea; his admiral defeated the Norwegians, and Olaf, son of Harfagar, was glad to compound for his safety by quitting the kingdom with the residue of his forces in a few vessels, leaving an immense booty which they had acquired, and the remainder of the fleet to the king of England.

But, alas! how short-sighted is mortal man, and how little capable of estimating justly the events of life! This illustrious success was the immediate cause of Harold's ruin. The obstinate contest with the enemy had weakened his force by the loss of many men and some of his best officers, and he had offended the army by his injustice in taking all the spoils to himself. Before Harold had time to rejoice in his victory, he received information that William with a formidable army had landed at Pevensey in Suffex.

The Norman invader, conscious that his fleet could not oppose the navy of Harold, burned it as soon as he had disembarked his troops (28th September, 1066). He fortified himself as well as he could on shore, and proceeded into the country. Harold easily persuaded the nobles to forget their resentment, and attend only to the public danger. His army was soon recruited in numbers, but enfeebled by severe service and want of rest. Urged by his impetuous and martial spirit, and stimulated by the apprehension of dangers which must arise from delay, Harold, contrary to the advice of his most able counsellors, proceeded without loss of time in pursuit

pursuit of the enemy. The pretensions of these rivals were decided, the 14th of October, by the fatal battle of Hastings, in which Harold and two of his brothers, Gurth and Leofwin, were slain, besides an immense number of nobles and private men, amounting, according to some accounts, to seventy thousand. Three of Harold's sons were fortunate enough to secure and carry off the fleet; but though they were enabled to give some disturbance to the Conqueror, they could not wrest from his powerful grasp the kingdom he had acquired.

Thus England saw a new race seated in the regal chair. They felt the intrusion with sullen indignation; but weakened by their long struggle against the Danes, divided between the interests of contending claimants, and oppressed by the strong and tenacious hand of William, they were unable to effect their deliverance from his sway. The efforts made by Harold's sons were, however, such as induced William to provide a fleet for the defence of the realm; but it appears that neither he nor his successors, William Rufus, Henry I. or Stephen, took pleasure in augmenting the navy, or relied on it either as a means of defence or conquest.

Henry II. was a brave and wise prince, and seems to have had a proper judgment of the importance of a fleet, by the naval preparations which, early in his reign, he made against the Welch who infested his realm, and for the conquest of the earldom of Thoulouse. But in his reign the naval strength of Great Britain was never carried to its greatest height, because the kingdom was not in danger of being attacked. The princes of Europe were engaged in the crusades, undertaken for recovery of the holy land from the infidels, and so great a portion
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of their force and attention being thus diverted into another channel, prevented them from injuring each other. Henry, however, found means to invade and conquer the kingdom of Ireland, which he kept in subjection by constantly maintaining a fleet of four hundred sail, with which he threatened, at a moment, to land an army in that kingdom. His naval superiority was also of great use in restraining the efforts of his undutiful sons, who broke out in rebellion against their parent; and once, in 1175, his son Henry gave him battle at sea, but was defeated. When in the latter part of his reign this great monarch was obliged to wage war against his rebellious sons on shore, he was overcome, and compelled to accept such terms as the insulting victors thought fit to impose.

Richard I. surnamed *Cœur de Lion*, the successor of Henry, early and earnestly engaged in the holy wars. He had before the death of his father formed an alliance with Philip II. king of France, in consequence of which they bound themselves by oath to attempt the delivery of the holy land. Richard, immediately after his coronation, collected a large army, and equipped a fleet of one hundred and fifty ships of war, and about fifty galleys, besides eight or nine capital ships of extraordinary size; a force which greatly exceeded any that the other princes had assembled, and which, inspired by the valour, and aided by the judgment, of Richard not only forwarded the grand objects of the expedition, but was the true source of that respect which has been ever since paid to the British flag.

The regulations which king Richard established for the preservation of peace and discipline were wise and

prudent, and exhibited, perhaps, the origin of some modes of punishing and stigmatising delinquents which are still in practice. The man who killed another on ship-board was to be tied to the dead body and thrown into the sea. The drawing a knife or weapon to kill another, or wounding him to the drawing of blood, was punished by cutting off the offender's hand; but if no blood followed, he was to be plunged three times in the sea. Contumelious, or opprobrious words, reviling, or cursing, were punished by the forfeiture of an ounce of silver for each offence. A thief was doomed to have his head shorn, hot pitch poured on it, and feathers or down thrown upon the pitch; the felon thus marked with infamy was to be set ashore at the first landing place.

Richard and Philip having had an interview in France, completed their treaties, and received the homage and oaths of fealty of their respective subjects, agreed to rendezvous at Messina. The progress of the English king to this place was delayed by storms and other accidents; but, at length, he arrived the 20th of September, 1190. At Messina Richard found occasion to exert his prowess with advantage and honour. The king of Sicily having treated him with disrespect, and expelled all the English from his capital on account of some unimportant dispute, Richard, in the night of the 4th of October, assaulted and took the city. He compelled the king to pay him forty thousand ounces of gold, to which he had an ancient claim, to furnish four large galleons, and fifteen galleys, for the use of the crusaders, and give his daughter in marriage to Arthur, duke of Bretagne, Richard's nephew.

In adjusting these disputes the winter was consumed, and the English did not proceed in their expedition till April 1191, when Richard was joined by his mother, and Berengaria, princess of Navarre, his affianced wife. In the course of this voyage Richard was reduced to great distress by a tempest; some of his vessels were stranded in the island of Cyprus, the king of which, whose name was Isaac, refused admission into his ports even to the ship on board of which was Richard's bride. Not content with this, he seized and plundered those unfortunate Englishmen whom shipwreck had compelled to land on his shores. Enraged at this unworthy treatment, Cœur de Lion disembarked his whole force, and in a few days, after a resolute engagement at sea, and another by land, conquered the island, took three castles, made the tyrant and his daughter prisoners, and possessed himself of all their treasures. At Cyprus Richard consummated his marriage, and having received the homage of the principal nobles, established two of his followers, Richard de Camvill, and Robert de Turnham, governors of the island. The king he sent prisoner to Tripoli, but kept his daughter to carry with him to Palestine.

The conquests Richard had made augmented his fleet to two hundred and fifty-four stout ships. In his passage from Cyprus to Acre, in the month of June, he met a vessel belonging to the Saracens, of such immense size, that she resembled a castle floating on the waves. This huge carrack, or galeass, was bound for Acre, and had fifteen hundred soldiers on board intended for the relief of the garrison. The size of this stupendous vessel, or the apparent impossibility of assailing

ing it with effect, did not deter or intimidate the ardent soul of Richard. He succeeded in boarding and capturing her; and as the ships which composed his fleet were not capable of receiving many prisoners, he was obliged to drown thirteen hundred men; the remainder, being persons of distinction, he carried with him.

Saladin, the valiant and generous sultan of Egypt, one of the most accomplished princes of the age, defended his paternal dominions against the invaders. He was a suitable opponent to Cœur de Lion, and their feats, performed in the true spirit of chivalry, have spread their mutual renown, embellished the annals of history, and formed no inconsiderable resources for amplifying the pages of fiction; but of these it is not in our province to treat.

The importance of Acre was so great that many attempts were made to relieve it, and although it was blockaded at sea by the English, the Infidels resolved to rescue the post if possible. They approached with a powerful fleet, but the English bore down upon them with such a vigour and resolution as speedily decided the victory, and enabled them to capture the greater part of the enemy's ships. They found on board great store of ammunition and provisions, a large quantity of grappling irons, and among other preparations for the destruction of the British fleet, a number of vessels replete with an unextinguishable combustible composition called *ignis græcus*, and others filled with living serpents, neither of which the enemy had time to use, so alert and masterly was the attack.

In July Acre was surrendered by Saladin to his great competitor Richard, who was then constituted captain general

general of all the christian forces in Asia. His prowess was still displayed to the utmost advantage; but while it begat admiration and generous respect in his adversaries, it engendered envy and malignity in the bosoms of his associates. The king of France retired from Palestine, leaving ten thousand men under the duke of Burgundy, to whom in public he gave orders to pay implicit obedience to Richard, though there is good reason to suppose his secret instructions were widely different. Through the treachery and coldness of the allies, the object of the expedition could not be completed in that year, and the dukes of Austria and Burgundy took advantage of this circumstance to desert the expedition, drawing off all their forces. Thus Richard, after having performed the most stupendous and important exploits, after having seen Jerusalem, and beheld the enemy flying on all sides before the terror of his name, was subjected to the necessity of concluding a truce with Saladin for three years, three months, three weeks, and three days, and returning to his own dominions. A circumstance took place at the conclusion of this compact too characteristic to be omitted. Richard told the sultan that at the end of the truce he would return, and once more endeavour to recover the holy land from him. Saladin answered, that if it must be his fate to lose a part of his dominions, he had rather it should be to Richard than to any other prince whomsoever.

The generous sentiments which animated the bosom of an infidel monarch, against whom Richard had waged war, did not extend their influence to the christian potentates in alliance with him. When the truce was agreed on, and the urgency of his affairs compelled

him to quit the holy land, he had the misfortune to be shipwrecked. Knowing the meanness and malice of his rivals, he assumed the disguise of a pilgrim ; or, as some assert, of a merchant ; and travelled through Germany ; but, being discovered, he was made captive by the duke of Austria, thrown into a dungeon, and, for a time, hid from the world, which he was born to ornament. He was afterwards compelled to undergo an insulting examination before the diet of Worms, and to pay an enormous ransom for his liberty. Richard returned no more to Palestine, nor had he any further occasion to shew his prowess at sea. He found his kingdom in a state of discord and confusion, which required all his attention ; and he felt bound in honour to avenge the injuries he had sustained from Philip of France. This engaged him in a long desultory war, in the course of which he received from an ignoble hand a mortal wound, and terminated his glorious career the 6th of April, 1199, in the forty-first year of his age, and the tenth of his reign.

From this period the Naval History may be traced through the commanders of fleets and vessels ; and therefore, according to the plan on which this work has been undertaken, the memoirs of those illustrious men will be given in such a series, as to impart a copious and minute knowledge of all the grand naval transactions of Great Britain, whether tending to enlarge the empire by discoveries, or to support it by warlike achievements,

NAVAL BIOGRAPHY.

WILLIAM,

(Surnamed Longépée, or Longsword)

EARL OF SALISBURY.

WILLIAM LONGSWORD was natural son of king Henry II. by the celebrated Rosamond Clifford, better known by the name of fair Rosamond. He obtained the title of earl of Salisbury by marrying Ela, the only child and heiress of William, earl of Salisbury, whom he received from the hand of his royal relative, Richard I. together with the titles which her father had possessed.

In the reign of king John, Longsword was distinguished with those marks of favour which became his rank and royal extraction. He was nine years sheriff of Wilts, and afterwards constituted warden of the marches of Wales.

Richard I. whose reign was too short for the nation's welfare, though amply sufficient to procure him a deathless reputation, bestowed great care and attention on the augmentation and improvement of the navy. He supported the ports and havens throughout the kingdom, and afforded such encouragement to seamen, that great numbers resorted from other nations to man his fleets.

John, whatever might be his vices, and how great soever his imprudence in other respects, was not unmindful of the importance of the fleet. Early in his reign (in the year 1202) he published a spirited edict, importing that if the commander or governor of the king's navy should encounter on the high seas any ships or vessels of a foreign nation, the masters of which refused to strike to the British flag, they were to be attacked, and if captured, deemed lawful prize, even though it should appear that the states to which they belonged were at amity or in alliance with England; and the persons found on board such vessels were to be punished with imprisonment at discretion, as a due chastisement for their rebellion. This resolute claim of naval superiority, and jealous enforcement of submission, rendered the situation of chief commander of the fleet; which was bestowed on the earl of Salisbury, a post of unusual importance, demanding great courage and ability, and insuring great respect.

During the contest which prevailed between king John and the Barons, Longsword adhered with unshaken loyalty to his royal relative, and his exertions were so highly resented, that he was stigmatised as one of the king's evil counsellors.

Philip king of France, the treacherous enemy of Cœur de Lion, and who had encouraged John in acts of rebellion against him while he was absent in Palestine, now that John had obtained the crown of England, shewed himself no less adverse to him than he had before been to his brother. Under pretence of supporting the claim of prince Arthur, John's nephew, who in fact had a just title to the crown, Philip prepared a mighty army for the purpose of wresting Normandy from the English monarch.

monarch. The dissensions which prevailed in England gave him every advantage, and he obtained several provinces belonging to the British crown. In 1205 the king equipped a fleet, but was prevented from using it by the remonstrances of the archbishop of Canterbury and the earl of Pembroke. In 1206 he raised a great army, which, as well as the fleet, was commanded by the earl of Salisbury. The province of Poitou was recovered, and there was every reason to expect that still greater exploits would be performed, when Philip, who was not prepared to withstand the English monarch, prevailed on him to make a truce for two years.

John was involved in perpetual disputes with the pope, who, at length, excommunicated, and finally, in 1213, deposed him, and gave his kingdom to Philip. But John, who was apprehensive of this measure, had put his army and navy in such a formidable state as to keep the enemy at bay. As a pretence for this armament, he had in the preceding year landed in Ireland with a large army, and enforced the homage of the kings of that country.

The fleet thus equipped proved of the greatest service to him in the present exigency. When he learned that Philip was making mighty preparations to invade England, he exerted himself with so much effect, that although the French king had collected an immense fleet, amounting, according to some accounts, to seventeen hundred sail, John's was still stronger, and he had an army of sixty thousand men. In fact, he collected so great a force both by sea and land, that he could not maintain it, but was obliged to disband a considerable number of ships and troops. Yet while he lay under the papal interdiction, John could not depend on the fidelity of his subjects,

subjects, and therefore, on the 12th May, 1213, was compelled to make submission, and even resign his crown into the hands of the pope's legate, and do homage for his kingdom. Longsword was an unwilling witness of this disgraceful, though necessary act, which at once induced the pope to reverse his bull, and restore to John his dominions.

If the king's loyal adherents were disgusted at the degradation of their sovereign, Philip was no less incensed at losing the prize he had flattered himself he should ultimately obtain from John's obstinacy. He declared that he would not obey the papal injunction to desist from his enterprize, and called a council of his princes and nobles, whom he endeavoured to engage by oath to adhere to him notwithstanding the censures of the pope. They all seemed inclined to comply, except the earl of Flanders, who had concluded an alliance with John. He not only refused to share in the expedition, but reproached Philip for his baseness in thus taking advantage of another sovereign's misfortunes. The French king, indignant at this freedom of remonstrance, turned his vengeance against the earl of Flanders, and directed his fleets to sail to his coasts, whilst he marched an army to assail him by land.

John, seeing a prince thus attacked by an enemy of superior force on his account, acted as honour directed. He dispatched a fleet of five hundred sail, under the earl of Salisbury, who, though inferior in force, resolved to attack the French fleet, which he found at anchor in the port of Dam, in Flanders. He performed this important service with the greatest intrepidity and success, taking three hundred ships and destroying a hundred more :

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and Philip, finding it impossible to prevent the rest from falling into the hands of the English, set fire to them himself, thus destroying the principal means by which he hoped to carry his enterprize into execution.

Elated by this success, John raised a powerful army, resolved to attempt recovering those provinces which the king of France had taken from him. Longsword was one of the chief commanders, and his experienced valour and judgment shewed that he was worthy of so important a trust. His fortune was not so good by land as at sea; for having formed a plan for taking Philip prisoner by surprise on Sunday, the feast day of St. Margaret, he was himself made prisoner, with all his associates, in the daring enterprize. Proposals were made for restoring the earl to liberty, by exchanging him for Robert, son of the earl of Dreux, a near relation of the king of France; but Longsword himself, from the most generous and patriotic motives, opposed this proposition. He wrote to the archbishop of Canterbury and principal nobles, representing the danger of such an exchange, as the power the king of England retained over so near a relation of Philip was the only cause which restrained him from wreaking his vengeance on those who had opposed him, and whom the fatal battle of Bouvines had lain at his mercy. He intimated, that if such an exchange were concluded, the king of France would put the earl of Boulogne to death, and keep the earl of Flanders in perpetual imprisonment.

John had now concluded a truce with the French monarch, and Longsword soon obtained his liberty, but on what terms we are not clearly informed. The king's absence from England had given leisure to the barons to concert measures against him, and at his return he found
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they had reduced their demands to writing, and prepared to support them by force of arms. After an ineffectual opposition, he was obliged to concede the points which they insisted on, and on the 15th June, 1215, executed that famous instrument which, from its great importance in securing the liberties and privileges of Englishmen, is commonly denominated **MAGNA CHARTA**.

Longsword, who witnessed the signing of Magna Charta, was incensed at the king's efforts to counteract its beneficial tendency, and to annul what he had so solemnly sanctioned. The barons, indignant at his perfidy, prepared again to oppose him in arms, and the earl of Salisbury, for the first time, abandoned the cause of the monarch, and sided with the malcontents. By the consent of the associated barons, Lewis, son of Philip king of France, was invited over to take the government of England; but just after he had invaded the country with a formidable force, king John died at Newark, the 17th of October 1216, not without strong suspicion of being poisoned.

The causes which induced the barons to take up arms related merely to points in dispute between themselves and the king; they had no inclination to divert the course of succession and seat a foreigner on the throne. The conduct of John had driven them to the fatal expedient of calling in foreign aid to diminish the horrors of civil war, by giving to their cause the desired preponderance; but when with John their fears expired, and they obtained information of the treacherous and cruel designs of Lewis, they, without hesitation, carried
their

their allegiance to the lawful heir, did homage to Henry, though then an infant, and prepared all their forces to expel Lewis from the realm. The earl of Salisbury was among the first who evinced these patriotic dispositions: he was received with kindness, and, jointly with the earl of Pembroke, intrusted with the command of an army destined to raise the siege of Lincoln. This important service was performed with valour and success; the French were soon expelled the kingdom, and Longsword was distinguished by several new honours and marks of favour.

He next made a voyage to the Holy Land, and was present at the battle of Damietta, where the Christians were worsted. On his return, in 1223, he was employed in reducing the Welsh to subjection, and in 1224, he went to Gascony, and besieged the castles of those who refused homage and fealty to king Henry.

In returning from this expedition he was overtaken at sea by a violent tempest, which gave rise to the following narrative of a miraculous interposition, so consistent with the genius of that age, that it is given in the very words of an ancient author.—“ There arose so
“ great a tempest at sea, that, despairing of life, he
“ threw his money and rich apparel overboard. But
“ when all hopes were past, they discerned a mighty taper of wax, burning bright at the prow of the ship,
“ and a beautiful woman standing by it, who preserved it from wind and rain, so that it gave a clear and
“ bright lustre. Upon sight of which heavenly vision
“ both himself and the mariners concluded of their future
“ security; but every one there being ignorant what
“ this vision might portend, except this earl, he attributed it to the benignity of the Blessed Virgin; by
“ reason,

“ reason, that upon the day when he was honoured with
“ the girdle of knighthood, he brought a taper to her
“ altar, to be lighted every day at mass in honour of
“ her, when the canonical hours used to be sung, and
“ to the intent, that for this terrestrial light, he might
“ enjoy that which is eternal.”

The danger to which Longsword was exposed was so great, that his death was generally believed, and reported to the king. On hearing this news, Hubert de Burgh, who was then in high favour, solicited that a kinsman of his own, named Raymond, might be permitted to make his addresses to the countess of Salisbury. The king consented, but Ela, virtuous in mind, and constant in affection, repulsed her new suitor with disdain.

After encountering great difficulties, the earl landed in Cornwall, and speedily presented himself before the king at Marlborough, complaining of the insult offered to his family by Hubert, and affirming that he had sent an unworthy suitor to his wife, who had audaciously solicited her chastity. Hubert did not deny the charge, but sought to appease the complainant by concessions and large presents. He effected a reconciliation, and invited Longsword to a feast, where it was strongly suspected he was poisoned: he immediately became very ill, and went to his castle at Salisbury, where sending for the bishop, he behaved in such a manner as shewed he was delirious. He continued in this state at intervals for several days, and at length expired the 10th of March 1226. He left large estates and sums of money to charitable and pious uses; and his widow, resolutely refusing all offers of marriage, enjoyed her hereditary honours till death.

HUBERT DE BURGH, EARL OF KENT.

HUBERT DE BURGH was a collateral descendant of William Fitz-Aldeleme, steward to Henry II. who was advanced by that monarch to considerable dignities, and deputed to manage his affairs in Ireland. Hubert was employed by Richard I. and John in several important negotiations; in the reign of John he attained progressively to various exalted and confidential posts: he was warden of the marches of Wales, seneschal of Poitou, and filled the office of sheriff in several counties. He was also employed in several embassies and foreign negotiations, and was appointed one of the commissioners on the part of the king, to settle the terms upon which Magna Charta was executed at Runnymede. He gave so much satisfaction in this arduous affair, that the king, upon the spot, appointed him chief justiciary of England; in ten days afterwards he was constituted sheriff of Kent and Surry, governor of the castle of Canterbury, and in five days more, constable of Dover castle. He was advanced to several other posts of honour and profit, and when the barons again declared themselves in opposition to the king, he was appointed a commissioner to treat with the earl of Clare, and others authorized by them, at the church of Erith, in Kent.

The negotiation proving ineffectual, Hubert repaired to Dover castle, and though it was slightly garrisoned, having only a hundred and forty soldiers besides his own servants,

servants, he resolved to defend it to the last extremity. The castle was besieged by Lewis, but the defence was so effectual, and the French prince lost so many men, that he judged it expedient to draw off his army and engines of assault to a greater distance. When king John was dead, Lewis desired a parley with the constable. He remonstrated, that now the king was no more, Hubert's allegiance had ceased, and he might, without impropriety, surrender the castle; and he promised in that case to enrich him, to load him with honours, and to advance him to be the chief of his council. De Burgh was neither to be terrified nor seduced; he answered, that though the king his master was dead, he had left both sons and daughters who ought to succeed him. To prevent all suspicion, he declined giving a further answer till he had consulted with the garrison, and the result of their deliberation was a resolute refusal to incur the guilt of treason. Chagrined and disappointed at this answer, Lewis left Dover to besiege other castles less capable of resistance, or less honourably defended.

The acquisition of Dover castle at this time would, in all probability, have placed Lewis inexpugnably in possession of the whole kingdom of England, since a fleet had been dispatched by Philip, his father, containing succours for him to prosecute his enterprizes. Hubert having received intelligence of this circumstance, resolved to prevent the landing of the troops. He collected all the force of the cinque ports, and put to sea for the purpose of intercepting them. He met with the French fleet, consisting of eighty large ships, besides smaller vessels, the 24th of August, 1117; and, although his force consisted but of forty ships, resolved to give them battle.

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The inferiority of his squadron did not permit him to attack the enemy in the usual manner, but he tacked about, and, getting to windward, bore down upon them and sunk several ships by running against them with the iron prows or beaks with which the English vessels were constructed. The decided superiority of the English archers also contributed much to the victory, and the effect of their valour was increased by a stratagem which produced the most fortunate consequences. Each ship was provided with a quantity of quick lime in powder, and when they were to windward of the French, and near enough for this scheme to take effect, they threw it in the air, so that it was blown into the enemies' eyes, and blinded them. The victory was complete; the few French who could escape bore away for Sandwich, and when they arrived burned the town, but they were not sufficiently numerous to carry an effectual re-inforcement to their prince. This successful naval exploit ruined his affairs; he was forced to shut himself up in London, where he was besieged by the army, while the fleet under Hubert's command blocked up the mouth of the Thames. Thus straitened, and in a manner surrounded, Lewis saw the inutility of further efforts towards the conquest of England, and therefore made a compact with the barons, by which he agreed to quit the realm, and renounced all his pretended rights to the sovereignty.

Among other captives taken in the sea fight was Eustace, surnamed Le Moyne, an apostate monk, who, having thrown off his frock, had for many years infested the seas as a pirate; he sold his services in the time of war, sometimes to one prince, and sometimes to another,

and, to use the expression of an ancient annalist, "of a wicked monk became a very devil, full of fraud and mischief." Him de Burgh resolved to bring to punishment according to the laws of nations: the pirate offered a large sum of money for his ransom, but Hubert was inexorable, he delivered him over to the executioner; his head was struck off, and, being fixed on a pole, carried in triumph over great part of England.

The important services rendered by de Burgh greatly raised his reputation, and he was gratified with several valuable and important gifts, especially some large manorial domains, which were given him in right of his third wife, Isabel, countess of Gloucester. On the death of William Marischall, earl of Pembroke, in 1219, he was made governor of the king and kingdom, in conjunction with Peter de Rupibus, or des Roches, bishop of Winchester.

This exalted situation, which he filled with judgment, integrity, and resolution, expanded his views of ambition; he was accused of great pride, and said to carry himself higher than any nobleman of England: this disposition received an additional impulse from his marriage with Margaret, sister to the king of Scotland. But whatever imputations might be suggested against his haughtiness, or his avarice, of which he was also accused, nothing could be alledged against his loyalty: he served the king with fidelity and spirit, and incurred every risque in opposing the foes of the sovereign. He was principally engaged in subduing the earl of Albemarle, a rebellious noble, who had collected in the north a band of resolute outlaws, whom he protected in robbery, and every species of crime. He fortified himself in

Biham

Biham castle, deriding alike the civil force and ecclesiastical excommunication. At length, Hubert having seized Rockingham castle, one of Albemarle's strong holds, an army was levied to dispossess him of Biham also; and, being deserted by his associates, he was at length reduced to sue for mercy, and had his estates restored.

About the same period, Hubert shewed his courage and loyalty in suppressing an insurrection which broke out in London, and, though it arose from a trifling cause, portended important consequences. A wrestling match had taken place, in which the Londoners were matched against the inhabitants of Westminster and the neighbouring villages. This gave rise to a tumult, in consequence of which the Londoners rose in a body, and pulled down some houses belonging to the abbot of Westminster. Efforts were made to give this popular commotion a more dangerous direction. Many of the citizens were known to be in the French interest, and the cry of the French soldiers, *Montjoye! Montjoye!* God help us, and our lord Lewis! resounded through the streets. One Constantine Fitz-Arnulf was found to be a ringleader in this insurrection; and de Burgh having summoned him to answer for his conduct, he avowed and justified it. Incensed at this audacity, Hubert ordered him to be proceeded against by martial law; and he was hanged without trial or form of process. A feeble clamour was raised against this proceeding, as an infringement on the great charter; but the nature of the crime, the state of the realm, and the fatal consequences which must result from such a tumult in the

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capital, remaining unpunished, must be admitted to form a sufficient justification.

Although Hubert was accused of pride, and was, in fact, sufficiently tenacious of all the marks of respect due to his rank, he was not desirous of retaining a dignity which did not belong to him. Persuaded that he could only preserve the royal prerogatives, which the misconduct of John, the minority of Henry, and the turbulence of the barons, had reduced to a miserably low ebb, by resigning the government into the king's own hands, he applied to the pope, and obtained a bull, enabling Henry to assume the reins of state, though he was only sixteen years of age. Having obtained the papal sanction, in 1224, Hubert resigned into his royal master's hands all his castles, and particularly those important fortresses, the tower of London and Dover castle. The other barons were summoned to do the same, but refused, and even formed a conspiracy to surprise the city of London. They found, however, that, through the vigilance of Hubert, the king was prepared for them, and therefore desisted from the enterprize, and excused their appearing in arms, by denouncing their opponent as a traitor, whom they were determined to remove from his office of justiciary.

From this period a resolute party was formed against de Burgh, but for a time they could make no impressions to his disadvantage. On the contrary, Henry, on the 11th of February, 1227, created him earl of Kent, and, besides many valuable manorial demesnes and advowsons, which he bestowed on him, confirmed to him his offices of justiciary of England, and constable of Do-

ver castle, for life. He was also, as warden of the marches, employed in suppressing an insurrection in Wales, and began to build a castle in Montgomeryshire; but his workmen met with such constant annoyances and impediments from the natives, that he was obliged to leave the building unfinished, which was, for that reason, called Hubert's Folly.

In return for these favours, the earl of Kent was constantly attentive to his sovereign's interest; and, besides raising large supplies for those who adventured to the holy land, he enabled the king to gratify his inclination in making voyages to the continent, for the purpose of recovering his hereditary dominions from the king of France. These expeditions resembled warfare in a slight degree, but were more in the spirit of mere parade, as no important enterprizes were achieved, or even undertaken. On one of these occasions Hubert is said to have provided the king with thirty large casks of specie to defray his expences.

The misemployment of such vast sums, in an age when gold and silver did not so much abound as at present, frequently reduced the king to a state of need, and, as de Burgh's extensive possessions and prudent economy had made him very rich, this circumstance was by his enemies enforced to his prejudice. Henry was a weak prince, and his reign, the longest recorded in the British annals, affords no subject of contemplation gratifying to the mind of an Englishman. Philip being dead, Lewis, who succeeded to the crown of France, made fresh inroads in the provinces belonging to the English monarch; Henry resolved to make some effectual attempts for recovering his continental dominions. His

views were well seconded by parliament, who enabled him to raise a great military force, consisting of English, Welch, Scots, and Irish. They had a rendezvous at Portsmouth, in 1230; but no attention having been paid to the navy, a fleet to convey them to Normandy was not found. Henry imputed the fault to Hubert, and, having already been prejudiced against him, grew entirely outrageous. He called him an old traitor; said he had received a bribe of five thousand marks from the queen of France to frustrate the expedition; and, drawing his sword, would have killed him on the spot but for the interposition of the nobles. He dismissed him, however, from the office of justiciary; and Hubert, fearing worse consequences, was obliged to avoid the king's presence till his rage had subsided.

The bishop of Winchester, a native of Poitou, was one of Hubert's principal enemies, and he availed himself of the advantage to be derived from the king's absurd predilection for foreigners. The efforts of de Burgh's adversaries, however, were not immediately attended with success; the king restored him to his office of justiciary, and, having in the next year made preparations for an expedition to Normandy, desisted by his advice, and turned his forces against Gascony and Poitou, where he was well received.

The earl of Kent, for some short time after, continued to receive fresh marks of the royal favour: but at length the influence of his enemies entirely prevailed, and the king's indignation was exerted against him with a violence and pertinacity proportioned to his former kindness. In 1231 he displaced him entirely from the office of justiciary, and took from him the custody of all the royal castles,

castles, including the tower of London, and Dover castle. An account was required of large sums of money received during the life-time of king John, and during Henry's minority; and several other accounts were demanded, so perplexing and multifarious, that the obvious intent was to render a precise answer impossible. To the demand of an account relative to the money belonging to John, Hubert pleaded, that that monarch had granted him a general charter of release; but to this the bishop of Winchester replied, that such a charter could only avail him in the life of king John, but could not bar his successor.

Hubert's other enemies, seeing the extent to which the king's anger was carried, now pressed forward with more grievous accusations. He was charged with having endeavoured underhand to prevent the king's marriage with the duke of Austria's daughter; with having corruptly dissuaded the king from making an expedition into Normandy; with having lived in fornication with his present wife, the daughter of the king of Scotland, who had been committed to his guardianship, and afterwards marrying her, in hopes of obtaining the crown of Scotland, if her brother should die without issue. To these were added a ridiculous accusation of his having stolen from the royal treasure a jewel, which had such virtue, that it rendered the wearer invulnerable in battle, and sent it to the king's enemy, Leoline, prince of Wales. He was further charged with having, by means of traitorous letters, caused Leoline to put to death William de Braose, a nobleman of illustrious family, who was hanged as a thief.

Upon these strange accusations, the earl of Kent was

put into prison; he craving time to answer, was indulged with a release from his confinement.

But new accusations continued to be daily presented against him. He was charged with having poisoned Longsword earl of Salisbury, William Marischall earl of Pembroke, Faleafe de Breant, and Richard archbishop of Canterbury. It was also alledged that he obtained his ascendancy over the king by enchantments and forcery. Even his celebrated naval victory in the beginning of the reign furnished grounds of accusation: he was reproached with having taken from the mariners the captives they had made, and turned their ransom to his own profit. Numerous complaints were preferred against him for rapacity and extortion, and the citizens of London did not omit so fair an opportunity of being revenged on Hubert for the execution of the rebel Constantine, they brought it forward as an article of accusation against him.

In this miserable state Hubert was abandoned by every one except the archbishop of Dublin, who remained his friend in all extremities. The king, with his usual weakness, countenanced the popular delusion, by issuing a proclamation, that whoever had any cause of complaint against him should be heard.

Despairing, in the present state of the public mind, and while the king was thus incensed, of obtaining an equitable trial, de Burgh fled for refuge to Merton abbey, and refused to quit that sanctuary. The king commanded the mayor of London to send all citizens who could bear arms to besiege the abbey, and bring him thence dead or alive. The hope of seeing a person, whom they hated without cause, murdered by the rabble,

ble, made both the king and the bishop of Winchester, now prime minister, insensible of the danger of permitting twenty thousand of the licentious citizens of London to assemble in arms. But the earl of Chester and bishop of Chichester made such remonstrances that the king recalled his orders.

The archbishop of Dublin at length prevailed with the king to grant Hubert time to answer the complaints alledged against him, with permission to go to St. Edmund's Bury to see his wife. He resided for some time in a town in Essex, in the neighbourhood of Saint Edmund's Bury, belonging to the bishop of Norwich; but the feeble-minded king was soon influenced by his evil counsellors to feel alarmed lest in this situation he should excite an insurrection, and he sent Sir Godfrey de Crawcumbe, knight, with three hundred soldiers, charging him, upon peril of his life, to bring the earl of Kent prisoner, and lodge him in the tower of London. These commands were punctually executed, and not without considerable brutality. The unfortunate object of persecution was kneeling at the altar, with the host in one hand, and the crucifix in the other, when the soldiers rushed in, and snatching from him the sacred symbols, bound him with cords, and sent for a smith to make fetters for his legs.

This order gave rise to one of those pathetic instances of sensibility, in an individual of the lower class, which are always recorded and perused with pleasure. When the smith received instructions to make fetters, he inquired for whose legs? Being answered, "For the legs of Hubert de Burgh, a fugitive, and con-

"victed

“victed person,” the honest man, with a deep sigh, replied, “Do what you please with me; God have mercy on my soul: I will rather suffer death than put fetters on him. Is not this that faithful and stout Hubert, who hath often preserved England from ruin by aliens; who hath served so faithfully and constantly in Gascony, Normandy, and other places, in the time of king John, so that he was sometimes necessitated to eat horseflesh, his enemies admiring his constancy? Who for a long time kept Dover, the key of England, against the king of France, and all his power? Who subdued our enemies at sea? What shall I say of his noble exploits at Lincoln, and Bedford? God be judge betwixt him and you, for thus inhumanly dealing with him, recompensing to him evil for good, and the worst rewards for his best deserts.”

This pathetic appeal was attended with no effect: Hubert was carried to London, with his feet tied under the horse's body, and lodged in the tower. He was reclaimed by the clergy, who were very tenacious of the rights of sanctuary, and being replaced in the chapel, the sheriffs of Essex and Hertfordshire were commanded to blockade the place and starve him out.

While they were thus employed, the archbishop of Dublin again ventured to solicit in his behalf, and it soon became obvious that avarice was the chief spring of the king's conduct in this severe persecution. He gave Hubert his choice, either to abjure the realm for ever, to submit to perpetual imprisonment, or publicly acknowledge himself a traitor. If he had submitted to perpetual imprisonment, he would most probably have
been

been murdered, and by either of the other two alternatives he would have left his property at the disposal of the king. He offered to quit the kingdom, but would not consent to abjure it; but this proposal was not accepted.

At length Henry having heard that he had deposited a great treasure in the new Temple, London, endeavoured to obtain possession of it. The Templars refused to give it up without Hubert's consent; but the king having put him in fetters in the tower, he at length signed an order for the delivery of his property. The booty thus acquired was very valuable, and de Burgh's enemies urged the amount as a motive for the king to have him executed as a traitor; but Henry, whose ends were now answered, under pretence of gratitude for his former services, refused to listen to these suggestions, and set him at liberty.

Still Hubert's property continued an irresistible temptation to the avarice of the king. He was ever ready by terror and imprisonment to deprive him of parts of it, and his life was often in extreme danger through the malice of his enemies, till at length the unfortunate victim of persecution, by sacrificing some of his most valuable demesnes, obtained a general pardon, and free license to enjoy the remainder.

Having thus tranquillised those storms which so long threatened his existence, the earl of Kent, though he recovered a great share of the king's confidence, never shewed any inclination to reinstate himself in power and authority, but devoted his days to piety, and founded and endowed many charitable and religious houses. He died in November 1243.

Hubert

Hubert de Burgh was the most able and virtuous minister Henry ever possessed. He was steady to the crown in the most difficult and dangerous times, yet shewed no disposition to oppress the people. While he was at the head of administration, great care was taken of commerce, and, as far as he could direct, considerable attention paid to the navy. From the period of his removal the fleet declined to such a degree, that the coasts of England were infested by pirates, who carried their depredations to an alarming extent; they were with great difficulty repressed, and that rather by concession than by force.

ROBERT TIPTOFF.

THE family of Tibetot, Tiptot, or Tiptoff, for the name is spelled in all these various ways, is traced no higher than the reign of John, when Walter de Tibetot, for adhering to the king's enemies, was deprived of a considerable estate in Leicestershire. In the ensuing reign amends were made for this privation, by bestowing on Walter's heir a large property in the counties of York and Lincoln.

To these estates Robert succeeded, and, having distinguished himself by his valour, while he attended prince Edward, afterwards king of England, in the holy land,

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was rewarded by being made governor of Nottingham and Porchester castles.

Edward I. surnamed Longshanks, at the period of Henry's death, was absent in Palestine. Disgusted at the feebleness and want of judgment which distinguished his father's government, he indulged his propensity to heroic exploits in that region, which was deemed the proper sphere for the display of Christian valour. Though accompanied only by an insignificant force, he distinguished himself so much, and performed such splendid achievements, that he was considered the life of the Christian cause, and marked out for the peculiar vengeance of the Saracens. Despairing of success against him in the field, they employed an assassin to deprive him of life; but this attempt was frustrated by Edward's strength, spirit, and presence of mind.

Although, in that age, primogeniture or even hereditary succession were little regarded, such was the effect of Edward's reputation among his brave subjects, that his claim to the crown was generally acknowledged, and no one appeared as a competitor. He did not arrive in his kingdom till the 25th of July 1274; and the barons, though they had given so much uneasiness to his father, seemed anxious to testify their esteem for him by a ready and respectful obedience.

Edward, though distinguished for his conduct in war, was solicitous to maintain his kingdom in peace; but he could not avoid engaging in hostilities with Llewellyn, prince of Wales, whose dominions he assailed with a large army, and ravaged the coasts with a considerable fleet. In a short time he reduced Llewellyn to the necessity of making peace on very disadvantageous terms.

Tiptoff

Tiptoff was one of the commissioners appointed by Edward in negotiating this treaty, which took place in 1277. He conducted himself in this affair so much to the king's satisfaction, that he was rewarded with several lucrative employments and advantageous charters, and was made justice of South Wales, and governor of the castles of Caermarthen and Cardigan.

The peace concluded between Edward and the Welch was not of long duration. A new war broke out, which in 1284 ended in the destruction of the Welch monarchy, the massacre of the bards, and the appointment of Edward's second son to the principality of Wales. This son becoming afterwards heir to the crown by the death of his elder brother, the title of prince of Wales has been ever since retained by the heirs apparent of the English throne.

The ensuing years of Edward's reign were employed in the wars against Scotland, in which Tiptoff does not appear to have taken any share. He was fully employed in restraining the turbulence of the Welsh, who being but recently subdued, could ill support a foreign government. Tiptoff was the king's lieutenant in Wales, and in the year 1292 encountered Rees ap Meredith, one of the native princes of the country, killed four thousand of his followers in battle, and taking Rees prisoner, sent him to York, where he was beheaded.

The successful incroachments of the kings of France on the continental property of the English sovereigns, during the two last reigns, had reduced it so much, that Edward considered it the most prudent policy to remain at peace with that kingdom, and before he arrived in England from the holy land, he had done homage to the

the French king at Paris, for the territories held by him in that country. But at length a war became inevitable from the perfidy and injustice of the Gallic monarch. The origin of this war was a quarrel between some English and Norman sailors. The circumstances are in themselves so curious, and shew so forcibly the state of princes and subjects in those times, that they are given without variation in the words of an ancient annalist*.

“ In the year 1293 a fatal contention happened between the English seamen of the cinque ports and the mariners of the French king in Normandy, which began thus: an English ship putting into a Norman port, remained there some days: while they lay at anchor, two of the crew went to get fresh water at a place not far distant from the shore, where they were insulted by some Normans of their own profession; so that coming from words to blows, one of the Englishmen was killed, and the other flying to the ship, related what had happened to his fellow sailors, informing them that the Normans were at his heels. Upon this they hoisted sail, and put to sea; and though the Normans followed them, they nevertheless escaped, but with some difficulty: whereupon the inhabitants of the English ports sought assistance from their neighbours; and the enemy, on the other hand, retaining still the same disposition, increased their strength daily, and chased all English ships. In these excursions, having had the fortune to meet six, and to take two English vessels, they killed the sailors, hung up their bodies at the yard-arm, with as many dogs; sailing in this man-

* Walter de Hemingford, *Historia de rebus gestis Edouardi I.* vol. i. p. 39.

ner for some time on their coasts, and signifying to all the world thereby, that they made no sort of difference between an Englishman and a dog.

“ This, when it came to the ears of the inhabitants of the English ports, by the relation of those that escaped, provoked them to take the best measures they could to revenge so signal an affront; and having in vain cruized at sea, in order to find out the enemy, they entered the port of Swyn, and having killed and drowned abundance of men, carried away six ships; many acts of a like nature succeeding this on both sides. At last, wearied by this piratical war, they, by messengers who passed between them, fixed a certain day to decide this dispute with their whole strength: this day was the fourteenth of April, and a large empty ship was fixed in the middle, between the coasts of England and Normandy, to mark the place of engagement. The English (who were on that day commanded by Tiptoff) procured some aid from Ireland, Holland, and other places; and the Normans drew to their assistance the French, Flemings, and Genoese. At the appointed day both parties met, full of resolution; and as their minds boiled with rage, so a like spirit seemed to agitate the elements: storms of snow and hail, and boisterous gusts of wind, were the preludes of an obstinate battle; in which at length God gave the victory to us; many thousands being slain, besides those who were drowned in a large number of ships which perished; the victorious English carrying off two hundred and forty sail, and with these they returned home.

“ When king Philip received this news, though his brother Charles had been the author of the battle, yet he

he sent embassadors to the king of England, demanding reparation for the wrong done him, by punishing such as were concerned, and by the payment of a vast sum for the losses which his merchants had sustained. To them the king prudently answered, that he would inquire into the matter, and return his resolution by messengers of his own. Agreeable to this promise, he sent to desire the French king, that time and place might be fixed for commissioners on both sides, to meet and inquire into the circumstances of the fact, in order to its being amicably adjusted: but this the French king refused, and, by the advice of his nobility, summoned the king of England to appear, and answer for what had passed in his court, on a day assigned. The day came, and the king not appearing, a new summons was issued, wherein the king was cited to appear on another day, under pain of forfeiting all his dominions beyond the seas. The king, before this day elapsed, sent his brother Edmund, earl of Lancaster, and the earl of Leicester, with instructions for making an end of this business; yet these embassadors, though they produced proper credentials, were not heard, nor even admitted; but judgment was given, that the king should lose Aquitaine, and all his transmarine dominions, for his contempt in not appearing."

These occurrences made it apparently impossible to avoid a war, but nevertheless a negotiation was set on foot for the prevention of hostilities, in which Philip IV. king of France, displayed the most dishonourable perfidy and baseness. It was proposed that, in order to satisfy the punctilious honour of the French king, a few of his troops should be admitted into certain forts and

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towns,

towns, and afterwards withdrawn, that the differences between the two monarchs might be settled at a personal interview. These stipulations were faithfully performed on the part of Edward; but Philip, when the period agreed on was elapsed, refused to evacuate the towns, declaring that he was unacquainted with the treaty, and would not comply with it.

Thus stimulated, Edward called on his Parliament for supplies to enable him to recover the provinces wrested from him and his ancestors by force and treachery. He made various treaties with foreign princes, and appointed Tiptoff admiral. In this employ he displayed great courage and ability; his orders were to sail to Normandy, and finding a suitable opportunity, he entered the Seine, sunk all the ships he found in that river, and afterwards made prize of several vessels laden with wine, which were coming round from the western coast of France. This was but a part of the naval success of the English. Their other admirals performed considerable exploits, as will be shewn in the ensuing memoirs.

Tiptoff did not long survive this transaction; he served in the year 1297, in the Scottish wars, and died the year ensuing, with an augmented patrimony, and generally respected and esteemed.

WILLIAM DE LEIBOURNE.

WILLIAM DE LEIBOURNE was son and heir of Roger de Leibourne, who in the reign of Henry III. was made warden of the cinque ports, and distinguished himself by his valiant exploits in opposing the rebellious barons, and their adherent, Leoline, prince of Wales. William equally distinguished himself by his loyalty, and in the year 1296, when Edward I. equipped a powerful armament to assist in the recovery of Guienne, which had been fraudulently and treacherously wrested from him by the king of France, Leibourne was appointed admiral of one of the three fleets into which the king's force was divided.

The fleet which Leibourne commanded was called the Portsmouth squadron from the circumstance of that harbour being the place where they were first appointed to rendezvous. The mode in which this armament was provided deserves particular notice. The king directed his precept to the sheriffs of Southampton, and several other counties, and to those in the marches of Wales and Ireland, commanding them to furnish him with timber for the building of sixty ships, so that they might be at Portsmouth in readiness for his service by a given day, and this precept was punctually obeyed.

Although this fleet was supposed to be equipped principally for the defence of the kingdom, still when it became apparent that there was no immediate danger of

invasion, it was employed in attacking the enemy. About Michaelmas, Leibourne sailed to the mouth of the Garonne, and disembarked a considerable body of British troops, who took several places. The French, in revenge, hired a large fleet the next year, amounting, according to some writers, to three hundred sail, and landed suddenly at Dover. This exploit was assisted by the treachery of Sir Thomas Turberville, by whose means they were enabled to take and burn the town; but they were speedily attacked by the English, and compelled to take refuge in their ships, with a loss of eight hundred men.

Leibourne, in the mean time, had the good fortune to fall in with a fleet of Spanish merchantmen, richly laden, fifteen sail of which he captured, and brought into Sandwich. These were the only achievements performed by the Portsmouth fleet as a separate squadron, and with them the naval character of Leibourne terminates. He attended king Edward I. in his expeditions to Flanders and Scotland, and having served several years in parliament, died in 1309. His only son died in his life-time, leaving no issue except a daughter, named Julian, who married John de Hastings, father of Laurence, earl of Pembroke.

JOHN DE BOTETOURT.

WHEN Edward I. resolved to attempt the recovery of Guienne from the French king, John de Botetourt, governor of Saint Brival's castle, in Gloucestershire, was summoned to attend at Portsmouth; and the command of the Yarmouth fleet was conferred on him by his sovereign. Although no authentic records enable us to commemorate his previous exploits, there is every reason to believe that he had greatly distinguished himself; since Edward, in the highest degree valiant himself, and an undoubted judge of military merit, confided to him this important and honourable commission. Yarmouth was, at that period, next to London, the greatest port for shipping in England, and the Yarmouth fleet was considered the flower of the British force.

Whatever reputation Botetourt might have previously acquired, it was not diminished by his exertions in this high appointment. His first exploit was a descent on the coast of Normandy, where he burned the town of Cherbourg, and enriched his followers by the spoils attending his conquest, particularly by the plunder of a rich abbey in the neighbourhood. On his return, he attempted to gain the harbour of Berwick; but the Scots, having in the mean time invaded England, Botetourt entering the port without due attention, was vigorously attacked by the enemy, and after losing four of his ships, was glad

to escape with the remainder. His loss was not unproductive of advantage to the king, for Edward observing the attention of the enemy chiefly directed to the naval operation, made a resolute assault on the town, which he took, and put the garrison to the sword.

In the next year, 1297, Edward resolved to invade Flanders, and though the barons and clergy made considerable opposition, found himself enabled to equip a most powerful fleet. Botetourt continued to command the Yarmouth division, but had the mortification to find the expedition delayed, and the king's interests materially injured by a quarrel which took place between the squadron of the cinque ports and that of which he was admiral. This dispute occasioned so much rancour, that the two fleets, notwithstanding the king's interposition, came to an engagement, in which twenty of the Yarmouth ships were burned, and three of the largest vessels in the navy driven out to sea; one of them had the king's treasure on board, and they were not saved without considerable difficulty.

When they came to anchor in the harbour of Dam, the French formed a project for burning the whole fleet; but the admiral having fortunately obtained intelligence of the design, put to sea, and so escaped. This war, though immense preparations had been made, was not carried on with proportionate vigour and spirit; the king of France was eager for the conquest of Flanders, and Edward anxious to subjugate Scotland: a truce was speedily agreed on; and a peace afterwards concluded, in which both monarchs left their allies to their fate, and separately pursued their own views of ambition and aggrandizement.

Edward,

Edward, besides his inclination to complete the conquest of Scotland, was under the necessity of returning home, in order to repress the licentiousness of the barons, whom nothing but the terror of his name, and the strength of his government, could retain in due bounds; and who seized the moment of his absence to enter into rebellious confederacies, and disturb the peace of the kingdom. The reign of Edward I. is one of the most glorious in the British annals, and one from which posterity has derived the greatest advantages. No less wise and politic in peace, than valiant and judicious in war, Edward performed the most essential services to the nation, and from the excellence of the statutes enacted under his influence, has been honoured with the title of the English Justinian.

Like all other great and wise British kings, Edward was particularly attentive to the improvement of the navy, and jealously tenacious of the sovereignty of the sea. In his reign the English seamen acquired that high reputation which they have ever since maintained, and which has proved the glory and safeguard of the nation. "English ships," says an ancient author, "visit every coast, and English sailors excel all others both in the arts of navigation and fighting.*"

This naval pre-eminence inspired the king with corresponding sentiments respecting the deference due to the British flag, and his honour was well supported by Botetourt, who was, after the peace between France and England, made admiral of the British seas.

* Mon. Malmf. p. 157. quoted in Henry's History of England, Vol. XIII. p. 353.

The war still continuing between France and Flanders, Philip the Fair sent out a fleet under one Grimbaldi or Grimbaltz, a Genoese, who, under colour of this commission, took several ships of different nations, bound for the ports of Flanders. Complaints being made on this subject to the kings of both England and France, commissioners were appointed to hear and determine the dispute. Before these commissioners the matter was pleaded in a formal manner. It was alleged on the one side, that the sovereignty of the seas belonged to the kings of England, and charged that the king having delegated his power to Botetourt as his admiral, no other person could have a right to exercise jurisdiction or take the title of admiral on those seas. To this Grimbaltz pleaded: he admitted the sovereignty claimed by the king of England, and did not dispute the paramount title of his admiral; but justified his conduct on the grounds of the late treaty between England and France.

The remainder of Edward the first's reign was spent in efforts to achieve the conquest of Scotland, in which Botetourt accompanied him, and obtained several honourable and lucrative marks of regard.

Edward II. forms in every respect a striking contrast to his illustrious parent. Feeble in peace, inglorious in war, weakly led by favourites who betrayed, and uxoriously attached to a wife who disgraced him, his reign was a continued scene of turbulence and misery, and was terminated by one of those shocking acts of regicide which place a stigma on the page of history. In his time the naval affairs of England were on the decline,
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and Botetourt, though he attended the king in his wars, had little occasion to signalize his prowess at sea. In the year 1315 he was made admiral of a fleet bound towards Scotland, but it performed no memorable service. Botetourt was attentive to his duty in parliament, and formed one in a confederacy against the king's minion, Piers de Gaveston. He died in 1325.

ROBERT DE MORLEY.

THE circumstances under which Edward III. commenced his reign, were so inauspicious as to afford none but the most gloomy prospects. His father had been violently deposed and inhumanly murdered; while his abandoned mother, and Mortimer, her infamous paramour, openly lived in a state of defiance to decency. They abused the power of regency with which they were entrusted during the king's minority, and adopted such a system, in order to promote their own individual views of ambition and interest, as threatened utterly to disgrace the royal authority, and to ruin the realm.

Under their mal-administration Edward had the mortification to witness the execution of his uncle, the earl of Kent, and the plunder and ruin, under various pretences, of many of the principal nobility, whom it was not in his power to protect or avenge. He was made the tool of his mother and Mortimer, in conducting an expedition against the Scots, in which, if not worsted, he was at least unsuccessful; and, instead of being permitted to repair his ill fortune in a manner which suited his ardent genius and impetuous courage, he saw the road to honour barred up by an ignominious peace. He was afterwards, by the influence of the same authority, obliged to go over and do homage to Philip, king of France, for his continental territories, though he himself claimed a superior title to Philip's throne.

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But these clouds were soon dispelled by the virtue and energy of the prince himself; and he shone forth, with dazzling radiance, one of the brightest luminaries which ever decorated the English horizon. While the ascendancy of Mortimer compelled him to use caution, Edward proceeded with the utmost circumspection; but when the general hatred against that minion gave assurance of success, he exerted himself with that vigour and promptitude which marked his character, and in listening to the voice of vengeance, which demanded the death of so conspicuous a traitor, did not shut his ears to the calls of justice, but preserved him from the arm of the assassin, that he might fall by the judgment of his peers.

When Edward had, by destroying this usurped power, obtained a constitutional authority, he soon distinguished Robert de Morley by an extraordinary degree of kindness. Morley had attended him in his expedition to Scotland, and ever displayed the most sincere attachment to his person and interest. He was descended from William de Morley, a valiant soldier under Edward I. and by his marriage with Hawise, a daughter of William de Mareschall, became possessed of the office of marshal of Ireland, which belonged to his lady by descent.

Following the dictates of his own courage, Edward soon recommenced hostilities against the Scots, considering, like his grandfather, Edward I. that the subjugation of that kingdom was a necessary prelude to rendering those measures effectual which he meditated against France. In this war he was attended by Robert de Morley, but as it afforded no display of naval prowess,

a narrative

a narrative of its progress is not within the plan of this work.

Although Edward had no occasion to employ a navy in the Scottish war, he was solicitous to put the marine establishment on a respectable footing, and jealously maintained his title to the lordship of the sea. In order to enforce his claims to those demesnes of which his ancestors had been divested by the French kings, Edward found it necessary to form alliances with several foreign princes and states. He attempted to bring over the Flemings to his interest; but they having sworn allegiance to the king of France, could in no wise be tempted to join him but by his openly contesting the legality of Philip's claim to the crown, and assuming the title himself.

The precipitation with which this resolution was adopted afforded the French king the advantage of making the first attack. Philip having assembled a considerable squadron of large ships, under pretence of giving relief to the christians in the holy land, sent them over to the British coast, where they took and burned Southampton; but in their retreat they were assailed by the English, and lost three hundred men, besides their commander, a son of the king of Sicily: so that, on the whole, they had some reason to regret the expedition.

In 1338 Edward embarked for Antwerp, with a fleet of five hundred sail, of which Morley was appointed admiral; but the period was not yet arrived when his reign was to be distinguished by naval exploits. The English monarch was received by his allies with a degree of regard proportionate to the subsidies he paid them; and they appeared sincerely desirous to promote his

his interests; but the French king declined an engagement, and thus in fruitless skirmishes, or unavailing defiance, that time was wasted and those treasures expended by which Edward had reasonably hoped to accomplish, or, at least, materially forward the objects of his enterprise.

This was not the worst consequence attending the expedition, for the French and Scots, finding England divested of the protection of a fleet, took several opportunities of committing extensive and important depredations. They destroyed the town of Hastings, and spread terror all along the western coast; they also burned Plymouth, and insulted the city of Bristol, the inhabitants of which places could not offer an effectual resistance. These injuries were not entirely unrevenged, for the mariners of the cinque ports, taking advantage of a thick fog, manned all their small craft, and ran over to Boulogne. They burned the lower town together with the dock and arsenal filled with naval stores, destroyed four large ships, nineteen galleys, and twenty lesser vessels, and returned in safety to their own coasts.

In another instance, the valour of the British seamen was honourably shewn, though the result was not in all respects successful. A squadron of five English ships was attacked by thirteen sail of Frenchmen; but notwithstanding this immense disproportion, the Britons defended themselves so valiantly, that two only of their vessels were captured, the rest escaped into port. One of the ships thus captured was named the *Edward*, the other the *Christopher*.

Baffled in his attempts to make an impression on the continent,

continent, no less by the cautious prudence of the French king, than by the exhausted state of his own finances, Edward, in 1340, returned to England, after having disbanded his army, which he was no longer able to support.

During his absence the parliament had been somewhat alarmed at the great demands for money with which they had been obliged to burthen their constituents, and had refused some supplies and greatly diminished others. The king on his return summoned a new parliament, and laid before them a very affecting statement of his necessities. He told them, that without a very large supply, all his designs would be ruined, and himself dishonoured; that he was obliged to return to Bruffels, and to stay there till all the debts he had contracted abroad were paid.

This representation could not fail of producing the desired effect on an English parliament. Every principle of parsimony vanished before the idea of a beloved and gallant monarch's being left in circumstances of disgrace and dishonour. A most liberal supply was immediately voted for two years, amounting to a ninth of the increase of agriculture, and a like proportion of the moveables of every citizen and burghers, together with a considerable addition to the customs and other taxes. In consideration of this ample supply the king voluntarily remitted his claim to certain aids to which he was entitled under the feudal system, for the purpose of making his son a knight, and supplying a marriage portion for his daughter.

The most perfect good understanding being thus established between the king and his affectionate subjects,

he prepared again to embark for the continent, and for that purpose assembled a fleet of forty sail at Orwell in Suffolk.

Having repaired to this place a fortnight before Midsummer, he made arrangements for his expedition, and urged no less by his hopes of glory and success, than by his anxious desire to see his wife and children, whom he had left at Ghent, he resolved to put to sea in two days.

While he was in this situation his prime minister, the archbishop of Canterbury, sent him information that king Philip had, with all possible privacy, assembled a fleet of four hundred sail at the port of Sluys for the express purpose of intercepting his passage, and therefore advised his majesty not to venture to sea with a force so inadequate.

The king, swayed more by his impatience than his judgment, answered, that he was resolved to sail at all events; upon which the archbishop, with all humility, retired from the council, resigning his seals of office into the king's own hand.

Convinced by this proceeding that the advice he had received was not to be slighted, Edward sent for Robert de Morley his admiral, and one Crabbe, a most skilful seaman, whom he ordered to make minute inquiry into the matter. Having taken all proper pains to inform themselves of the facts, they returned into the king's presence, and confirmed in every particular the intelligence and advice of the archbishop.

The mortification of being thus delayed in a favourite project inflamed the irritable temper of Edward to such a degree, that he accused Morley and Crabbe of being

in collusion with the archbishop to prevent the success of his expedition; "You have agreed," he said, "to tell me this tale in order to stop my voyage; but," continued he angrily, "I will go, and you who are thus timid, where there is no ground of fear, may stay at home, I shall do without you."

Morley was grieved to find his courage and loyalty thus groundlessly suspected. He told Edward that he would stake his head that the information and advice he had given were in all respects correct, and that if the king went out of port, he and all who accompanied him would be infallibly destroyed. "But," he added, "I know my duty too well to abandon your majesty in any undertaking, however difficult or hazardous. If it be your majesty's pleasure to lead to captivity, or even to certain death, I shall follow without a murmur, and use my utmost endeavours to obtain a success for which reason forbids me to hope." Crabbe and all the seamen present expressed similar sentiments.

The king, sensible of the wrong he had been guilty of in suspecting and discharging his faithful servants merely for giving him that advice which was suggested by their duty, and founded in their information and judgment, called in the aid of reason to restrain his impatience. In a great mind, the conviction of being in an error is speedily followed by a desire to make amends. Edward immediately sent for the archbishop of Canterbury, and prevailed on him to resume the seals, and craved his advice as to the best measures to be adopted for the purpose of counteracting the projects of his enemies.

The method of raising a naval force in those times was by a royal proclamation, in obedience to which all
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the shipping belonging to English subjects, in whatever ports they might be, were compelled, together with all their men, to join the king, or his admiral, at a given place of rendezvous. By the advice of his minister, Edward now issued such a proclamation both in the north and south, and to the Londoners. The aids which he thus demanded were so liberally supplied, and even exceeded, by the zeal and attachment of his people, that in less than ten days he saw himself possessed of as large a navy as he desired, and received such abundant reinforcements of archers and fighting men, that he was obliged to send some of them back to their homes.

The fleet thus obtained, together with the ships Edward had previously assembled, amounted to two hundred and sixty sail. Morley was constituted admiral, and the king himself commanded the troops on board. They sailed the 22d of June, and arriving before the Haven of Sluys on Midsummer day, fought one of the bravest and most important naval engagements recorded in the annals of history up to that period.

The French fleet, amounting, as has been already observed, to four hundred sail, was commanded by two experienced admirals, named Hugh Quiéret and Peter Bahuchet. The English would have attacked the enemy in harbour; but when they approached, observing their ships to be linked together with iron chains so that it was impossible to break their line of battle, they retired and stood out a little to sea.

This manœuvre occasioned a dispute between the two admirals. Quiéret, thinking Morley fled for fear of the superior force he saw assembled, was eager to go out and fight, while Bahuchet was of opi-

nion that it would be better to stay where they were, and defend the Haven. Quiéret, following the dictates of his own impetuosity, quitted the harbour, while his coadjutor, listening only to the suggestions of prudence, staid within so long, that when he afterwards wished it, he could not come out.

Morley, seeing the French fleet put to sea, by an ingenious manœuvre gained the wind, and what in the system of fighting then pursued was of equal importance, the sun. The king dispatched lord Cobham to reconnoitre the number and force of the enemy, who on his return stated the quantity and magnitude of their vessels, and perhaps descanted on their force with some exaggeration. The monarch was not intimidated by this representation, but heroically answered, "Well, by the assistance of God and saint George, I will now revenge all the wrongs I have received."

The English fleet was drawn up in two lines; the first consisting of vessels of the greatest force, so ranged, that between every two ships filled with archers, there was one with men at arms for the purpose of boarding the enemy; the ships in the wings were also manned with archers. The second line was used as a reserve from which the principal line drew supplies when necessary.

The combat began at eight in the morning. The French commenced it by detaching the ship called the great Christopher, which in the preceding year they had taken from the English, to break the line of battle in which they were drawn up. The enemy advanced to the action with the utmost courage, cheered by songs and shouts, and inspired by a band of martial music.

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The English received them with cool intrepidity, answering their shouts and songs by repeated huzzas. The superiority of the English seamen was soon manifest by the skill and facility with which they tacked, and, as occasion required, either bore down upon, or disengaged themselves from, their opponents.

In sea fights previous to this time it had been a frequent and successful practice to disable the enemy's vessels by running a long side, and carrying away the oars with which they rowed during the action. In this battle, though oars were still occasionally employed, no use was made of this expedient, but the principal reliance was placed on the sails for executing all great manœuvres, and on the archers and men at arms for all important assaults.

The French ships were provided with engines for throwing huge stones, which did considerable damage, but the skill of the English archers, already renowned throughout Europe, was in this engagement eminently conspicuous. They darkened the air with continual, and well directed volleys. The great Christopher was soon recaptured, and being filled with English warriors, was employed against her late owners. The fleets engaged at close quarters, and the French soon perceived their immense inferiority in every respect except numbers. No quarter was given, and many of the enemy, pressed by the valour and superior tactics of the English, and galled to madness by the severe discharges of arrows, jumped into the sea, encountering certain destruction to avoid continuing a contest which they saw must terminate to their disadvantage.

During the battle, the Flemings, who descried it from

the shore, brought a reinforcement, and to this some French authors have attributed the fate of the day. But this allegation is unsupported by reason or fact. The number of ships brought into action by the Flemings was not sufficient to counterbalance the prodigious superiority of the French force, or to act with material effect in co-operation with the English; nor would those cautious allies have risked themselves in battle, had they not perceived that victory already inclined to the side they intended to espouse. The French were undoubtedly guilty of a great imprudence in commencing the action so near to the coasts of Flanders, but this circumstance did not produce any important consequences.

After a most obstinate contest, which lasted till seven o'clock in the evening, the enemy were defeated in every quarter, and two hundred of their ships fell into the hands of the victors. Quiéret was killed during the action, and the survivors were so incensed against Bahucliet, that they hung him up at the yard-arm. Their loss in this engagement amounted to thirty thousand men, while that of the English did not exceed four thousand, although a large ship and galley from Hull, together with another vessel, were sunk by volleys of stones, and all on board perished, except two men and a woman.

A part of the enemy's forces consisted in an auxiliary squadron of Genoese ships, under the command of an experienced admiral, named Barbarini; he alone shewed a considerable degree of skill, and insured a proportionate success. As soon as the English fleet was in sight, he stood out to sea, and after fighting valiantly, as long as success |

was probable, he had the good fortune to save the remainder of his ships from the hands of the victors.

Thirty sail of Frenchmen, the relicks of this formidable armament, attempted to escape in the night; but a part of the English fleet, under the earl of Huntingdon, intercepted and captured them; and on the ensuing day the victorious monarch entered the harbour of Sluys in triumph.

The news of this important achievement, which was speedily brought to England, was received with great joy, and occasioned an increased alacrity throughout the nation, in raising the supplies voted for the king's service. It excited also the greatest ardour among his allies, who immediately took the field, and he found himself at the head of a hundred thousand men, besides fifty thousand Flemings, who, under the command of Robert de Artois, laid siege to Saint Omers.

In France, the intelligence occasioned general and deep-felt regret. The courtiers were in such consternation, that they durst not communicate the unwelcome tidings to Philip. At length the court jester undertook the task. He ran into the king's presence, shouting and exclaiming, "Oh the base English! Oh the cowardly English! Oh the paltry, faint-hearted English!" Upon the king's inquiring why he thus railed against the English; the jester replied, "Why do I rail? because they had not the courage to jump into the sea, as your majesty's brave French and Normans have done." An explanation ensued, in which Philip learned the extent of his misfortune, which he bore with more firmness than had been expected by those who thought it neces-

fary to disguise the features of truth in so ridiculous a mask.

Edward's ultimate success in this expedition was not commensurate to the expectations raised by his fortunate outset. The Flemings who besieged Saint Omers, being for the most part mechanics, unused to war, were routed by a sortie from the garrison, nor could all the efforts of their valiant commander induce them to rally. According to the genius of that age, Edward sent a challenge to his rival, to decide their pretensions by single combat, or by a limited number of knights on each side. This Philip declined, alleging, with reason, that Edward, having once done homage to him as vassal, was not entitled to the rights of combat, and that in such a contest the challenger might gain every thing, but had nothing to lose.

The siege of Tournay, in which Edward employed his forces, proceeded but slowly, and the remittances he received from England were not in any manner correspondent to the liberality of parliament, or the promises of his ministers. This deficiency is attributed to the malversation of the king's officers in general, but more particularly to the intrigues of the archbishop of Canterbury; he acted under the influence of the pope, who was known to be attached to the cause of the French king.

But whatever might be the cause of Edward's wanting pecuniary support, the effect was speedily obvious. His allies, no longer expecting to be paid, deserted his cause, and, after having been reduced to the most degrading expedients, after having even pawned his own diadem

diadem and the queen's jewels for a supply, Edward found himself under the necessity of once more abandoning all his projects, of raising the siege of Tournay, concluding a truce with the enemy, and returning to England.

Before this period Morley's command was limited to the northern fleet, in which he was principally employed in transporting troops, and protecting the English coast. In two years afterwards the war was renewed, and Morley, having the command of the Cinque Port fleet, ravaged the coasts of Normandy, and burned three-score ships, three towns, and two villages.

From this period, although Morley's commission of admiral was frequently renewed, he does not seem to have distinguished himself at sea. He attended Edward in all his wars, and served him in person at the famous battle of Cressy, fought the 26th of August, 1346.

His whole life was spent in active service; and, besides being constantly returned to parliament, he was appointed constable of the Tower of London, and named in several important commissions for the defence of the kingdom.

He died in the year 1360, being then in France, in the army of his victorious sovereign, by whom he was ever highly esteemed, and by whom his merits were liberally rewarded.

WILLIAM EARL OF HUNTINGDON,

WILLIAM DE CLINTON was a lineal descendant of Geoffrey de Clinton, lord chamberlain and treasurer to Henry I. He was son of John de Clinton, of Maxstoke, in the county of Warwick, by Ida, eldest daughter and heiress of William de Odingsfels.

In the year 1324, he was made a knight by Edward II. and on the accession of Edward III. was employed to receive and conduct John of Hainault, who had landed at Dover with a considerable force, to assist in the inglorious expedition against the Scots. In 1330 he married Julian, daughter of Sir Thomas de Leyburne, and widow of John de Hastings of Bergavenny. To this alliance he was supposed to owe much of his subsequent elevation, though it is to be attributed in a much greater degree to his own merit and prudence.

Clinton early attached himself to the interests of the young king, and was one of those who engaged in the hazardous enterprize of surprising and bringing to justice the miscreant Mortimer. From this period he was highly considered by his sovereign, who created him justice of Chester, governor of Dover castle, and warden of the cinque ports; and in 1332, he was called to parliament among the barons of the realm.

Clinton, while yet a young man, was distinguished by his piety, and the liberality with which he bestowed his lands and property in endowments for religious and charitable

table purposes, in which he was abundantly seconded by his amiable and virtuous lady. His wisdom and prudence daily gained him additional interest with his sovereign, who, in 1333, appointed him lord admiral of the seas, from the mouth of the Thames westward, and on the 16th March, 1337, by letters patent, created him earl of Huntingdon.

After this he was employed in several important embassies, and displayed great ability in concluding some of those alliances by which Edward hoped to achieve the conquest of France. In returning by sea from one of those missions, he attacked and captured two Flemish vessels laden with Scots, of whom they took two hundred and fifty, and amongst them the bishop of Glasgow, and several noblemen's sons.

In the famous sea fight near Sluys, the earl of Huntingdon exerted himself in a conspicuous manner, and contributed to the glory of the transaction by the capture of thirty French ships which attempted to escape after the battle.

When Edward had been compelled by necessity to conclude a truce with the French king, and returned to England, he employed himself with great diligence and spirit in reforming the abuses which had crept into every department of the state, and in punishing the authors of them. From the severity of this inquisition, and its penalties, even the archbishop of Canterbury, John Stratford, was not exempt, although he exerted all the influence which his high situation and sacerdotal character supplied, in attempting to avert the blow.

Between enemies so inveterate as Edward and the French king, any circumstance which promised advantage,

tage, formed a sufficient motive for a recommencement of hostilities, and the disputed succession to the duchy of Brittany supplied, in 1342, a pretence for unsheathing the sword. This contest produced no naval exploit of importance, except the capture of a few ships by Sir Walter Manny, and one skirmish in which the English had not the advantage, although they succeeded in accomplishing the object of their enterprize.

Edward had resolved to send a reinforcement to his army on the continent, and for that purpose embarked five hundred men at arms, and a thousand archers, on board ordinary transports, under the command of the earls of Northampton and Devonshire. The French king obtained information of this intention, and in order to intercept the supply, hired from different nations thirty-two sail of ships, nine of which were of extraordinary size, and three stout galleys. On board this fleet were three thousand Genoese, and a thousand men at arms, commanded by Carolo Grimbaldi and Antonio Doria. The king's fleet was under the command of no admiral in particular, nor was it composed of vessels calculated to resist with effect an enemy so powerful. Yet they did not, although attacked unexpectedly, relinquish the high character they had acquired, or yield to their opponents an easy bloodless victory; on the contrary, the fight began off Guernsey at four o'clock in the afternoon, and was maintained till night, when a storm arose, and the English, keeping in near shore, landed their troops, who performed important services. The enemy remained at sea, in token of having gained the victory, and had in fact captured four of the English squadron.

The

The king soon afterwards went over into Brittany with a powerful reinforcement, but the exploits he was enabled to perform were so little adequate to his hopes, that before the end of 1342 he concluded a truce for three years. Negotiations were commenced under the pope's influence for an entire pacification, but they were not successful, and the truce was soon broken, or rather it was never well kept.

In 1344 war was renewed against France, and in 1346 Edward, having resolved to make an important attempt, assembled at Portsmouth a fleet of a thousand sail, under the command of the earl of Huntingdon. With this mighty armament, on board which he had embarked two thousand five hundred horse, and thirty thousand foot, the king designed, in the first place, to relieve his general, the earl of Derby, who, after performing many valiant exploits for the space of two years in the province of Guienne, was reduced to most difficult and dangerous circumstances, and pressed by a French force infinitely superior to his own. Eager to accomplish the objects of his expedition, Edward embarked at Portsmouth in the beginning of June, but he was detained by contrary winds till the 10th of July.

However mortifying this delay might be to a prince of Edward's impatient spirit, it was highly beneficial to his interests, as in the interval he formed such an alteration of his plan as was productive of one of the most glorious events of his reign. By the advice of Godfrey de Harcourt, a Norman nobleman, who had been affronted and injured by the French monarch, and had in consequence fled to England, Edward, instead of sailing to Guienne, where a powerful enemy was ready to oppose him, resolved to attack Normandy, the ancient patri-
mony

trimony of the kings of England, a rich and defenceless territory.

In consequence of this wise determination, the grand fleet sailed from St. Helen's the 10th of July, and arrived at La Hogue in Normandy on the 12th. The king having landed his troops without opposition, wisely resolved to allow them six days for the advantage of rest and refreshment, which was rendered necessary by their long confinement on shipboard.

When their spirits were thus repaired, the earl of Huntingdon, seconding the king's military operations, visited the several sea-ports on the coasts, and destroyed the shipping, while the army ravaged the open country, took and plundered the towns, spreading terror and desolation even to the gates of Paris. The troops were enriched by an immense booty, which was put on board some of the ships and sent to England; Caen alone afforded treasure enough to freight one large vessel, besides near four hundred wealthy citizens and knights whose ransoms were expected to be largely productive. Such were the immediate advantages which Edward derived from the employment of a powerful fleet, and an army composed entirely of his own subjects.

The French king, irritated at the continual success of the English army and navy, forsook the line of conduct which caution had usually dictated, and pursued those measures which brought on the famous and glorious battle of Cressy. To describe this ever-memorable action is not within the scope of this work, but the general outline and result are comprized in few words. The English army under the command of king Edward and his son, the illustrious Black Prince, was attacked by a
French

French force of more than three times their number: the king nevertheless, relying on the valour and conduct of the prince of Wales, who was then only sixteen years old, would not suffer a considerable part of his army to take any share in the action. The French were utterly defeated, losing eighty bannerets, twelve hundred knights, fourteen hundred gentlemen, four thousand men at arms, and about thirty thousand of inferior rank, besides many of their principal nobility. The kings of Minorca and Bohemia, who had joined the French king, were also slain, and from the king of Bohemia the prince of Wales derived the crest which has been ever since borne by his successors—three ostrich feathers, and the motto ICH DIEN, in English, I serve. The loss on the part of the victors was almost incredibly small, amounting only to three knights, one esquire, and a very few of inferior rank.

Edward was not so elated with this victory, however encouraging and important, as to think with his small force of conquering the whole kingdom, or even an extensive province. He left those exploits to future contingencies, but resolved, if possible, to secure an entrance into France without being subjected to the difficulties he had hitherto encountered.

For this purpose he commenced the siege of Calais, and to give more certain effect to his operations caused the town to be blockaded at sea by a fleet of seven hundred and thirty-eight sail, on board of which were fourteen thousand nine hundred and fifty-six mariners, under the earl of Huntingdon.

An exact list of this fleet is preserved in the British Museum; and another, copied from a roll lodged in the king's

king's wardrobe, is given by Hackluyt, which, though it differs in some particulars, agrees in the general result *. This list is not of sufficient importance to be copied into this work, but it supplies interesting information respecting the state of the navy at that period, and furnishes certain deductions respecting the state of maritime affairs in England, and by comparison in other kingdoms.

I. It appears that, on an average, each ship contained about twenty-one men, which, as oars were not so much in use as formerly, allows for vessels of considerable bulk, especially considering that these were mere mariners, and not employed in fighting, but only in navigating the ships.

II. Of this great force only thirty-eight were foreign ships; so that while France could make no effort at sea, without relying on the Genoese and other nations for aid, England could equip such a powerful navy, without the assistance of any other country.

III. It appears from the list above referred to, that the ships were supplied by the cities, towns, boroughs, and cinque ports of England; and from a comparison of their different aids in men and ships an estimate may be formed of their opulence or their loyalty. The king contributed twenty-five ships and four hundred and nineteen mariners, to which may probably be added the thirty-eight foreign vessels as being hired at his expence. The city of London furnished only twenty-five ships, but they were larger than the king's, as they contained six hundred and sixty-two men, or on an average upwards of twenty-six men in each ship. Fowey, in Cornwall, exceeded the capital in ability or in liberality, as it sent forty-seven ships and seven hundred and seventy

* MS. in Bibl. Cotton. Titus F. III. 8. Hackluyt, Part I. p. 118.
See also Lediard's Nav. Hist. V. I. p. 53.

men. The ships were but small, as must be obvious from considering their crews. Shoreham sent more ships than London, but they must have been of inconsiderable size, as in twenty-six vessels there were only three hundred and twenty-nine mariners. Bristol furnished twenty four ships of considerable size, for they contained six hundred and eight men. The ships from Winchelsea were very large, as twenty-one, the number supplied from thence, were navigated by five hundred and ninety-six men, or on an average upwards of twenty-eight in each ship. But Yarmouth excelled all other places both in number and magnitude of vessels. From that place were sent forty-three ships, containing nineteen hundred and five seamen, being, on an average, somewhat more than forty-four to each vessel.

Thus encompassed, and all supplies being cut off both by sea and land, the inhabitants of Calais, after a gallant defence of eleven months, during which they experienced all the miseries of famine, thought of treating for a surrender, which was at length accomplished, and the British monarch gained this invaluable fortress and city. A popular account has been given by many historians, of Edward's having insisted on a certain number of the principal citizens attending him to yield up the keys with halters about their necks, and of his having been with difficulty induced to refrain from hanging them; but there are many strong reasons for doubting the truth of this story.

After this, by the mediation of the pope, a truce was concluded for three years, during which the French, with their accustomed perfidy, attempted to regain Calais by the treachery of an Italian, Aymeri de Pavia, whom

whom Edward had left as governor. The plot however being discovered by Aymeri's secretary, the king secretly equipped a fleet, and went over to Calais with such a force, that the French, instead of accomplishing their design, were defeated and cut to pieces with great loss and carnage.

While the truce yet continued between England and France, Edward was unexpectedly assailed by a new enemy from whom he had no reason to expect such conduct. In the month of November, 1349, a squadron of Spanish ships sailing unexpectedly up the Garonne, found a considerable number of English vessels at Bourdeaux laden with wine. These they attacked, although the two nations were at peace, and not only plundered and sunk the ships, but cruelly murdered the seamen on board. Incensed at this perfidious act of rapacity, the king, having in the next year gained intelligence that a squadron of Spanish ships were on their return from Flanders, collected a fleet of fifty sail at Sandwich. The command was intrusted to the earl of Huntingdon, and the king himself did not disdain to shew his prowess in the expedition. The prince of Wales, and many of the nobility, were also emulous of serving on the occasion.

On the 25th of August they encountered near Winchelsea the Spanish fleet, consisting of forty-four ships of uncommon large size, called carracks. The engagement was resolutely maintained, the enemy refused quarter, though it was offered them, and preferred death to captivity. The height of their ships gave them a great advantage, but every thing yielded to the great superiority of the English archers. Twenty-four of the Spanish

Spanish vessels, loaded with cloth and other valuable merchandize, were captured, and had not the friendly shade of night intervened, not one of them would have escaped. Those which were so fortunate, had been so severely handled that they had great difficulty in regaining their own shores.

This contest reflected the greatest honour to the earl of Huntingdon, and Edward was so pleased with the victory he had obtained, that he perpetuated the memory of it by a gold coin which he caused to be struck for that purpose. On this money the king was represented standing on board a ship, in armour, with a drawn sword in his hand, and in the inscription he was styled, *The Avenger of the Merchants*.

The earl of Huntingdon was before this period in the greatest favour with his sovereign, whom he had assisted during the French war, at the siege of Aiguillon, and who, in payment of his services, rewarded him with the ample sum of eight hundred and twenty-three pounds twelve shillings and fourpence. He was afterwards employed by the king in several embassies, particularly, in 1349, to the earl of Flanders, and, in 1351, to the king of France for a prolongation of the truce.

This was the last public transaction in which the earl of Huntingdon was engaged. His health was already declining, and, having arranged his affairs, and added considerably to the funds he had previously appropriated to charitable uses, he died at Maxstoke the 23d of August 1354.

JOHN DE HASTINGS, EARL OF PEMBROKE.

JOHN DE HASTINGS was son and heir of Lawrence de Hastings, earl of Pembroke. The mother of Lawrence, who was Julian, widow of Thomas de Leybourne, was married to William de Clinton, earl of Huntingdon, and Lawrence being intrusted to his charge as guardian, was early initiated in the arts of war both by sea and land. He distinguished himself in the famous sea-fight off Sluys in Flanders, and in several other engagements. He died at an early age, before his son John had completed his second year.

During the minority of John de Hastings no memorable transaction took place at sea. Edward III. renewed hostilities against France; and on the 19th of September, 1356, the illustrious Black Prince fought the celebrated battle of Poitiers, in which the king of France was taken prisoner. This war was at length honourably terminated for England by the peace of Bretigny, signed in 1360.

The young earl of Pembroke was so highly esteemed by his sovereign, that he gave him in marriage his daughter Margaret, but the princess did not long survive the nuptials. The earl afterwards married Anne, who was daughter and finally heiress of Sir Walter Manny, a veteran officer of the highest merit. This lady
being

being related within the third or fourth degree of consanguinity to the princess Margaret, the earl was obliged to obtain a dispensation from the pope to marry her, which cost him the excessive sum of a thousand golden florins.

So long as John king of France, with whom Edward had made peace, survived, the treaty was honourably observed; but his successor Charles V. surnamed the Wise, when he ascended the throne soon manifested a disposition to renew hostilities. For this purpose, in express violation of the terms of peace, he cited the prince of Wales to Paris to answer for some pretended misdemeanors in the government of his own provinces. The high spirit of that prince could not brook this indignity: he returned an answer that he would attend in Paris with his helmet on, and sixty thousand men to witness his appearance. Upon this the king of France declared king Edward's provinces in France forfeited for contumacy, and, to render the proceeding more irreparably injurious, sent the notice, not by a herald, but by a scullion.

Thus, in 1369, war again broke out between England and France. Charles had not courted this event without having made secret preparations for an advantageous outset. He hired and purchased ships from all the powers in Europe, and meditated the invasion and destruction of England. But although Edward was not equally prepared for war, and although his finances were considerably deranged and the vigour of his government much impaired by the feebleness and want of exertion attending his advanced period of life, yet he was not in a situation so helpless as to give success by

inertness to the projects of his enemy. He speedily collected a fleet and army, and the French king, instead of invading England, was obliged to exert all his force to defend his own territories against the duke of Lancaster, Edward's third son, and the earl of Warwick, who invaded him with a considerable army.

The duke of Lancaster had formed a plan for burning the whole French fleet in the port of Harfleur, but it was frustrated by the count de Saint Pol, whose vigilance and good fortune prevented the execution of the project. The ill health of the prince of Wales, and the disposition of the people in the conquered provinces, enabled the French king to gain many important advantages by land, and for two years an unsuccessful war was waged against an enemy whom the English had been so long accustomed to defeat. The increasing illness of the Black Prince prevented his retaining the command of the army, and those who were subsequently appointed wanted genius or vigour to restore the king's affairs.

Edward did not neglect his naval defence, but, having received liberal supplies from parliament, equipped several squadrons, which cruised on the French coast, and took many valuable prizes. The French besieged Rochelle, and the king, desirous of relieving so valuable a port, sent out a considerable fleet under the command of the earl of Pembroke, whom he also constituted lieutenant of Aquitaine. The earl arrived at Rochelle on the eve of St. John the Baptist's day; but his expedition was entirely unfortunate. A Spanish squadron, fitted out by the king of Castile, lay in wait for him; and as soon as he was got into the haven, and before he could form in a line of battle, attacked, and utterly defeated him.

him. The whole fleet was captured, or destroyed, and very few on board escaped death, wounds, or imprisonment. The loss was in every respect prejudicial, and even fatal to the English interest, as among other vessels captured, was one with the king's treasure on board, for the maintenance of the war, to the amount of twenty thousand marks. The earl of Pembroke himself was taken prisoner, and carried into Spain.

The superstition of the age shewed itself in the speculations of the people on this unfortunate catastrophe. Some, because it took place on the day of St. Æthelred the Virgin, said God's judgment followed the earl for the injury he had done to the church of that saint at Ely, in a cause between the churches of Ely and Edmond's Bury. It was said too, that the money was unlucky, because it had been obtained from all the religious houses and the clergy; some attributed the misfortune to the earl of Pembroke's dissipation, and his leading an adulterous life, although a married man—a crime which, according to their notions of justice, was visited by the destruction of a whole fleet. But the clergy, who took great care to attribute every disaster to the neglects or injuries they endured, asserted that what had happened was a punishment on Pembroke, for having persuaded the king to lay a greater tax on the clergy than on the laity for the support of the war. And the annalist of those days gravely adds, that although this practice of pilling and poling the church was agreeable enough to the temporal lords, yet the success attending it was sufficiently obvious to England and the whole world.

These ridiculous observations would hardly merit attention, but they shew how ready men, who reason but imperfectly on things the most obvious, are to assign supernatural causes for every considerable event; how eager they are to make the saints, and even the Deity himself, actively interfere in all sublunary affairs; and to what trifling and inefficient motives they ascribe a degree of resentment sufficient to produce the most stupendous and important effects.

The public mind is seldom attached to merit independently of success; the opinions of the people fluctuate with every variation of fortune; and Edward's subjects forgot in his late disgraces all the glories of his reign. They were taught to feel anxiety at the overweening disposition of the duke of Lancaster, whom they accused of aspiring to the crown; and to express disapprobation at the influence which Alice Pierce, the king's mistress, acquired over him, which they apprehended would reach to a dangerous pitch, and give to her relations and friends an undue influence at court and in the kingdom.

A truce was at length agreed on, but not till Edward had the mortification to see himself deprived of all his ancient possessions in France, except Bourdeaux and Bayonne, and all his conquests, except Calais.

The earl of Pembroke languished in captivity in Spain four years, during which he was treated with the greatest inhumanity, and only obtained his enlargement at the intercession of the constable of France. This was merely an exchange of a more severe for a less rigorous confinement. He was brought prisoner to Paris, where his health visibly and daily declined, infomuch

that it was supposed that he had been poisoned by the Spaniards.

The constable of France seeing his prisoner's end approaching, and eager to receive his ransom, which he considered the more justly his due, because he had taken him from the king of Spain as an equivalent for a sum of money, attempted to remove him to Calais, but in his journey there the earl died, on the 16th day of August 1375. His corpse was brought to England, and interred at the Friars Preachers at Hereford, but afterwards removed to the Grey Friars, London.

The end of Edward's reign was proportioned to its ominous commencement, rather than to the brilliant æra which constitutes its middle period. He saw his beloved son, the glory of the world, sink into the grave, undermined by long continued illness, at a premature age. He survived his loss but a twelvemonth, and, after a reign of fifty years, expired at Richmond, to the unspeakable regret of his subjects, who no sooner knew his loss, than they learned to appreciate his virtues, and to feel in its full extent their own misfortune,

The course of biographical narration is here suspended for a short space to review the period over which the reader has been led, and to examine those circumstances which now brought forth a new system in the commerce, warfare, and politics of mankind.

No invention has contributed more to produce these extraordinary effects than that of gunpowder, which was discovered about the year 1340, and from the cheapness and facility of its composition, and the immensity of its operations, was soon adopted, in a partial

degree, by all nations. In the first view of the subject this invention would seem calculated for the express purpose of depopulating the earth, and furnishing to the malignity of man the most extensive and effectual means for the destruction of his fellow-creature. This is the impression which it makes on the imagination, and from this sentiment it has been treated by two of the greatest poets in the world, Ariosto and Milton, as proceeding from the mind of an enchanter, and from the chief of the fallen angels himself. But when this apparently mischievous invention comes to be deliberately considered, with all the calmness of reason, it will be found, in fact, beneficial to the human race. The principle of self-defence is much more strongly operative than that of extermination; and, if the means of doing mischief have been augmented by the use of gunpowder, those of protection have been increased in a ratio so much greater, that instead of large tracts of land being now utterly depopulated by a victorious army, cities and towns are in general considered safe refuges in times of war; and even when besieged, the defence, upon the system introduced since artillery has been used, is so certain, and the fall of the place besieged so gradual, that every provision is made for the safety of the vanquished; and in the contests of civilized nations it rarely occurs that the victor is driven to such extremities as to use with rigour all the advantages which success places in his hands. Hence humanity has become part of the practice of war, and the refusal of quarter, the massacre of prisoners, and the exaction of ransom, are entirely disused: in the field, the carnage is not nearly so great in proportion to the number of combatants; the impression to be produced is calculated with greater certainty, and the combined operation of artillery and the bayonet

bayonet are less destructive than the cross-bow, the long bow, the spear, the sword, the battle-axe, and the mace, were in the hands of our iron-cased ancestors. Edward used a few pieces of cannon at the battle of Cressy, and to their operation much of the success of that day was attributed. The French king had some cannon too, but their construction was so clumsy, and his eagerness to overtake the enemy so great, that he left them behind, flattering himself with a certain victory independently of their aid.

At sea, where it might be supposed that the operation of guns would be irresistibly dreadful, the same beneficial consequences have ensued. Ships are now formed of such a size, and on such a construction, that a broadside is less dreadful than a furious volley of stones discharged from machines in such a manner as by their weight and impetuosity to sink a ship, and the sailors, who are now guarded by every device ingenuity and experience can suggest, have less to fear from the whole force of the enemy, than those of former times had from those showers of arrows which fell with certain destruction on their defenceless heads. An event of modern date, comparable only in a slight degree to the sea-fight off Sluys, where near thirty-five thousand lives were lost, would be regarded with a degree of horror almost inconceivable.

Another discovery of still greater importance to the interests and welfare of mankind was the compass, which, in the words of the poet,

—— directs the pilot's hand
 To shun the rocks and treach'rous sand;
 By which the distant world is known,
 And either India is our own.

The powers which constitute this wonderful machine were first ascertained in the year 1302, but the application was not rapid in proportion to its importance. When the use of the compass was fully known, and the benefits derived from it made a proper impression, a new light seemed to break in upon mankind. Then quitting the coasts to which he had before been obliged to confine himself, the mariner fearlessly launched out into the unpractised desarts of the ocean. Then began an age of adventure and discovery: those voyages were then made, and those lands familiarly explored by Europeans, which, if obscurely alluded to in the works of poets or romance writers of a preceding period, were looked upon as the brilliant chimeras and impracticable delusions of the imagination, scorning the sober restraints of reason, and overleaping the boundaries of common sense.

The latter part of Edward's reign was not favourable to the commerce of England; the frequent demands for shipping in the course of his wars had prevented many of his subjects from fitting out their accustomed quantity, and foreigners had begun to encroach on the carrying trade: they obtained a footing in England through the negligence of the merchants, who were afraid to equip vessels which might be pressed into the king's service, while those of foreigners were exempt from that apprehension. To this circumstance, which damped the ardour of the first of naval nations, may be attributed the tardy reception of the compass into general use, and the slow progress of voyages of discovery, which were not prosecuted in a manner which was calculated to produce important and extensive benefit till the latter end of the next century.

It may be proper here to relate what discoveries were effected by Englishmen, either from accident or design, up to the end of Edward's reign; and in subsequent times these voyages will be found sufficiently important to claim the interest of the reader at the periods when they occurred.

Early history is ever disgraced and obscured by fiction, and pretences are made, and resolutely supported, to the honour resulting from achievements and discoveries, which, in fact, is not to be justly assigned to those in whose behalf it is claimed. Whether the following account is merely a result of national vanity, or the narrative of a real fact, is left entirely to the judgment of the reader; it wears some appearance of probability, but is attended with many questionable circumstances, and is not received by authors of the soundest judgment and most extensive information*.

About the year 1170, on the death of Owen Guyneth, prince of Wales, his three sons disputed the right of succession, and prepared to vindicate their claims by force of arms. MADOC, one of the number, weary of this contention, and not wishing to contribute to the depopulation of his country by a civil war, went on board a ship with a certain number of his adherents, to seek a more tranquil settlement. He steered due west, leaving Ireland to the north, and arrived at length in an unknown country. It appeared to him so desirable to form an establishment in this new region, that he re-

* See Lord Lyttleton's Hist. of the Reign of Henry II. Book V. p. 371. Dr. Robertson's Hist. of America, Vol. I. p. 330. Hackluyt's Voyages, Vol. III. p. 1. Lediard's Naval Hist. Vol. I. p. 13. Campbell, Vol. I. p. 194; and a vast number of other authors.

turned to Wales, and vaunting the exquisite richness, beauty, and fertility of the lands he had seen, reproached his countrymen for their folly in losing their lives in a quarrel for the barren mountains of Wales, while so delicious an abode awaited them in another part of the world. This representation induced many to join him in an expedition, and he went with ten ships to take possession of his new discovered land. These adventurers were never heard of afterwards; but when America was explored by Columbus, and other nations became anxious to deprive him of the honour thus acquired, then some Welch writers revived the history of this expedition, and insisted that Madoc was the first European who failed to America.

If it may be believed that Madoc actually made such a voyage as is imputed to him, there will remain many reasons to doubt that America was the place at which he landed. It is to be doubted whether in the twelfth century the Welch possessed ships of a sufficient size for the accomplishment of such a voyage, and it appears by no means certain, that if Madoc had reached to America by accident, he could ever have found his way back again to Wales, and from thence have returned to America again. If christians had established themselves on that continent, it appears utterly improbable, that in so short a space as three centuries all traces of that religion, and every vestige of European manners and customs, should have been utterly lost and eradicated from among their progeny.

In support of their fancied point of national honour, the Welch with considerable confidence advanced that many words used in America appeared of Welch derivation,

tion, and bore analogous meanings in both languages. But such an argument, either in coincidence or opposition, carries very little weight in the establishment of an historical fact. The origin of language is so imperfectly understood, that nothing in the nature of analysis can prove the affinity of one distant nation to another in a nearer degree than their common derivation from one universal parent stock. The instance most insisted on by the Welch is somewhat unfortunate. The word penguin, which is the name of an American bird, is according to them compounded of two Welch monosyllables signifying white-head. A derivative so perfect was long admitted as a strong circumstantial proof of the correctness of the Welch historians, but the learned zoologist Mr. Pennant, who accurately describes this fowl, has destroyed the hypothesis by stating, that all birds of this genus have black heads; "so that we must resign every hope," he adds, "of retrieving the Cambrian race in the new world*."

Some authors have attempted to compromise with the Welch, by admitting the truth of Madoc's emigration, and supposing that the island of Madeira was the place discovered by him. But even of this there is no certainty. The discovery of that valuable island is by others attributed to an Englishman named MACHAM, who landed there by accident in the year 1344. It is said that Macham, having gained the affections of a Portuguese lady, persuaded her to elope with him, and went on shipboard intending to have carried her to Spain. When they were at sea, a storm arose, which drove the vessel entirely out of the intended course, and after encountering

* Phil. Tran. Vol. LVIII. p. 91. Robertson's Hist. of America, Vol. I. p. 334.

great dangers, they landed at an unknown island, which was afterwards called Madeira. The crew, while Macham and his lady, accompanied by a few of their servants, were on shore, put to sea again, and left them in that desolate situation.

The lady soon died of sickness and fatigue; and Macham and his companions having performed her funeral obsequies, erected a small wooden chapel which they consecrated to Jesus Christ, and then made a sort of canoe of one single tree, which they laboriously hollowed. In this they put to sea again, and gained the coast of Africa. They were taken prisoners by the Moors, who sent them to the king of Castile. The narrative of their voyage becoming generally known, inspired a great curiosity to improve and ascertain the discovery of the new island, which was speedily effected under the auspices of Henry king of Portugal. It was named Madeira from the quantity of wood with which it then abounded; and it is alleged that the bay where Macham and his friends landed is still called after him Machico.

In this narrative there are several improbabilities, and the account is not adopted by the abbé Raynal, or by Dr. Robertson, who give the history of the discovery of Madeira, without mentioning the name of Macham. It would be presumptuous to aver that a narrative which does not originate in an English author, and therefore may be read without suspicion on the score of national vanity, is utterly untrue; and as this account has been received by many writers of considerable discernment, it ought not to be suppressed. It may however be observed, that the derivative Machico does not add much to the
presumptive

presumptive evidence, since there is in the territory of Spain, in the bay of Biscay, a promontory called Machicaco, from which the Portuguese were much more likely to derive the name of a bay in their new settlement.

Among the enterprizes undertaken by Englishmen for the purpose of extending by discovery the limits of knowledge, and the sphere of commerce, the labours and voyages of NICHOLAS DE LINNA hold a conspicuous place. This learned adventurer was a friar of Oxford; he had made a great proficiency in astronomy, and understanding in a greater degree than his contemporaries the use of the magnetic needle, he resolved, in the year 1369, to make a voyage of discovery to the north. When he had proceeded to a considerable distance further than any previous navigator, he left his companions, and went in search of new discoveries, which he constantly noted down, making sketches of the countries he viewed, and distinguishing the indrawings of the seas. At his return he presented his book to king Edward. It was intitled, *Inventio Fortunata*, or a discovery of the northern parts from the latitude of fifty-four degrees to the pole.

He made five several voyages after this, to perfect his discoveries; but so uncertain is the preservation of books before the art of printing was established, that from the circumstance of no trace of his volume being found, and from some fabulous accounts which are mixed with his history, the voyages of Nicholas are also become subject to doubt. But, upon a candid examination, they seem sufficiently authenticated to claim belief. The account of them is transmitted by John Dee, a great antiquary and skilful mathematician; and he observes, that

that from the haven of Lynn in Norfolk, of which de Linna, as appears by his name, was a native, it was but a fortnight's sail to Iceland. The passage to Iceland was well known, and much used by the inhabitants of the northern part of England. It is not therefore surprising that a man of science should conceive and execute the project of pushing his discoveries further than ignorant mariners could do, or could even believe, on any other testimonies than their own senses.

It appears very probable that de Linna's book, though perhaps graciously received, would not be highly prized by the king. A voyage to the north promised neither pleasure nor profit; no luxurious natives offered an easy conquest; no mines or treasures promised to indemnify a monarch for the expenses of an expedition of discovery or colonization. Besides, at the time this learned friar returned, Edward was grown old: the fire of enterprize was damped, if not extinguished; his views were entirely directed to other objects, and a disclosure much more important to his immediate interest than that presented by de Linna would hardly make a great impression.

The improbability of this adventurer's leaving his companions to proceed on his discoveries without them, may also occasion some doubts. It is to be considered that the vessels in which he sailed were not fitted out expressly for voyages of discovery, but for the purposes of trade, and when the masters had accomplished the objects of their expedition, the curiosity of an individual, who could not promise an adequate compensation, would not have a sufficient influence to induce them to prosecute a voyage to the detriment of their own interest.

But

But de Linna, animated by the fire of genius, and the irresistible impulse of a superior mind, could not be deterred by such obstacles; he pursued his original design in such conveyances and at such periods as the country enabled him to avail himself of, and thinking only of the end, forgot the difficulties of his progress.

Vanity, slander, ignorance, or superstition, produced the greatest ground of disbelief in the truth of his adventures, by favouring the assertion, that he went to the north pole by the aid of magic, or the black art. The prevalence of this story may have induced some of de Linna's biographers, and particularly Leland and Bale, to omit all mention of his voyages, and of his book called *Inventio Fortunata*. They were unable to clear the narrative from the weeds of fiction, which had taken such deep root, and therefore forebore to touch on the subject. But the report that Nicholas made his discoveries, by means of a commerce with supernatural agents, proves at least that the fact of his being a great traveller was well known and generally accredited.

That such a report should be raised in an age so ignorant and superstitious, affords no room for surprise. The influence of the stars on human affairs was so universally believed that any acquaintance with the motions of the heavenly bodies was sufficient to induce a suspicion of sorcery. Maps and charts were not yet in use, and a considerable proficiency in geography was unattainable; but the ignorance of the age with respect to the shape and description of the earth is almost incredible. The following instance affords a proof of its extent and general prevalence. Pope Clement VI. having, in 1344, created Lewis of Spain, prince of the Fortunate islands,

meaning the Canaries, then newly discovered; the English embassador at Rome and his retinue were seized with an alarm that Lewis had been created king of England, and actually hurried home to convey the important intelligence. When persons in such a high station displayed so remarkable a degree of ignorance, it might be presumed that England was deficient in seminaries for instruction, or that those which existed were utterly neglected; but, on the contrary, in Oxford alone there were thirty thousand students. Their time was principally devoted to the study of logic and school divinity, and therefore their small acquaintance with the more useful sciences is not to be wondered at. They had no respect for attainments which they were never instructed to pursue, and all knowledge which was not found in the limited circle which occupied their attention was exploded as degrading, or stigmatized as preternatural.

JOHN PHILPOT.

FEW observations tending to establish universal positions are universally true. Horace says,

Fortes creantur fortibus, et bonis;

**** nec imbellem feroces

Progenerant Aquilæ Columbam.

But history frequently disproves this assertion, and in no instance more strongly than that of Richard II. king of England. Richard was the offspring of the illustrious Black Prince, but was far from being endowed with his valour, generosity, prudence, or patriotism. The contrast between them was so great, that in Richard's misfortunes, his successor, the usurper Henry IV. reproached him with his father's example, and his own degeneracy, and took occasion from thence to revive, or perhaps invent, a story derogatory to the honour of the mother, who before her marriage was called the fair maid of Kent.

Richard II. was born at Bourdeaux, and his father dying during the life-time of Edward III. that monarch was obliged, in order to quiet the solicitude of his subjects, to declare in parliament that his grandson was his lawful successor. Richard was but eleven years old when

his grandfather died; he was nevertheless universally acknowledged, and his coronation performed with unexampled splendour.

A short time before his death Edward had recommenced hostilities against France. The feeble government of a regency was peculiarly favourable to the desires of the enemy, and the French and Scots committed great depredations both by land and sea. The French pillaged the isle of Wight, and burned Hastings, Plymouth, Portsmouth, Dartmouth, and Rye. They also made a descent near Dover, and in all quarters carried off a considerable booty. In 1378, the Scots ravaged the eastern coasts, under the command of one Mercer, and plundered and took a great number of English ships. The regents and their adherents, intent on schemes of personal ambition and aggrandizement, took no measures to protect the kingdom against these acts of rapacity, but indolently permitted the enemy to infest the seas, and annoy the coasts without impediment.

To the honour of the metropolis it is recorded, that the first check they received in this career was from John Philpot, a merchant and citizen of London. This patriotic individual fitted out a number of frigates at his own expence, and going on board his little fleet in person, at the head of a thousand men, set sail in pursuit of Mercer.

He soon had the good fortune to encounter him, and in a spirited engagement defeated his whole fleet, made him prisoner, and recaptured all the English vessels which had fallen into his hands, besides several French and Spanish ships richly laden.

Philpot

Philpot was rewarded by the judgment of his associates in this expedition with fifteen Spanish vessels and their cargoes, which amply indemnified him for the expences of the armament. The government, who had not spirit or vigilance enough to act with vigour in the defence of the nation themselves, felt a mean jealousy at seeing their vacant office usurped by an individual, and on his return, instead of being received in triumph, and crowned with oak, as he had richly deserved, he was taken up and imprisoned for having levied forces without a proper authority.

But the contrast between his conduct and that of the government was too glaring for them to permit it to be made a topic of public investigation. They caused him to be examined before the privy council. His answers were so full of spirit and wisdom, that, instead of the punishment with which he had been threatened, he was dismissed with those thanks which ought to have been paid him without hesitation. He lived to enjoy the esteem of all his fellow citizens, who saw him without envy blessed in the possession of that wealth which he had acquired, by relinquishing for a short time the character of merchant, to assume the highest which can be claimed by any man, that of protector and avenger of his fellow citizens. And in those days, when combinations were formed with impunity for the most illegal, unjust, and oppressive purposes, the governors would have merited a much higher eulogium, if, instead of affecting to be very scrupulous in this instance, they had distinguished between the patriotic motives which led him to a momentary transgression of the law,

and those dishonourable compacts which set it at defiance; by so distinguishing, they would not have afforded encouragement to illegal combinations, but would have held out the most inviting encouragement to those of an opposite tendency.

SIR JOHN ARUNDEL.

SIR JOHN ARUNDEL was the second son of Richard earl of Arundel, who, in the 13th of Edward III. was constituted admiral of the western seas; he also held under that monarch many high and important commissions; and, while a spectator, was no inglorious contributor to the splendid battle of Cressy.

The comparative inaction of the latter days of Edward III. and the minority of his successor, had a very unhappy influence on the naval exertions of the country. A king, dispirited by losses, enfeebled by affliction, and in whom enterprize and hope were nearly extinguished, was not calculated to counteract the ambition or the malice of his neighbours; nor did the first years of Richard II. under the contending views of his uncles, and the self-interested spirit of his ministers, exhibit a more promising attention to the public prosperity.

At such an æra, it was the fate of Sir John Arundel to be marshal of England; in the retinue of Woodstock, earl of Buckingham, uncle to the king; and retained to serve his sovereign at sea, with 200 men at arms, and 200 archers.

In the latter end of June, 1376, six days after the decease of Edward III. the French, after infesting our shores with fifty ships, landed at Suffex, and burned the town of Rye. Encouraged by this success, and being under no apprehensions of opposition, they landed in the isle of Wight on the 21st of August. The event but

too well answered their designs; for, though Sir John Arundel exerted every nerve to thwart them, the inferiority of his force could only enable him to drive them from Southampton, which they attempted with great loss. Spirited as was the repulse which they here experienced, it came too late to save the isle of Wight; which was pillaged, and in part burned. The enemy expected from the inhabitants one thousand pounds as a tribute for not completing the conflagration; nor was the force under Arundel adequate to the purpose of preventing the further incursions of the foe; they afterwards burned Hastings, attempted Winchelsea, and extended their incursions to Lewes.

A fleet was at length sent out, under command of the earl of Buckingham. This equipment was destined to intercept the Spanish fleet in their voyage to Sluys: but this first serious attempt to assert our greatest pride and strength, the superiority of the seas, was rendered abortive by contrary winds; Buckingham twice attempted to put to sea, and as often returned into port.

About the same period, the duke of Bretagne was in England, soliciting aids of Richard: and towards the close of 1379, these succours being ready, they were put under the command of Sir John Arundel. The whole squadron was most unfortunatly shipwrecked the 16th of December, some on the coasts of Ireland, a part on those of Wales, and a third on the shores of Cornwall. Sir John Arundel was among those who perished.

It is stated, that before he set sail, Sir John had plundered the country people, which conduct brought their bitterest

bitterest imprecations on his head; and although the feast of St. Nicholas took place on the 6th, and Sir John did not perish till the 16th of the month, his death was attributed to the vindictive exertions of the saint, who, it was said, had now heard and answered the merited curses of the good. Many similar anecdotes might be recited from the periods now under review; and, trivial as they would in all probability be considered by some, yet are they far from uninteresting. Reflecting minds will perhaps be led to contrast the superstitions of different ages, and to observe the migration of the same spirit into bodies variously formed, and modes seemingly opposite. Such characters may thus guard themselves against the imposition of words; they will not take appearances for realities; and they cannot but perceive how remote the bulk of men are, in all times, from that sound and beneficial philosophy which some ages would exclusively arrogate.

Sir John Arundel was summoned to parliament the first, second, and third years of Richard II. He married Eleanor, daughter of John Lord Maltravers, and sister to Henry Lord Maltravers, by whom he had one son named John, whose son became afterwards earl of Arundel.

RICHARD EARL OF ARUNDEL.

THE FITZALANS were an ancient family, and became heirs to the earldom of Arundel, by marriage, during the reign of Henry III. The title continued in their line, notwithstanding all the attaints and reverses of the civil wars, as late as the time of queen Elizabeth. Richard was the elder brother of Sir John Arundel, whose memoirs are already traced.

Richard earl of Arundel heartily coincided in the measures of the duke of Gloucester, and was entrusted by that regent with many distinguished offices. At the beginning of the minority, he was made admiral of the king's fleet to the westward, and this command was almost immediately extended to the force which was destined to act southward, in conjunction with the duke of Lancaster.

The first naval exploits of Arundel occurred in his passage to Normandy, where he was ordered, in 1378, to take possession of Cherbourg, a port ceded to the English by the king of Navarre; and though they had the misfortune to meet and engage a very superior fleet of Spaniards, this did not prevent him from gaining Cherbourg, and afterwards burning several merchantmen in St. Malo. He had even lain siege to the latter place, and was only prevented from taking it, by his being obliged to return home, on information that the French had availed themselves of his absence to ravage the Cornish coasts.

Many

Many causes concurred in reducing the kingdom to that deplorable state which emboldened the enemy to acts of invasion, when an expedition to the continent left us constantly exposed to the incursions of an enterprising foe. Foreign merchants, whose goods were conveyed in foreign bottoms, were encouraged to the great detriment of the natives. This mode of conveyance, it is easily to be conceived, by lessening the demand of English merchant ships, must have operated directly against our marine: and, if to this we add the unceasing calls which had been made during the late reign on this part of the subjects' property for the service of government, we can be at no loss to account for that dilemma into which the nation was so speedily brought by such powerful and disastrous causes.

In some measure to remedy this evil the parliament, in 1381, passed what has been justly denominated the First Navigation Act. This act, by ordering that all English merchants should freight none but English ships, on penalty of forfeiting all goods discovered in foreign bottoms, was intended to remedy the want of shipping, by rendering the building indispensable to trade. And there is nothing that can place in a stronger light our most unnatural debility of naval power, than the circumstance that at first the parliament were obliged to limit the effect of the navigation act. English merchants were now permitted to freight foreign bottoms where they could not be provided with English ones.

The duke of Buckingham having gone over to Calais with the English grand fleet, in an attempt upon France, some French and Spanish galleys began to commit depredations on our coasts; when, however, they
were

were attacked, greater part of them taken, four hundred of their men slain, and twenty-one English ships recovered by the English and Irish, after being driven into Kingfale by a small western fleet.

Scotland was not all this while unmindful of her general enmity to England. Robert Stuart, king of that country, added to the common principles of war, that mutually harassed the two nations, such a predilection for France as almost indicated a course of unvarying hostility. He had received from the French fifteen hundred men at arms, to assist him in his incursions against the English. The regency were seriously alarmed; they levied an army of sixty thousand men, and the young king, whose fortitude in confronting Wat Tyler and his insurgents had excited universal expectations of future ability, was destined to humble the Scots.

Richard entered Scotland by Berwick, and, destroying all in his way, reached Edinburgh, which also he reduced to ashes: proceeding to Perth and Dundee, he destroyed both, and then made his way back; very contrary to the advice of his best officers, who wished him to intercept the army of French and Scots, which was returning from their irruption into Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. The earl of Arundel, who attended this expedition, disgusted at the king's conduct, immediately afterwards requested leave to travel, and to continue in foreign parts as long as himself should think fit. Probably the crisis, which he must have discerned to be near, delayed, and finally threw aside his design of quitting the realm.

Dissensions between the French and Scots ensued upon this affair. France was dissatisfied with the mode of
Scottish

Scottish warfare, and, as the wresting of sea-ports from England had ever been a favourite object of all her wars, Charles VI. resolved to endeavour on his own footing something more conducive to the interests of his states, than had resulted from his alliance with Scotland. To this end, in 1385, he made extensive preparations, which had for their avowed objects the invasion and subjugation of England. These threats were attended to by the regency, who raised an army, according to some authors, of three hundred thousand men; and who sent out so powerful a fleet, as to induce Charles, at least, to defer the execution of his projects.

This fleet, commanded by the earl of Arundel, cruising on the western coasts of France, met with a fleet of French, Spanish, and Flemish merchantmen: the earl captured one hundred sail, laden principally with wine. Previous to this dawn of naval superiority, the inhabitants of Portsmouth fitting out a fleet, cleared the seas of some Gallic vessels, stationed to interrupt the trade with Flanders, and a little squadron was no less successful in attacking eight Frenchmen with fifteen hundred tons of wine on board. These successes could not fail to revive the ancient claims of the nation to the dominion of the seas: Robert Belknappe, an eminent judge, declared, that the sea was as much the king's as his crown.

Happy would it have been for the nation if the qualities of their king had been such as to insure the continuance of that energy, which seemed at last to animate the people. But Richard II. if not a bad, was a feeble monarch. He had his favourites, a weakness totally incompatible with any vigorous exertion of the mind.

mind. Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, a youth of noble family, and agreeable person, but of the most dissolute manners, was the first whom he so improperly distinguished. He created him marquis of Dublin, a title unknown in England, then duke of Ireland, granting him the sovereignty of that country for life: he next married him to his cousin-german; and carrying his predilection beyond all restraints, permitted him to repudiate that lady, though of a most excellent and unimpeachable character, and to marry a Bohemian with whom he became enamoured. All favours passed through his hands: he was the sole medium of access to the monarch; the centre of all hopes, and the dispenser of all dignities.

Gloucester, always anxious for his own safety, began to fear the consequences of this attachment. Of his own want of favour he could not doubt, for he had in too many instances thwarted the inclinations of his nephew, to overlook the probable effects of de Vere's ascendancy. He therefore was the first to sound the nobles on the subject of the favourite, and fortunately perceived that he was not without companions in disgust; but that several illustrious personages, among whom was the earl of Arundel, would most readily assist in hurling the young minion from his eminence. Michael de la Pole, earl of Suffolk, lord chancellor, and one of the duke of Ireland's prime friends, was the first destined to feel the resentment of these powerful nobles.

Though the king, foreseeing these measures, had drawn to Eltham, the commons soon obliged him to return, and to countenance the proceedings against Suffolk.

They

They refused to raise supplies for the defence of the state against a threatened invasion from France, unless the king returned to their deliberations; and one member even went so far as to call for the record of the parliamentary deposition of Edward II. thereby plainly intimating what Richard might expect, should he venture any longer to oppose the dictates of the confederacy.

De la Pole's dismissal did not accomplish the views of the nobles. From the chancellor to the crown it was an easy transition, and Richard soon found himself fettered by one of those bodies called commissions, which ever since Richard I. had repeatedly aimed at reducing the king to a cypher. The commission consisted of fourteen persons, all in Gloucester's interest, to whom, for a twelvemonth, the whole of the royal prerogatives were effectually consigned, though Richard had now attained the twentieth year of his age.

The duke of Ireland is accused of traducing the conduct of the earl of Arundel, and it has been said, that the favourites "growing more insolent, and the king being totally guided by them, they conspired the death of divers great persons, of which this earl was one*." This account favours strongly of party; the whole evidence of history most undeniably shews that violence originated with the regency; that Richard, though certainly culpable in adopting such a mode of defence, was driven into the protection of a favourite through the tyranny and usurpations of his uncle, Gloucester, who had no other purpose in view than that of keeping the king in perpetual minority, and retaining

* See Dugdale's Baronage, art. Earl of Arundel, and the authorities there referred to.

the government in his own hands. Richard could neither be ignorant of this intent, nor was it to be expected, considering the natural warmth of his temper, together with the extreme difficulty of his situation, that he should dissemble his knowledge of circumstances so alarming. By the advice of his few friends, the judges were privately convened to decide on the legality of the commission: they uniformly declared it a manifest infringement of the kingly office, contradictory to the spirit of the English constitution, and subversive of all regular and effective government; and they signed this their opinion in presence of the archbishops of York and Dublin, the bishops of Durham, Chichester, and Bangor, Vere duke of Ireland, De la Pole earl of Suffolk, and two counsellors of inferior quality.

This transaction found instant vent; it completely alarmed the Gloucester interest; and their terror increased with the measures ensuing on the decision. Richard dispatched the earl of Northumberland to Riegate, where Arundel then resided, with orders to arrest him: and Arundel owed his safety to that force which he had the precaution to collect. Report states, that second messengers were sent off, with orders to murder this obnoxious earl. Dissimulation becoming no longer necessary or practicable, each side dropped the mask. The peers in confederacy met at Haringay Park, near Highgate, accompanied by an army which Richard and his friends dared not encounter. Demanding the dismissal of his present advisers, they, in a few days after, repaired into the king's presence, accusing, by name, the archbishop of York, the duke of Ireland, the earl of Suffolk, sir Robert Tresilian, and sir Ni-

cholas Brembre. They threw down their gauntlets before the king, and offered to maintain the truth of their charge by duel. The parties accused had either withdrawn or concealed themselves.

The duke of Ireland, who had fled to Cheshire, levying some troops, advanced to relieve the king; but Gloucester encountered him in Oxfordshire, with much superior force, routed him, dispersed his followers, and obliged him to fly into the Low Countries, where he died in a state of exile a few years after. Five great peers, men whose combined power was able at any time to shake the throne, the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle; the earl of Derby, son of the duke of Lancaster; the earl of Arundel; the earl of Warwick; and the earl of Nottingham, marshal of England, entered before the parliament an accusation on appeal, as it was called, against the five counsellors whom they had already accused before the king.

Most of the counsellors thus inculpated, not attending their citations to appear before the house of peers, were, after a very short interval, without investigating a charge, or examining a witness, declared guilty of high treason. Sir Nicholas Brembre having gone through the farce of a trial, was condemned, and executed with sir Robert Tresilian, who, being apprehended during the examining of sir Nicholas, was hurried to the same scaffold without a hearing. Nor did the judges escape; they were, for their opinion on the commission, at first sentenced to death, which was, however, mitigated into banishment, and they were shipped to Ireland. And sir Simon Burley, who had been tutor to Richard, and who was generally beloved

and respected, soon experienced his part in the tragedy. He was condemned to die. Neither the prayers and entreaties of the queen, who was so universally esteemed as to be entitled the good queen Ann, and who remained three hours on her knees beseeching the inexorable Gloucester to save Burley; nor the tenderness with which Richard was known to regard him, a tenderness arising purely in motives of gratitude and friendship, could avert his doom. Amidst these changes, Arundel was appointed, by the parliament, governor of Brest in Brittany, and the king's lieutenant in those parts; and also, being admiral, captain-general of his fleet at sea: he was at the same time appointed to treat of peace with the duke of Brittany.

On his return from fulfilling the last appointment, 1387, he took, burnt, and sunk, about eighty French freighted ships. He afterwards plundered the isles of Rhé and Oleron, and then returned to England. A truce for three years, between the two crowns, followed this event.

The king soon resolved to emancipate himself from the power of Gloucester, and executed his project with unexpected promptitude and vigour. In less than twelve months after his entire submission to the coalesced peers, he declared himself, being twenty-three years of age, fit to assume the reins of government, and determined to act for himself; displaced those who had principally opposed him, and removed even Gloucester from the council table.

Arundel was previously deprived of his admiralship. It is supposed that some dissensions which happened among the confederates produced this extraordinary change.

change. The earl, immediately on his return from his last successful cruise, being again discontented, obtained licence to travel with twenty persons of his retinue, and to be absent as long as he should think fit. This fact supports the conjecture of a disunion in the party. Arundel's friends and colleagues were all in power when he came home from his last expedition into France; the very men who loaded him with honours before he failed: and surely some unusual difference must subsist at the time of his return, to cause that degree of discontent which induced him to abandon the realm.

This period is distinguished by the return of the duke of Lancaster, one of the king's uncles, from Spain, to which country he had repaired in 1386 to prosecute his claims to the crown of Castile. His nephew, supported by the parliament, had very liberally granted to Lancaster the means of asserting this right, in which also he was countenanced by the Portuguese. Twenty thousand men, of whom two thousand were men at arms, and eight thousand archers, with a suitable fleet, enabled him to take several places in Galicia, and, finally, to master Compostella. But the whole expedition had no other effect than that of inviting the danger of a French invasion by the absence of such great forces from England; fortunately the elements were not in alliance with the enemy. Twelve hundred and eighty-seven of his ships, charged with sixty thousand fighting men, were so dismembered by a storm which they encountered October 31, 1386, as to become utterly incapable of their destined task: numbers foundered at sea, others on the English coasts; some were captured by the the go-

vernor of Calais; and those which escaped into their own ports were in too dismal a plight again to venture on the ocean. A very uncommon machine is stated to have been on board the fleet; it was made of timber, and in joints; it was three thousand paces in length, twenty feet high, and had at the end of every twelve feet a turret ten feet higher, large enough to contain ten men. The contrivance of this instrument (its intent is not easily ascertainable) is attributed to an outlawed Englishman.

Those civil commotions which had so often clouded the prospects of the king were but partially subsided. His own conduct too effectually served the wishes of his opponents; and the restless Gloucester soon found a very popular theme, on which, once more, he endeavoured to regain that ascendancy of which events had so unexpectedly deprived him.

In 1396 the courts of France and England agreed to terminate a contest which had proved unfortunate to both sides. Brest was restored to the duke of Brittany, Cherbourg to the king of Navarre; each party was left in possession of such places as he held at the time of concluding this agreement; and to render the whole binding, Richard, who had become a widower, was betrothed to Isabella, daughter of Charles. The princess was only seven years of age, but the political reasons were sufficient to counterbalance this disparity of years.

The odium excited by this truce with the French, for a truce it was called, according to the usage of these times, though intended to last twenty-five years, was
instan-

instantaneous and general. Of this, as well as the circumstance of Richard's attachment to two new favourites, the earls of Kent and Huntingdon, Gloucester did not fail to profit. He boldly arraigned the truce with France, ascribing it to the inglorious inactivity of the present reign, and went the length of debating the lawfulness of throwing off all allegiance from a king who had so basely agreed with the ancient and inveterate enemy of his country. His effrontery procured him what he wished—the applause and support of the people. It was not to be concealed, it was said, that the duke was the only man calculated to restore the splendour of ancient success, and to humble, instead of pacifying, the French.

Richard took the alarm which these whispers, and his uncle's conduct, very naturally inspired: and, as the truce lately concluded with France was the great theme of Gloucester's inflammatory speeches, that court soon advised such measures on the part of Richard as were perfectly agreeable to his own feelings on the subject. An order being issued for the arrest of Gloucester, he was seized, put on board a ship, and conveyed to the castle at Calais under custody of the governor of that place, where, as it appeared on examination in the next reign, he was shortly after suffocated with pillows by his keepers. So high and so popular a prince could not have been tried without endangering the peace of the realm; and the king was unwilling to risk a measure so pregnant with mischief.

Whatever contentions had recently disunited the partizans of Gloucester, they were now to be combined in

adversity. The seizure of the earls Warwick and Arundel took place almost at the same time with the arrest of their leader. Arundel, it appears, foresaw the storm, and wished to shelter himself from its vengeance by retirement: he procured a dispensation from attending all public business, and was employed in the care and improvement of his own patrimony, when secured by the king's messengers. The earl of Arundel was enticed into custody, or, such was his power at this time, that he could have saved himself, and rescued his friends.

Warwick and Arundel were soon tried, and convicted of high treason. Warwick, on account of his submissive deportment, was only banished to the Isle of Man for life; but Arundel, though he pleaded the king's pardon, both general and particular, was sentenced to be beheaded, on the score of his former appearance in arms at Haringay Park. This sentence was executed in Cheapside; Thomas Mowbray, earl marshal, who had married Arundel's daughter, binding his eyes; and the earl of Kent, his own nephew, guarding him during the ceremony! These circumstances greatly affected him: he told these relatives, "It had been much more fit that they should have absented themselves; for the time will come," he continued, "when as many shall wonder at your misfortunes as they now do at mine." The king was present at the execution.

His body was interred at the Friars Augustins in London, and his lands were bestowed on Thomas Mowbray and the earl of Kent; the former of whom the king advanced to the dukedom of Norfolk, and the latter to be duke of Surrey. By Elizabeth, daughter of
William

William de Bohun, earl of Northampton, he left three sons, Thomas, Richard, and William ; and four daughters, Elizabeth, who had four husbands ; Joan, Margaret, and Alice, who had each one husband. His elder son, Thomas, was restored to blood by the revolution that ended Richard's reign and life. And in the first year of Henry IV. the judgment against Richard earl of Arundel was reversed.

SIR THOMAS PERCY,

AFTERWARDS

EARL OF WORCESTER.

THE honours accruing from a long and illustrious line of ancestors are undoubtedly due to the family of de Percy. From Mainfred de Percy, who at a very early period went from Denmark into Normandy, to Geoffrey, whose two sons, William and Serlo, in the fourth generation from Mainfred, accompanied the conqueror in his descent upon this island, the house of Northumberland may be clearly and lineally traced. Of the Percys thus attending the Norman, William, surnamed Algernon, was the best esteemed, and the most rewarded by his master. He continued also in favour with William Rufus, in whose reign Algernon founded an abbey of Benedictines at Whitby, to which abbey, dying in the Holy Land, he was finally brought for interment. William, the fifth from Algernon, signalized himself in continual and obstinate engagements with the Scots, during the reign of Stephen; and with him the male line of de Percy became extinct. His four sons dying in his life-time without issue, the family inheritance was distributed between Maud and Agnes, his daughters. Agnes married Josceline de Lovaine, on the express condition that he should assume the name

and

and arms of de Percy. Maud, her sister, died soon after Richard, the elder son of Josceline and Agnes, came to the patrimonial possessions; and thus all the estates of de Percy were once more united in the regular order of succession.

In those disputes which agitated the realm during the reign of King John, Richard took so conspicuous a part, especially in obtaining Magna Charta from the king, that he was among the number excommunicated by the pope, for what his holiness styled faction and sedition. Succeeding heirs of the de Percys obtain the peculiar notice of history*. Henry de Percy, in the reign of Edward I. bore an arduous share in the Scottish wars. Henry, his son and successor, resorted to the queen Isabel, on her landing to reform the court of Edward II. and was by her entrusted with many effective situations: he was in the great sea-fight off Sluys, in the reign of Edward III.; soon after he defeated the Scots, and made David, their king, his prisoner; and he was held in very high estimation during the whole of his life. His elder son, who also was a Henry, shared the glory of the memorable battle of Cressy; and is distinguished as the father of Sir Thomas Percy, the subject of the present biography.

* The following is an amusing instance of the strange tenures by which estates were held in the feudal times. Henry de Percy, a descendant of the family, married Isabel, sister of Peter de Brus, of Skelton. The marriage portion was the manor of Lekenfield, near Beverley in Yorkshire; and the tenure by which this estate was to be held ran thus—"He, or his heirs, were to repair to Skelton castle every Christmas-day, to lead the lady of that castle from her chamber to the chapel, at mass, and thence to her chamber again; and, after dining with her, to depart."

Sir Thomas, being a younger son, had only the manor of Foxton left him by his father as a support; his brother, Henry, inheriting the principal property. Sir Thomas was uncle to the celebrated Hotspur, whose father, Henry, just named, was created earl of Northumberland by Richard II. at his coronation.

Family connexions so extensive and so important as those which the Percys were from time to time enabled to form and establish, entitled them to great estimation. Their private alliance was eagerly sought by the higher ranks of society, and their public interest was almost as assiduously cultivated by the king. Sir Thomas Percy enjoyed no common share of the confidence of the three sovereigns under whom he flourished. Edward III. granted him a life annuity of one hundred marks, in consideration of services for which he considered himself personally indebted to his exertions; and a similar grant was at the same time made out on account of the Black Prince, who did not conceive himself less obliged than his father to the merits of Sir Thomas Percy.

He assisted at the coronation of Richard II. and in 1377, the year following this ceremony, was created Admiral of the North Seas.

His first naval service was effected in 1370. Associated with Sir Hugh Calvely, he was appointed to convoy home the duke of Brittany, who had been soliciting aids of Richard. In performing the first object of this convoy, Percy fell in with seven ships laden with wine, and one man of war, all which he sent safely into Bristol, and speedily accomplished the purpose of his voyage. Sir Thomas was also on board the fleet sent shortly after to support the duke of Brittany. The
fate

fate of this fleet is detailed in the memoirs of the earl of Arundel: but there are circumstances attending that event which belong exclusively to the present subject. Separated from the other members of the fleet, and nearly shipwrecked, he was assailed by a Spanish cruiser: this vessel, after an obstinate contest of three hours, was boarded by the English, and brought safe to land. Percy sold his prize for one hundred pounds, and putting again to sea, reached Calais; of which place he and Sir Hugh Calvely were governors.

In 1380, being appointed to command the fleet destined against France, he sailed to Calais, 19th July, with a large army under the duke of Buckingham. This army was to have taken its route through France into Bretagne, to co-operate with the duke of Brittany. They experienced but a faint degree of opposition, committed many depredations in their course, and had not the duke of Brittany thought fit to conclude a truce with the court of France while the English were hastening to his support, this expedition might have been crowned with a success somewhat adequate to the expectations it had raised at home.

Brest having been delivered into the hands of Richard, as a security for remunerating his endeavours in the cause of the duke of Brittany, Sir Thomas was in 1381 made governor of that castle and port. In 1383 he was again constituted admiral, from the Thames northwards, and continued, with a very liberal appointment, in his government of Brest. And when, in the same year, preparations were completed for the service of Lancaster in his war with Spain, Sir Thomas was made admiral of the fleet appointed to conduct the duke and his forces.

On

On his return from this expedition he was constituted justice of South Wales, and in this situation obtained of the king grants of land to a considerable amount. He continually received from the king fresh proofs of munificence and regard. In 1391 he was Steward of the Household; and both in this year and in 1393 he was sent ambassador to France, on occasions of the highest moment: and, in further reward of his services, on the feast of St. Michael 1396, he was created earl of Worcester.

The earl was retained to serve the king in Ireland, with 40 men at arms and 100 archers; made admiral of the fleet of that realm; and was at the same time released from all debts, accompts, and arrearages of accompts, rents and arrearages of rents, with which he stood charged. Constituted Admiral, with powers never granted to preceding commanders, Vice-Chamberlain, Steward of the Royal Household, holding many other conspicuous trusts, and by the king consulted on every emergency, the earl of Worcester at length stood on a par with his brother of Northumberland.

The periods of English history now brought to view, are melancholy in the extreme. Accustomed to the inestimable blessings of fixed laws and a regular monarchy, we are precluded from experiencing the different forms which civil society undergoes in its process towards refinement and stability; and the miseries that characterized the early stages of our government. It was the destiny of Richard II. to live in one of these periods, and to feel its accumulated evils: to terminate in darkness and famine, at the age of thirty-four, an existence commenced under the bondage of his uncle,
and

and which had been uniformly marked by continued opposition.

The discontents excited in England by the truce with France, speedily extended to Ireland. Richard had often made expeditions into this country, where the hope of profiting by the king's unpopularity now tempted the malcontents of Dublin to renew their insurrections with more than ordinary boldness. Roger Mortimer, earl of March, presumptive heir to the crown, for Richard had no children, became, unfortunately, the first victim of the insurrection. The king had given March the supreme station in Ireland, dreading the cabals that might arise from so near a relative in England, so that the medium whereby he sought security proved the cause of his destruction. Had March lived in England it would have been his highest interest to protect his august kinsman from the designs of his enemies, and to have frustrated, instead of assisting, their intrigues. To avenge his death, Richard collected a good body of troops, and two hundred ships, and landed at Waterford in the spring of 1399, purposing to inflict on the rebels a punishment suited to their crimes. Worcester, as admiral of the fleet for Ireland, attended in the present expedition.

Soon after his landing the king received intelligence that the young duke of Lancaster was arrived in England, accompanied by the earl of Arundel, and a retinue of sixty persons, to assert his claims to the estates of his father the great John of Gaunt, which had been seized by the king.

Richard hastened from Ireland, and landed at Milford-Haven, with 60,000 men, but learning that the earls of Northumberland

Northumberland and Westmoreland, two of his most potent nobles, had joined Lancaster, that the people were inclined to rebel, and finding his own army continually deserting, till from sixty it had diminished to six thousand men, he resigned all thoughts of maintaining the crown, and fled to the Isle of Anglesea. From thence he determined to proceed to France or Ireland, and await better fortune. But he was lured from his retreat by Northumberland, who, instructed by Lancaster, made such professions as induced Richard to yield himself to his enemies. The delusion was instantly dispelled; Richard was lodged in the tower of London, whence he was afterwards removed to Pomfret castle.

Amidst this pressure of misfortune a trait of great magnanimity is recorded of Richard. Perceiving the ill turn of his own affairs, he dismissed the earl of Worcester from following him, conjuring him to "reserve himself for better times."

At his first landing, Lancaster disclaimed any design beyond the mere reparation of his own personal wrongs. But if his views were at first loyal and innocent, success soon determined him to retain every possible advantage resulting from his popularity. A parliament devoted to his purposes found no difficulty in framing a set of accusations against their late master. When these articles were read to the house, there appeared but one illustrious dissentient; the bishop of Carlisle was hardy enough to assert the cause of a degraded monarch. The house, on Carlisle's expulsion, who was arrested by order of Lancaster, and carried to the abbey of St. Albans, unanimously voted the deposition of Richard, for measures, most of them, which they had either counselled

or ratified. The throne being thus vacated, Lancaster assumed the vacant diadem the 28th of September 1399, and the ceremony of his coronation was performed the 13th of October.

A few days subsequent to the coronation of Henry IV. the duke of Northumberland made a motion in parliament relative to their treatment of the deposed sovereign, and it was immediately ordered that he should be imprisoned under a secure guard, in some secret place, and deprived of all intercourse with any of his friends or partizans. It was easy to foresee the catastrophe to which such a sentence inevitably led; and therefore, when Richard was removed to Pomfret castle, and died there on the 14th of February, in the next year, the most ignorant might judge by what means his days were terminated at the early age of thirty-four.

The premature death and cruel treatment of Richard gave birth to feelings, which, though they did not benefit him while living, had an effect favourable to his character. When Northumberland afterwards threw off his allegiance to Henry, at the instigations of the earl of Worcester, he gave out that Richard was yet alive, and with them, and that in his name they took up arms; which fictitious pretences did really stagger many, for a great part of the common people stood cordially affected to Richard, especially those who knew him, and had obtained gifts and fees at his hands.

As it would have been neither safe nor honourable for Henry to have entirely overlooked those who had elevated him to the regal eminence, the earl of Worcester was in 1401 constituted the king's lieutenant for north and south Wales. Shortly after, some symptoms
of

of hostility being evinced by France with a design on the English in Guienne, the earl was sent over with such force as induced the French to desist from their projects; and Worcester was created governor of the province.

Notwithstanding the many reciprocal obligations subsisting between Henry and the Percys, for he had appointed Northumberland his constable for life, and conferred various favours on other branches of the family, no cordiality did in fact subsist. The subject thought his services insufficiently recompensed, and the sovereign was equally anxious that no great addition should be made to that power which had already deposed one monarch and raised another to the supreme dignity. In an engagement with the Scots, in 1402, wherein that people were utterly routed, their great earl Douglas, Mordac, earl of Fife, nephew to the Scottish king, and many of their first nobles, were made prisoners by Northumberland, and the famous Hotspur, his son; these Henry desired him to retain, as the means of an advantageous treaty with Scotland: but Northumberland insisted upon his right to their ransom, according to the usages of war. In his resentment he set Douglas at liberty, and even entered into alliance with him against the king, and they contrived to engage in the same interests Glendower the Welsh chieftain. But Northumberland being taken ill at the head of his army, was obliged to delegate the command to Hotspur.

The earl of Worcester, who was the prime instigator of these measures, quitting the king's household, soon
joined

joined his celebrated nephew; and the whole force proceeded towards Shrewsbury. This movement was designed to effect a junction with Glendower; in which, however, they failed through the celerity of Henry's operations, who had the fortune to come up with them near Shrewsbury, before their union with Glendower had taken place. The Percys had about twelve thousand men, chiefly raised in Scotland, under the badge of Richard, whom, as before related, they now reported to be alive: the army of the king was nearly equal in numbers. Hearing of the near approach of the royal troops, Hotspur prepared for vigorous action.

“A manifesto was sent to the king, charging him with the perjury by which he had gained the throne; with his having dethroned, and then murdered, king Richard; and with his continued usurpation of the title belonging to the house of Mortimer; with sundry grievances exercised towards the people, over whom he thus usurpingly reigned; and finally, with packing a parliament, the circumstance which himself had enumerated as a peculiar blot in the character of Richard II.”

This manifesto was not calculated to allay the animosities of the combatants; nevertheless, Henry, the evening previous to the battle, which took place on July 21, 1403, deputed the abbot of Shrewsbury, and the clerk of the privy seal, with overtures of a more pacific nature. Hotspur, moved by this procedure, sent the earl of Worcester to represent their desires to the king, and treat for a redress of grievances. Henry very cordially assented to the justice of many of the earl's requests; he even acceded to some proposals hardly to be expected from a monarch so tenacious of his throne and

dignity; but all to no effect. Worcester was hostile to every plan of reconciliation, and, on his return to camp, so misrepresented what had passed between himself and the king, and thereby so effectually exasperated the impetuous and confident spirit of Hotspur, that the sword only was from that hour mentioned as the arbiter of their fatal quarrel. The ensuing narrative of the battle is given in the words of an ancient author.

“ This battle, which began on the eve of St. Mary Magdalen, 1403, was fought with extraordinary courage on both sides; insomuch as, great slaughter ensuing, many of the royalists forsook the field, supposing the king had been slain.

“ In which heat Hotspur himself, and the earl Douglas, whose valour was beyond expression, bent all their aim at the person of the king, with their swords and lances, furiously making towards him; which being discerned by the earl of Dunbar, he withdrew him (the king) from his station, whereby his life was then saved; for they slew his standard-bearer, and those who were with it, and missing of him (the king), most desperately charged into the midst of their enemies; whereupon Hotspur suddenly fell, though by what hand is not known: whose death immediately occasioned an utter route of his whole party, in which the earl Douglas was taken, so likewise the earl of Worcester, the unhappy instrument of all this mischief.”

“ Henry the king,” says another writer, “ exposed his person in the thickest of the fight: his gallant son, whose military achievements were afterwards so renowned, and who here performed his noviciate in arms, signalized himself on his father’s footsteps, and even a
wound

wound which he received in the face with an arrow could not oblige him to quit the field. There are said to have fallen that day, on both sides, near two thousand three hundred gentlemen: but the persons of greatest distinction were on the king's. About six thousand private men perished, of whom two thirds were of Percy's army."

The earl of Worcester was not long permitted to survive the carnage of this dreadful day. He was beheaded at Shrewsbury; and his estates in the course of a few years were granted to the earl of Northumberland. Neither did the present earl of Northumberland, whose history has been so intimately interwoven with the life of the earl of Worcester, his brother, ever recover these reverses in the fortunes of his house. Though he was absolved from all participation of his son's rebellion, on joining Henry, after the affair at Shrewsbury, he never could obliterate from his heart the remembrance of Hotspur, nor conceal that pain which the consequent execution of his brother had indelibly inflicted on his mind. He joined afterwards in the insurrection of the earls of Nottingham and Westmoreland; but escaping their doom by a flight into Scotland, in 1407, he again sallied forth from his retirement, and entered the north in arms. Being attacked at Bramham by Sir Thomas Rokesby, sheriff of Yorkshire, the earl with lord Bardolph was slain, and his few followers utterly broken.

EDMUND DE HOLLAND, EARL OF KENT.

FEW families have risen more instantaneously from obscure and contracted circumstances into opulence and fame, than that of Edmund earl of Kent. To antiquity they had an undoubted claim: they were ancient in the reign of John, and then well known in Lancashire; but they were not possessed of riches till the days of Edward I. From that period they rapidly ascended in the regions of fortune and honour. In the time of Edward III. Thomas de Holland signalized himself in every war; he was admitted to the order of the garter at its institution, in consideration of his extraordinary valour. He married Joan*, the daughter of Edmund, and sister of John earl of Kent, and in her right claimed, and obtained, the earldom, which descended to his heirs.

Edmund earl of Kent was grandson of Thomas de Holland, and succeeded to the title and estate while yet a minor; his elder brother, named Thomas, having been beheaded by the people of Cirencester while endeavouring to excite them to rebellion against Henry IV.

Many insults were experienced in the commence-

* Before her union with Thomas de Holland, Joan had been divorced from the earl of Salisbury; and the year following the earl of Kent's decease, for she outlived him several years, she became the wife of Edward the black prince, who left her princess dowager of Wales.

ment of the reign of Henry IV. at the hands of our old enemies, the French, before they felt that return which their conduct had long provoked. Even while the court was yet occupied with rejoicings on the king's second marriage with Joanna of Navarre, widow of the duke of Brittany, they effected a descent on the Isle of Wight, under the earl of St. Pol. Here, though their numbers enabled them to achieve some temporary depredations, they met with such resistance from the inhabitants, as obliged them to seek protection in their ships.

This did not discourage them from another attempt. Aware of the internal discords of England, and rightly concluding that the monarch could not pay due attention to their irruptions while employed in quelling the insurrection of the Percys, a few months subsequent to their attack on the Isle of Wight, they landed at Plymouth, and burned that town. Henry became justly alarmed; and as he could not equip a force adequate to a regular opposition of the enemy, and wished not to offend the regency of Bretagne, from whom the last attack had proceeded, he gave secret orders to the inhabitants of Plymouth to send out a squadron, as of themselves, under the command of William de Wilford, then admiral of the narrow seas. De Wilford, sailing to the coasts of Brittany, took forty sail laden with iron, oil, soap, and wine, and burnt to the same amount in their harbours; landing at Penmarch, he destroyed that place, and afterwards ravaged the whole coast of Brittany.

This successful expedition had not the desired effect. De Castel, admiral of the Flemish and French fleets, in the midst of de Wilford's success, visited the Isle of

Wight; but finding that a landing was impracticable, he steered for Devonshire. More fortunate in this attempt, he attacked Dartmouth, and seemed awhile attended with prosperity; but the militia having assembled from all parts in great strength, de Castel was taken, four hundred of his men were slain, and two hundred made prisoners. His squadron, to revenge this disgrace, still continued to infest the coasts; and in this situation having captured some English vessels, they barbarously hung every seaman found on board.

Edmund earl of Kent was immediately dispatched to chastise the Flemings, even while the result of their Dartmouth expedition remained as yet undecided. Entering the port of Sluys, he took, after a gallant resistance, three Genoese merchantmen of an unusual size, who were lying at anchor in the harbour. Continuing his course along the Norman coasts, he looked into all their ports, and effecting continual landings, burned no less than six and thirty towns, and at length returned, with an immense booty, to Rye.

This exploit, which he performed in 1405, had a very favourable influence on the subsequent fortunes of Kent. In 1406, he married Lucy, daughter of the duke of Billaine: this wedding was solemnized in the priory of St. Mary Ovey, Southwark, and kept, with great splendour, at the house of the bishop of Winchester. The same year he was joined in several important commissions; and in 1407 he was made lord admiral.

A plague breaking out in London in the year 1407, the king retired to Leeds castle, in the county of Kent. His affairs calling him into Essex, he embarked at Queenborough with only five ships. He had not proceeded

proceeded far on his passage, when he was attacked by a squadron of French privateers, who, after a warm encounter, took every vessel excepting that on board of which was the king. This escape naturally directed him to the importance of naval superiority. He ordered the immediate equipment of a powerful fleet, which, when prepared, was put under the command of the earl of Kent, his admiral.

Kent sailed in the summer of 1408. His instructions were, to clear the seas; to make a descent on Brittany; and to harass the enemy in every possible manner. The first of these objects he effectually accomplished; then, standing over to Brittany, landed in the little island of Brifach. Proceeding to the town of the same name, he took it by storm; and seizing the pirates who had fled thither for shelter, put them all to the sword. An event so propitious to his country, proved, however, fatal to the earl. In the course of these actions he received a wound on his head, from the arrow of a cross-bow; and of this he died, September 20, 1407. His remains were conveyed home, and deposited among those of his ancestors.

SIR JOHN PENDERGAST.

THIS officer, of whose family no certain accounts are preserved, distinguished himself, very early in the reign of Henry IV. by his successes against the pirates. He was never highly in favour with his superiors. When he had freed the narrow seas from plunderers it was said, that he had appropriated so much of the booty to himself, as rendered him little better than those from whom he had taken it. The exertions against Pendergast were so violent, though the populace were clamorous in his behalf, that he was obliged to take sanctuary in Westminster; from which, however, he was soon relieved, and restored to that profession of which he was truly an ornament.

Sir John commanded in the channel during the year 1412. On this station he made several prizes laden with provisions—"which," says an old writer, "got him little reputation with the nobles, but much love from the people, who by this means enjoyed plenty of French commodities at a very cheap rate."

Besides WILLIAM DE WILFORD, of whom mention is made in the life of Edmund earl of Kent, there are several naval characters, ornaments of the reign of Henry, of whom no biographical accounts are to be traced at this distance of time, but ought not to be passed without notice and honour. When the French, in assisting Glendower, made a powerful attempt on Wales in 1405,

Lord

Lord BERKLEY, and HENRY DE PAY, attacked them in Milford-Haven, took 14, and burnt 15 of their ships. And war being declared against the Scots in 1411, SIR ROBERT UMFREVILLE, Vice-admiral of England, sailed to the Firth of Forth, ravaged both shores for fourteen days together, and burned the largest ship of Scotland, called the Great Galiot. On his return he took so many ships laden with corn, and thereby so reduced the price of that article, that he obtained the surname of Mend-Market.

WILLIAM
LORD CLINTON AND SAY,
EARL OF HUNTINGDON.

WILLIAM LORD CLINTON AND SAY, for so he is called in the 6th of Henry IV. but better known by the appellation of earl of Huntingdon, was related to the great earl of that name, whose memoirs are given in a preceding page.

This earl having already distinguished himself in the frequent contests sometimes with Scotland, and at other times with France, which occupied the reign of Henry IV. was now destined to act a more important and conspicuous part in the wars of his country.

Henry V. was but recently seated on the throne, when France became an object of his attention. He had many motives for making attempts on that country. His predecessor had tampered with the opposite French factions, and availed himself of their mutual hatreds; this was marking out to Henry the most advantageous path he could possibly tread. The late king conjured his son not to permit the English too long an indulgence in the ease and affluence of peace, such indulgence being apt to breed intestine commotions, and to engender dispositions inimical to the subordination which is requisite to
good

good government ; but to employ them in foreign wars ; and especially to avail himself of those advantages which the state of France exhibited to her enemies.

The temper of the new monarch disposed him to make no delay in the execution of his father's injunctions. In 1415, about eighteen months after his accession, he embarked with his army at Southampton, August the 19th, and, landing at Havre de Grace, laid siege to Harfleur, which surrendered after a resistance of five weeks. His successes were soon checked by the ravages of the flux ; and instead of that hope which prosperity at first inspired, he now felt concerned only to save the remains of his enfeebled army.

With this view he resolved to gain Calais by the route of Picardy. No other way offered for his escape, as he had, confident of fortune, dismissed his fleet the instant he had secured the landing of his troops. But this determination presented as many obstacles as the situation in which he was involved. A French army of fourteen thousand men at arms, and forty thousand foot, commanded by the constable d'Albert, opposed his retreat. This army, besides its superiority in health, food, and spirits, was by its numbers sufficient to accomplish the destruction of Henry's forces.

To extricate himself and his soldiers from their deplorable condition, and to avoid, what might well be apprehended by him, to be a hopeless effusion of human blood, Henry proffered his conquest of Harfleur on condition that he might proceed unmolested to Calais. This the constable absolutely negatived, and Henry, compelled to fight under every disadvantage, gained

the memorable battle of Agincourt; a victory that has ever been most deservedly ranked, viewed both as to the circumstances of the engagement and the consequences of its decision, with the triumphs of Cressy and Poitiers. The earl of Huntingdon attended the king, and signalized himself in the exploits of that glorious day.

Henry, in 1417, purposing a more effective irruption into France, thought it prudent to clear the seas previous to his own sailing; and Huntingdon, with a powerful fleet, was directed to perform the king's command. Near the mouth of the Seine, he had the good fortune to meet with the combined fleets of France and Genoa, which he instantly engaged. The contest was extremely obstinate, the Genoese being the first and most powerfully constructed vessels of those times: at length, victory, which had for some time seemed doubtful, once more crowned the English; they took four of the Genoese ships, made prisoner the Bastard of Bourbon, the French admiral, and found on board a vessel captured from the Genoese a quarter's pay for the combined navy.

During the minority of Henry VI. the earl of Huntingdon accompanied the duke of Bedford to France with succours, in 1427. After this, the earl attended young Henry to his coronation in Paris. The retinue entered that city in December 1430, where Henry was crowned by the cardinal of Winchester, with all due solemnities. Henry had been proclaimed on the death of Charles VI. of France, who was almost all his life a lunatic, Henry VI. of England, and
Henry

Henry II. of France, the French lords then at Paris swearing the usual allegiance.

This is the last public capacity in which the earl of Huntingdon acted. He died July the 30th, 1431, leaving by Ann his wife, daughter of lord Botreaux, John, his son and heir.

JOHN DE LANCASTER,
DUKE OF BEDFORD.

JOHN, DUKE OF BEDFORD, whether contemplated as a statesman, as a military, or as a naval commander, forms one of the most illustrious characters that ever adorned the English annals. He was the third son of Henry IV. while duke of Lancaster, by Mary his first wife, daughter of Humphrey de Bohun, earl of Northampton.

On the 13th of October, 1399, Bedford received the honours of knighthood at the hands of his father.

In 1402 he was appointed by his father constable of England, and governor of Berwick upon Tweed: in 1414, he was created by Henry V. his brother, earl of Kendal, and duke of Bedford, and divers grants were at the same time made out for the support of his new dignities: in 1415, Henry being engaged in his French war, constituted Bedford lieutenant of England, a high trust, and one which he afterwards frequently held during the king's absence from home: and in 1416 he was made general of his majesty's forces both by sea and land.

But, important as were the services of Bedford in the state, Henry's affairs could no longer dispense with his brother's assistance in scenes more active and hazardous. The first attempt made by the French to recover the
disgrace

disgrace of Agincourt was the siege of Harfleur; where Henry, being obliged to quit France, had left the earl of Dorset in command. Assurances derived from the Genoese enabled the French to muster a formidable fleet, with which, before they invested Harfleur, they ventured over to the English coasts, and attempted Southampton. Being repulsed by the duke of Bedford, the fleet immediately proceeded to the blockade of Harfleur. Dorset, invested on the land side by the constable in great force, and blocked up at sea by Narbonne with the whole of the French navy, found himself in a very perilous condition; so much, in fact, was he now straitened, that nothing short of a powerful and instantaneous relief could in any wise prove efficacious to his safety.

Henry was not ignorant of the critical state of his general, nor inactive in providing the means to extricate him. Bedford was unremittingly employed in hastening the relief of Dorset. Four hundred sail, and 20,000 men, under the duke's command, were dispatched to effect this important object. They entered the Seine in a moment of the most painful anxiety to their besieged countrymen, and found Narbonne and his Genoese, far superior in number and strength, lying before the haven of Harfleur, and pressing the siege with an alarming vigour. A view of the enemy's position convinced the duke that the most determined exertions would be requisite to the relief of the place. The French considered themselves perfectly secure, but the English began the attack with bravery, sustained it with fortitude, and finished it with the most memorable success. Five hundred of the enemy's vessels were either taken or sunk, together with five of those Genoese ships,

ships, called carracks, which, from their uncommon dimensions and power, it was thought by the enemy the English would have not ventured to engage. Twenty thousand of their men were slain. On this great naval action, which was fought in 1416, the whole English fleet entered the port in triumph; and the constable, hearing of the victory, felt it prudent to raise the siege of Harfleur, and immediately decamped.

The king, in the ensuing year, 1417, went to France. His army consisted in part of troops in his own immediate pay, and in part of forces raised by his barons: of the first there were sixteen thousand four hundred men, of the latter nine thousand one hundred and twenty-seven; and of this army about a fourth part were horse. To transport them from Dover, a navy was prepared of one thousand five hundred ships, of which two were very remarkable. They seem to have been both admirals, and were equally adorned with purple sails, embroidered with the arms of England and France; one was styled the king's chamber, the other his hall; from whence it plainly appears that he affected to keep his court upon the sea, and to make no difference between his palace and his ships royal.

While the king was in France, 1421, his queen, Catharine, daughter of Charles VI. was delivered of a son * at Windsor, afterwards Henry VI. to whom the

* When news was brought the king of his son's birth, he was displeas'd at the place of his nativity, having strictly forbid the queen to lie-in there. Turning to the lord Fitz-Hugh, his great chamberlain and confidant, he prophetically exclaimed :

“ I, Henry, born at Monmouth, shall
 Small time reign and much get ;
 But Henry of Windsor shall long reign and lose all:
 But, as God will, so be it.

duke being in France, was made governor of Normandy.

In May 1422 Catherine joined her husband in France, just in time to witness his end: this great prince died at Vincennes the 31st of August. His malady was a fistula, a disorder to the treatment of which the medical skill of that age was utterly incompetent. He expired in the thirty-fourth year of his age, after a distinguished reign of nine years, five months, and eleven days.

Finding that his end approached, he sent for the dukes of Bedford and Exeter (before earl of Dorset), the earl of Warwick, and a few of the nobility, to whom, with great calmness, he delivered such directions as he judged requisite for the conduct of the state pending the prince's minority. He recollected, with satisfaction, the brilliancy of that reign which was about to terminate, though he expressed a regret that the measures of his opponents should have caused so great an expense of human lives. Turning to Bedford and Exeter, he conjured them to the strictest friendship; to seek the welfare of his son, by improving the good-will of his ally the duke of Burgundy; to console his widow*; to educate the prince with care, and serve him with fidelity. He concluded these instructions, declaring it as his will that the regency of France should be vested in his elder brother, the duke of Bedford; that of England to his

* Catherine of France, Henry's widow, married, soon after his death, a Welsh gentleman, Sir Owen Tudor, said to be descended from the ancient princes of that country. She bore him two sons, Edmund and Jasper, of whom the eldest was created earl of Richmond, the second earl of Pembroke. The family of Tudor, raised to distinction by this alliance, afterwards ascended the throne of England.

younger, the duke of Gloucester; and the care of his son's person he committed to the earl of Warwick. He then went through the usual solemnities of a dying man. Such was the life and death of Henry V. a prince whose early courses were thought to portend a disgraceful and disastrous reign, but who in the end disappointed the forebodings of the timid and malignant, and exceeded the most sanguine hopes of his affectionate adherents. His character comprized as much heroism, and, after his [reformation, exhibited as little frailty as is incident to man.

The parliamant, shortly after the decease of their late monarch, taking his last desires into their cognizance, agreed to alter, in some measure, the nature of the appointments which he had made. Instead of regent, they constituted Bedford protector or guardian of England, investing the duke of Gloucester with the charge during his elder brother's absence. They also, as a further restriction on the powers of these peers, appointed a council, without whose advice and approbation no measure of real importance could be undertaken. Extending their thoughts to the prince, they nominated Beaufort bishop of Winchester, instead of Warwick, to the superintendance of his education, and to the preservation of his person.

The death of Charles VI. which took place in a few weeks after that of Henry V. made a considerable alteration in the aspect of French affairs. Charles VII. who succeeded his father, although pent up within a small portion of his own soil, was yet the true heir of the French monarchy. He had none of those mental imperfections which degraded his predecessor; and his disposition,

disposition, if it did not evince the spirit of a martial determination calculated instantly to retrieve his affairs and to grasp the falling diadem, possessed all that sweetness and affability which render distress universally interesting, and attach those by affection whom no other motive could excite to a participation of danger and grief.

The duke of Burgundy, relenting at the miseries to which his passions had subjected his country, began also to abate in his friendship to England. Paris soon felt the change: and as its inhabitants were devoted to Burgundy, they prepared to serve the cause which he espoused. Advices were sent to Bedford, of the enemy being secretly lodged in the country round the capital; that they continually annoyed the Parisians; were concerting some formidable plot, and ought to be sought out and dispersed. All which was said, in trust that the duke of Bedford, leaving the metropolis, to pursue the enemy, might afford them an opportunity of getting young Charles into the city. But the duke, who penetrated the design, seized the reporters of this tale; they were convicted of a plot to exterminate the English, and executed. At the same time, to secure the wavering Burgundy, with whom this scheme had obviously originated, he married, in 1423, Ann princess of Burgundy.

Meanwhile Charles had procured a body of troops, chiefly Scots, who under the earl of Buchan, constable of France, ventured to engage the duke of Bedford at Verneuil, August 27, 1424. Nothing but extreme rashness could instigate the constable to this action: it accordingly terminated in his defeat, and five thousand

of his troops were killed. This victory might have proved of decisive advantage to England, had not the circumstances of Gloucester's quarrel with the duke of Burgundy obliged Bedford, in lieu of following up his success at Verneuil, to take a journey to England. While here, he was made great admiral; and having, as well as he could, mitigated all disputes, he returned to France.

He arrived, in the beginning of 1427, with considerable reinforcements. He found the situation of affairs materially deteriorated during his absence: the duke of Brittany and the count de Richmond had gone over to Charles, and Burgundy's attachment was weak and precarious. His prosperity became more insecure by the valour of Dunois, Charles's general, who compelled the earl of Warwick to raise the siege of Montargis; the first action that turned the side of success against the English.

Orleans, Charles's capital, was a primary object of consideration; if this city were reduced, it was not likely that Charles should escape, or that he could long evade the reach of a victorious pursuer. This enterprize being resolved on, the command of it was entrusted to the earl of Salisbury; and although the force under his direction was inadequate to the object against which he was directed, his approaches were attended with success. In these circumstances the duke of Orleans, yet a prisoner in England, proposed, through the duke of Burgundy, that all his demesnes should be sequestered, as the basis of a neutrality. The regent, however, informed Burgundy " he was not of a humour to beat the bushes

bushes while others ran away with the game;" a reply that Burgundy never forgave.

The drooping fortunes of the French king were re-established by one of those extraordinary interventions which it is hardly improper to term miraculous. The history of Joan of Arc, the maid of Orleans—her youth, her enthusiasm, her courage, her achievements, and her fate, circumstances that have been frequently commemorated, and are generally known, need not be here repeated. Whether incited to act her memorable part by the advice and under the sanction of conspicuous persons in the French court; or whether she really deceived herself into the belief of her being inspired to free her country from the dominion of strangers, and raise her depressed sovereign to the throne of his ancestors; it is certain that her heroic exploits essentially contributed to those events. Her progress was marked by enterprize and victory, and her countrymen, inspired by the energy she displayed, performed every service with valour and alacrity, and obtained a proportionate success.

The duke of Bedford encountered these unparalleled events with a promptitude and steadiness which placed his talents in the most exalted point of view. It is sincerely to be lamented that he should have sullied so fair a reputation by his solicitude in procuring the condemnation of the unfortunate Joan of Arc, who was taken prisoner by the English in 1429, and soon after, June 14, burnt as a witch, in the market place at Rouen.

But the effects of her example, and the high martial spirit which she had substituted for despair in the bosoms of her countrymen, did not expire with her. All the
energy,

energy, sagacity, and experience, of Bedford became inadequate to the task of preserving the once formidable power of the English in France.

A series of disasters and defeat was followed by the entire defection of the duke of Burgundy. His daughter, the duchess of Bedford, died early in 1432, and Bedford united himself, before the expiration of the year, to Jaquetta, daughter of the earl of St. Pol. The duke of Burgundy immediately abandoned the English alliance, with sentiments of irreconcilable antipathy.

Bedford was not long permitted to enjoy the pleasures or advantages he might have proposed to himself in his union with Jaquetta; nor to experience the adversities that were accumulating on his country. He died at his castle of Rouen in Normandy, without legitimate offspring, in 1435; and was buried, agreeably to his will, at the church of Notre Dame in that city.

His widow, Jaquetta, in the year ensuing his death married Sir Richard Woodville, to the great displeasure of her uncle the bishop, and of her brother St. Pol. From this alliance sprang Elizabeth de Woodville, afterwards wife of Edward IV.

RICHARD NEVILL,

EARL OF WARWICK.

FROM Gilbert de Nevill, who left Normandy with the conqueror, and who, although not mentioned as such in our histories, was admiral to that prince, descended Richard earl of Warwick. A long and fortunate succession had given to the branches of de Nevill every appearance of fertility and strength; already earls of Westmoreland and Salisbury, and intermixed with the first families of the country, Richard, to the other titles of his house, added that of Warwick, by his marriage with Anne daughter and heir of Beauchamp earl of Warwick. Had the members of this extensive connexion allied themselves as closely in politics, as they were connected by consanguinity, their preponderancy over the regal influence would at any time have been certain and uncontrollable.

We are not yet arrived at that period when the naval profession becomes the distinct and sole employment of the individual. In the ages now under review, we have continually to pursue the same character from the operations of the navy to those of the field, and from thence to the intrigues of a cabinet and the detail of an embassy: sometimes the bishop turns general, and the general is involved in the mazes of ecclesiastical history. Thus it occurs that the annals of the individual, however

carefully restricted to the principal subject of contemplation, compose, in some sort, those of the country itself.

Warwick had, in the conduct of his father the earl of Salisbury, an example highly calculated to stimulate his natural ambition; and his immense possessions enabled him fully to execute what his sentiments so ardently prompted. Convinced that, in turbulent times, there was no better ladder to power than the unbounded confidence of the populace, he began his career by displaying a magnificent hospitality: in London, his house was the never-failing receptacle of all who adhered to his fame; "Six oxen were usually eat at a breakfast, and every tavern was full of his meat." His munificence gained the hearts of the common people, while his valour was equally successful in procuring the affections of the seamen. The incapacity of Henry VI. became every day more evident. He had lost all his father's acquisitions in France; and, though this reverse must be chiefly assigned to the death of Bedford and the intrigues of the cardinal of Winchester during the minority, yet, when it was seen that Henry committed himself entirely to the management of his queen and her favourites, and sacrificed the good duke of Gloucester, his only remaining friend and his uncle, to this new and imperious ascendancy, his subjects did not hesitate to attribute every disaster they felt to the dreadful imbecility of their monarch.

The navy, which had been so successfully maintained during the victorious reign of his father, was not, however, neglected by Henry VI. He made Warwick his admiral: and, if the unprecedented exertions of Charles VII.

in the aggrandizement of his fleet, emboldened the French to assail the British shores, whatever success attended their onset was generally counterbalanced by their final repulse, and the chagrin with which they returned.

Richard duke of York, who had long meditated his assertion of that right to the crown of England, of which his progenitors, from Richard II. were deprived by the usurpation of Henry IV. in the year 1453, deeming it unnecessary further to disguise his intentions, collected an army of 10,000 men, and marched towards London. Warwick, and Salisbury his father, who were both allied to the duke of York, though they were decidedly engaged to support the claims of that house, yet considering it imprudent to forfeit the confidence of Henry before the success of the plot became apparent, remained in the royal camp, prudently resolving to retain a situation where their influence would be serviceable in securing York's pardon with the king, should his views miscarry. The event proved the wisdom of these earls: York found London shut against him, and was compelled to retire into Kent. The king pursued and overtook him with a superior army. Indiscretion would now have made his ruin inevitable, but as he had merely demanded a reformation of the abuses of government, and the dismissal of Somerset, the queen's favourite, the good offices of his two friends, Warwick and Salisbury, prevailed over the resentment of the court, who were contented to see their opponents views frustrated.

The king soon after fell into a state which rendered him totally incapable of sustaining the duties of his office; and the queen found herself no longer able to
resist

resist the clamour in favour of the duke of York: Somerset was sent to the tower; and York declared by parliament lieutenant of the realm. This state of things could not last. As Henry slowly recovered, he released Somerset, and annulled the power of the lieutenant. York immediately raised another army, demanding, as before, the removal of the court favourites.

These troops were encountered at St. Albans, on the 22d of May 1455, by the king, where, the battle proving favourable to the Yorkists, Henry fell into their hands, and with him the government again devolved to York. In this engagement, the first of those dreadful encounters which commenced the civil wars of the roses, were slain about 5000 of the Lancastrians; among whom were the duke of Somerset, the earl of Northumberland, the earl of Stafford, lord Clifford, and many other persons of distinction. When he arrived in London, York made his first open claim to the monarchy before the house of peers: but the king was by them empowered to retain his office. Conciliatory measures were attempted on the part of Henry: York, Salisbury, and Warwick, were invited to attend the court at Coventry: but these noblemen, either receiving or pretending to have received notice of designs formed against their lives by the court, separated while on the road to Coventry; York went to his castle of Wigmore, Salisbury to Middleham in Yorkshire, and Warwick to his government of Calais. Moderate men began to be seriously apprehensive of the issue of these proceedings. At the instance of the archbishop of Canterbury the three friends were induced to quit their retreat; and another reconciliation was set on foot in London, but it terminated

nated still more unpropitiously than the former. A person in the king's retinue having insulted one of Warwick's train, a skirmish ensued, and Warwick again fled to Calais. His friends, taking the example, fled also to their respective seats, each party preparing to decide by arms a contest which, it was now clear, admitted of no other determination.

The government of Calais, which was confided to Warwick by the authority of parliament after the battle of St. Albans, was, on many considerations, a post of extraordinary moment at this juncture; it gave him the unlimited command of the only regular military force then maintained by the crown, and it afforded him a harbour wherein he might securely collect the prime of the British navy. Over the last department his influence was nearly unprecedented. He had been appointed high admiral, and for the support of this command, in which he was styled *Great Captain of the Sea*, the parliament had allowed to him, not only the whole of the duties arising from tonnage and poundage, the usual provision for the support of the navy, but he had also a grant of one thousand pounds per annum from the revenues of the duchy of Lancaster. Such an idea had the world of this earl, that he was familiarly called *The Stout Earl of Warwick*, and *The King-maker*.

Warwick had but just settled himself at Calais, when putting to sea, in order to prevent any succours arriving from France to Henry, he fell in with five very large ships, three Genoese and two Spanish, richly laden; these he took, after a spirited resistance, and sold their cargoes at the price of ten thousand pounds. Henry, finding it impossible to draw the earl from this fortress,

for

for he had summoned him to answer in London for the produce of his late captures, sent out the young duke of Somerset to supersede him in his government. But the inhabitants refused obedience to the royal order; and finding them bent on maintaining their rejection of the new governor, the king ordered lord Rivers, whom he now constituted his admiral, to collect all his remaining fleet at Sandwich, and proceed to force Warwick from his station. The earl perceiving this design, dispatched Sir John Denham, a veteran officer, to Sandwich, who completely surpris'd the ships that were assembled under Rivers, secured them, and returned to Calais with Rivers and his fleet. The fleet which had carried over young Somerset, hearing of this success, revolted from the king, and entered into the service of Warwick.

The duke of York was now in Ireland, where he had been obliged to take refuge ever since the defeat of his friends at Blore Heath, on the borders of Staffordshire, on the 23d of September 1459; and, as the importance of their plans rendered an interview indispensable to both, Warwick undertook a voyage for that purpose. As this adventure could be no secret in London, the duke of Exeter, with the grand fleet under his command, failed to intercept Warwick in his return. They met: but such was the coldness of the men to the royal cause, when oppos'd to that of the earl, that Exeter deemed it safest to retire without making any hostile attempt.

Events soon explained the nature of Warwick's conference with the duke of York. Having sound'd the Kentish men, and finding them not unfriendly to his hopes,

hopes, he landed at Sandwich in 1460. But he did not take this decisive measure till he had removed every impediment to his operations, and secured a formidable force. He had, a few weeks before, surprised a fleet destined to oppose his passage, which was commanded by sir Simon Montfort, lord warden of the cinque ports, and conducted it into Calais. Nor, when he now landed at Sandwich, did he omit the precautions necessary to success. His professions of allegiance to Henry, which he ratified by a solemn public oath at the cross of Canterbury, not merely deceived the populace, but many also of the great men who joined him, and who, together with the people, enabled him to encounter the king at Northampton, where an obstinate battle ensued on the 10th of July. The result of this conflict placed Henry in the custody of his adversaries, and carried the Yorkists in triumph to London. Here York first made an unequivocal demand of the crown; and obtained from parliament an acknowledgment of his right.

This adjustment was but of short duration: Margaret, who had fled into Scotland on the breaking out of this rebellion, returning from thence with a numerous force, and, aided by the northern barons, gave battle to the duke of York at Wakefield: here York fell; and here the earl of Salisbury, father of Warwick, being made prisoner, was beheaded by the queen's orders. Advancing towards the metropolis, she was encountered at St. Albans by the division stationed in the capital under the command of the earl of Warwick. This engagement also terminated in her favour, through the treachery of Lovelace, who deserted to the
queen

queen with a considerable body of his vassals. No stability, however, attended this fortune. Young Edward; the new duke of York, advanced upon her from the opposite quarter; collected the remains of Warwick's forces; and presented such a threatening aspect, as compelled the queen to retire into the north: Edward entered the city of London amidst the loudest acclamations, and was immediately declared king by the title of Edward IV.

Margaret remained yet unsubdued, and in possession of her husband's person. She had even gathered together a force of sixty thousand men in Yorkshire, and so powerful was her influence in these parts, that Warwick was dispatched with an army of forty thousand men to arrest her progress. On his arrival at Pomfret, the earl detached a body of troops under lord Fitzwallor, to secure the pass of Ferrybridge over the Ayre, which divided him from the enemy. This party gained, but were not able to maintain, the position against lord Clifford the queen's general, who repulsed them with great loss. Warwick was too experienced a commander not to perceive the critical effect of this check; if he allowed it to gain an ascendancy over the minds of his followers. He called for his horse, stabbed him in the presence of his whole army, and kissing the hilt of his sword, exclaimed,—“ Let him flee that flee will, I will tarry with him that will tarry with me;” an action that instantly restored the wavering resolutions of his adherents, and to which he stood much indebted for the victory that ensued. On the following morning the two armies engaged at Tooton; the contest, which was unusually bloody, decided the expulsion of

Henry and his unfortunate queen, who were defeated, and fled into Scotland.

Edward did not forget the man who had so importantly contributed to advance the interests of the house of York. Warwick was made general warden of the east marches towards Scotland; lord great chamberlain of England for life; constable of Dover castle; lord high steward of England; entrusted with all the embassies of moment; and sent to negotiate, in 1464, Edward's marriage with Bona of Savoy, sister of the queen of France. To use the language of Philip de Comines, "this great earl was the chiefest man in England for supporting the house of York, as the duke of Somerset was for that of Lancaster: so that he might justly be called king Edward's father, as well for that of training him up, as for the great services he did him."

While Warwick was negotiating this marriage, Edward married Elizabeth, widow of sir John Grey, and daughter of Jacquetta, widow of the great duke of Bedford, by her union with Woodville. This conduct offended the earl, who had nearly concluded his matrimonial mission with the French court. Nor did Edward, on Warwick's return, affect that concern for his ambassador's disappointment, which might have tended to mollify the resentment of the baron, and could not possibly degrade the prince. Rash, haughty, and inconsiderate, Edward seemed not to fear the animosity of his most powerful friend; or he was induced to attempt to lower that pride and greatness which might one day insult even the present possessor of the throne. Certainly motives extremely strong, besides the king's behaviour in the projected union with Bona, and which are
not

not to be understood at this distance of time, must have concurred in producing that enmity which soon broke out between Warwick and the sovereign.

He retired into Warwickshire; and, sending for his brothers, the archbishop of York, and lord Montague, consulted on the means of dethroning Edward. Though his intentions were not disclosed, the king strongly suspected them; for, at a banquet to which the earl invited him, he suddenly rose, and entertaining an idea that it was meant either to murder or to poison him, abruptly quitted the entertainment.

Edward's conclusions did not prevent him from still employing the earl of Warwick, who was shortly afterwards sent, with the duke of Clarence the king's brother, whom Warwick had seduced to his party by marrying him to his elder daughter, to suppress a rebellion in Lincolnshire. The conspirators, instead of quelling, endeavoured to turn this insurrection to their own advantage, but failed. Clarence and Warwick were afterwards refused entrance into Calais, and compelled to seek refuge in France; where, in conjunction with that court, they undertook the restoration of Henry. Edward contrived, however, to regain the duke of Clarence to himself.

Towards the latter end of September, 1470, Warwick landed in England. His amazing popularity, and his address, placed him at once at the head of sixty thousand men; Edward had but just time to save himself by flight into Holland, and Henry was restored.

When the exaltation of the Lancastrians seemed complete, Edward suddenly appeared at Ravenspur in Yorkshire: the duke of Burgundy had supplied him

with fourteen ships, a little money, and two thousand men. It is remarkable that he landed at the same place, and made a similar declaration to that of the duke of Lancaster, afterwards Henry IV. He had the address to avoid Warwick, and enter London, where he made himself master of Henry's person. Edward, finding himself in a condition to oppose Warwick, encountered him at Barnet, April the 24th, 1471. Clarence was now with his brother, but entertained so high a regard for his father-in-law, the earl of Warwick, that he induced the king to listen to some plan of reconciliation. These overtures were disdained by the earl; who, without waiting for succours that were hastening to his assistance under queen Margaret, hazarded that engagement in which he ended his tumultuous days, and in which the Lancastrian cause experienced a fatal blow. His body was exposed at Paul's cross, and then interred with his ancestors.

SEBASTIAN CABOT.

A NEW and more delightful scene now opens itself to contemplation. Every age has its ruling and distinguishing passion; and that of the age now ensuing was the discovery of unknown countries, the extension of human intercourse, and the enlargement of human information.

The few days of Edward V. and the short and uncertain reign of Richard III. afford nothing worthy of notice in the naval history of the country. Not thus the long and pacific years of their successor Henry VII. His youth was passed in exile and activity, amongst the traders of the continent, and being thus acquainted with every object that agitated the speculative mind, Henry became versed in mercantile interests, expert in naval transactions, and qualified to distinguish and appreciate those projects of discovery with which Europe abounded. Bartholomew Columbus found his applications successful in England; and though his brother Christopher effected his discovery for Spain, prior to his receiving news of the treaty concluded, on his account, between the king and Bartholomew, the signing of this agreement did, in fact, antedate the discovery. But, if this claim to the first discovery of America were not to be urged, it is certain that the Cabots ranged a great part of this unknown world in 1497; and that, though Columbus had previously found certain isles, it was

1498 before he saw the continent. So that, in reality, the honour of this GREAT DISCOVERY is as much, or more, due to the English, than the Spaniards.

Sebastian Cabot was born at Bristol about the year 1477. He was son of John Gabota, a Venetian, who was introduced to the notice of Henry VII. in the course of a treaty with Denmark. The name was by corruption soon called Cabot. John was fully adequate to the task of inciting his son to those studies which might conduce to his reputation as a seaman. Sebastian was early instructed in arithmetic, geometry, and cosmography; and, by the time he had attained the age of seventeen years, he had made several trips to sea, and thereby added to great theoretical knowledge a competent degree of skill in the practice of navigation. In 1495 John Cabot obtained from Henry a patent, empowering himself and his three sons to proceed in their discoveries; and in the spring of 1497, having collected four small vessels, and a ship fitted out at the king's expence, they quitted England on their projected destination, proposing to seek a north-west passage to the East Indies; a hope with which John Cabot had been inspired in consequence of the progress of Columbus.

Pursuing their north-west course they discovered, at about five in the morning of June 24, 1497, an island which, from the number of that fish seen on its coasts, they called Baccalao; and which is now known by the name of Newfoundland. The following account of this transaction is found on a map drawn by Sebastian, and merits preservation in these pages, both because it is the description of Sebastian Cabot, and also the first account

of the discoveries made by adventurers in the pay of the English nation.

“ In the year of our Lord 1497, John Cabot, a Venetian, and his son Sebastian, with an English fleet, set out from Bristol, and discovered that island which no man before had attempted. This discovery was made on the four and twentieth of June, about five o'clock in the morning. This land he called *Prima Vista*, or *first seen*, because it was that part of which they had the first sight from the sea. The island, which lies out before the land, he called the island of St. John, because it was discovered on the festival of St. John the Baptist. The inhabitants of this island wore beasts' skins, and esteemed them as the finest garments.”

So far Sebastian's memorandum. Fabian, in his chronicle, tells, that there were brought unto Henry VII. “ three men taken in the new-found island: these, he continues, were clothed in beasts' skins, and did eat raw flesh, and spake such speech that no men could understand them, and in their demeanour were like brute beasts.” Purchas gives some account of the customs of the natives, and produce of the island. As to the relation given by John Cabot of this voyage, it is involved in too much confusion and obscurity to merit a serious detail. He sailed afterwards to Cape Florida, and then returned to England with a valuable cargo, and the three savages on board: he was well received, and obtained from the king the honour of knighthood. This is justly styled a very important discovery, since, in truth, it was the first time the continent of America had been seen, Columbus being unacquainted with it
till

till his last voyage, which was the year following, when he coasted along a part of the Isthmus of Darien. And the learned Purchas asserts, that America ought rather to be called Cabotiana, or Sebastiana, because Sebastian Cabot discovered more of it than Americus, or Columbus himself.

Of the voyages performed by Sebastian in the course of the next twenty years, there is now no trace. All the facts certainly known relating to him during this period are the death of his father; his great intimacy with Sir Thomas Pert, Vice Admiral to Henry VIII. and his procuring from his friend a good ship of the king's, in order to effect discoveries to the south. It appears that he had now changed his route; for he sailed first to Brazil, and, missing there of his purpose, shaped his course for the islands of Hispaniola and Porto Rico, where he carried on a little traffic, and then returned; failing, however, of his true design, through the timidity of Pert. This disappointment so affected Sebastian, that he left England, and entered into the service of Spain. Here he was treated with the respect due to his merits: he was appointed chief pilot of Spain; and as this office empowered him to review all projects of discovery, it was of great importance at this era, and admirably suited to his genius.

Cabot did not long retain a station which, honourable as it was in itself, could give no scope for his more active spirit. Some merchants, who were desirous of undertaking a voyage on their own account, applied to him in 1524, who was to proceed by the late found straits of Magellan to the Moluccas. The proposal was highly gratifying to Cabot. He sailed from Cadiz in April

1525, to the Canaries, then to the Cape de Verd islands, thence to Cape St. Augustine, and near the bay of All Saints he met a French ship. At the island of Patos he was relieved by the Indians from that scarcity of provision to which erroneous calculations had reduced him; but in requital of these good offices he took away by force four of the sons of their chiefs. In his way to Rio de la Plata, he set ashore, on a desert island, Martin Mendez, his vice-admiral, captain Francis de Rodas, and Michael de Rodas, for contumacious carriage and censuring his orders: he did not touch at the Spice islands, being in want of provisions, and also apprehending that his men would not trust themselves to his management up the Straits. About thirty leagues above the mouth of the river de la Plata he found an island, which he called St. Gabriel: here he anchored, and rowing with the boats three leagues higher, discovered a river which he called San Salvador, very deep, and a safe harbour for ships. Here he brought up his vessels and unloaded them, and then built a fort. Advancing, in boats, thirty leagues further, and perceiving the people of those shores to be social and rational, he erected another fort, which he named Santi Spiritu, or the Holy Ghost, and that wherein he had left some of his followers he called Cabot's fort. Keeping along the great stream, and discovering several islands and rivers in his way, he now gained the river Paraguay. Near this quarter he found the natives employed in tillage, a circumstance he had never before witnessed in those regions. He attempted to land, but was compelled to retire.

James Garcia, who had been sent from Galicia with two vessels, on a voyage of discovery, and entirely unapprized

apprized of Cabot's route, entered the Plate. Garcia had sent away his own ship, which was the largest, when he came to an anchor at the place where Cabot's vessels was all stationed. They soon joined company, and returned together to the fort of the Holy Ghost, and from thence dispatched messengers into Spain with an account of their discoveries; specimens of gold and silver, the produce of the countries discovered; and requesting a good supply of provision, ammunition, wares adapted to traffic, and a recruit of men. The merchants, taking the whole into consideration, resolved to give up these acquisitions to the king of Spain, as better qualified to support and establish them. The monarch acceded readily to the offer; but was so dilatory in recruiting the adventurers, that Cabot, tired of his situation, returned to Spain in 1531. He was but coldly received at court. His severity to the vice-admiral and his associates, he now saw, had made him too many enemies at home to leave the least room to doubt from whence had arisen the denial of succours, and the present indifference of the monarch.

Towards the close of the reign of Henry VIII. Cabot repaired to England, and settled in Bristol; at the instance, it seems, of Mr. Thorne, an intimate friend of the navigator, and an eminent merchant in that city, Cabot had the good fortune to attract the notice of the duke of Somerset, uncle to Edward VI. in the commencement of that prince's reign. Somerset introduced him to the young king, who became sincerely attached to the seaman, and created for him an office equivalent to that which he had enjoyed in Spain, with a pension of 166*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* He continued in high favour with

Edward, who consulted him on all mercantile business, and on every important naval expedition. In 1553 he drew up the instructions for the merchant-company about to embark for ascertaining a passage by the north to the East Indies.

Cabot founded, and was by letters patent made governor for life of, the Russia company, in the first year of queen Mary, who also continued to Cabot the pension granted to him by her predecessor. He was ever active in the affairs of this company. On his stay at Gravesend, where he had been one day in April 1556, to attend the departure of a vessel employed in the Russia trade, after distributing alms very liberally to the poor, he caused a grand entertainment to be made at the Christopher, where, such were his natural frankness and gaiety, he entered himself into the dance.—“ This, except the renewing of his patent, is the last circumstance relating to Cabot that can be discovered; and as it is certain that a person of his temper could not have been idle, or his actions remain in obscurity, so it is almost certain, that he died some time in the next year, when, if not fourscore, he was at least considerably upwards of seventy.”

Sebastian Cabot, though descended of an Italian family, was by birth and affections an Englishman. He is entitled to a distinguished place in the first rank of British Naval Characters. He was the most skilful seaman of the times in which he flourished; the first who remarked the variation of the compass, a point of the utmost importance in navigation; and the discoveries which he made are undeniable testimonials of his spirit, wisdom, and fortitude.

SIR EDWARD POYNINGS.

THE reign of Henry VII. if we except the occasional extension of the royal power beyond the limits consistent with the just liberty of the subject; was peculiarly fortunate to his people. He united the contending interests of York and Lancaster, and thereby terminated the horrors of civil war; and was generally revered by his neighbours. He built the GREAT HARRY, the first ship of the royal navy; for though he, as well as his predecessors, fitted out some vessels, and hired others, on every equipment of the marine force, he was the first who began to raise such a sufficient permanent navy as might be at all times found adequate to the defence of the state, and prompt and efficacious to assert the rights of his kingdom. Throughout the whole of his government, the English navy existed on a foundation more respectable, as well as more powerful, than at any previous period*.

Sir Edward Poynings may be said to have flourished during the reign of this wise and respected monarch. His ancestors, the de Poynings of Suffex, greatly distinguished themselves under their respective sovereigns.

* "The king foresaw an increase of commerce would make larger vessels necessary, and therefore began to build, and let out such to hire for the advantage of, and by way of example to, his subjects."

Sir Edward's father was Robert, a younger son of lord Robert Poynings, who died in 1469, leaving Edward, then eleven years of age, his son and heir.

Though the crimes of Richard III. had advanced him to the throne of his murdered nephew, they could not secure to him the allegiance of the nation. Buckingham, who really elevated the tyrant to this eminence, was amongst the first who were found ready to depose the atrocious usurper. This duke being allied to the Lancastrian family, and, as almost invariably happens in similar transactions, feeling himself not rewarded according to the nature and extent of his services to Richard, very cordially acquiesced in the restoration of the house of Lancaster in the person of Henry earl of Richmond, then in a sort of honourable custody at the court of Brittany. Sir Edward Poynings engaged deeply in this scheme; which was, however, apparently frustrated by the failure of Buckingham's insurrections, who was taken in a private house, to which he fled on the dispersion of his Welshmen, and was immediately executed at Salisbury. Sir Edward learnt the inauspicious event in time to evade its effects: he fled instantly into France, and there joined Richmond, who had just made an escape no less critical from the hands of Peter Landais, a miscreant hired by Richard to assassinate him in Brittany. Charles VIII. gave to Richmond those succours for which he had vainly importuned at Brittany. With only a few ships, on board of which were two thousand men, the earl sailed from Harfleur, and disembarked at Milford Haven. Richard advanced from Nottingham, and Richmond through Shrewsbury, where he was joined by considerable numbers. The

two armies met near Leicester, where the battle of Bosworth field soon decided their reciprocal claims: Henry became king of England, August the 22d, 1485, and was crowned at London on the 30th of the ensuing October, amidst the unfeigned congratulations of his subjects. At his coronation, Henry instituted a band of fifty archers, called yeomen of the guard; an institution which, while it added splendour to the ceremony, gave also security to the person of the king. Sir Edward was appointed master of this guard towards the latter days of the sovereign, under the appellation of knight for the king's body. Regret is not to be excited by the fate of Richard III.; it is, however, worthy of remark, that, had he not neglected his fleet, he might long have preserved to himself that crown he so iniquitously acquired. Richard made all his preparations by land, when the slightest naval opposition must have deterred Henry from setting foot in his dominions, and returned him with confusion upon France; it was, most probably, a knowledge of Richard's deficiency in this quarter that induced Henry to undertake his invasion.

Henry did not forget the persons who adventured themselves in his cause; those firm and generous adherents to whom he stood indebted for his crown. In this selection, sir Edward was made one of the privy council; and, in 1489, he was joined with sir Ralph Willoughby, afterwards lord Broke, in the conduct of troops sent to the assistance of the duchess of Brittany, according to Henry's stipulations with Maximilian.

Count Ravenstein, a rebellious subject of Maximilian, turning pirate in 1492, sir Edward Poynings was sent out to destroy him. Ravenstein's situation was found sufficiently

ficiently formidable. He had fortified himself in the town of Sluys, and had collected together a considerable naval force for the defence of the port. Poynings, while consulting the measures proper to be pursued, received the satisfactory intelligence that the duke of Saxony had invested Sluys by land, which determined him to besiege it by sea. The principal strength of the besieged consisted in two castles, one of which Poynings attacked twenty days successively; and had at length the good fortune to take both, by setting fire, in the night, to the bridge of boats that formed the communication between the castles. The town was surrendered to the elector, and its castles were delivered up to the English.

In 1495 sir Edward was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland; he had, two years before, evinced such alacrity in detecting the imposture of Perkin Warbec, when deputed to Flanders for that end by Henry, that the king, as a singular token of favour and confidence, now entrusted to him the final suppression of Perkin's Irish partisans, and the reformation of the constitution of that country. So effective were his regulations, that Perkin in vain essayed to acquire a settlement; and, after secreting himself for some time among the wild natives, he was compelled to take shelter in Scotland. But sir Edward's exertions went much further than the mere expulsion of Perkin, and the entire suppression of the impostor's friends: he absolutely combined the government of Ireland with that of England. By that great statute, which is known to this day by the title of POYNING'S LAW, "all the former laws of England were made to be of force in Ireland; and no bill can be introduced

troduced into the Irish parliament, unless it previously receive the sanction of the council of England."

On the accession of Henry VIII. which took place in 1509, sir Edward Poynings is found among the new ministry, and in the office of comptroller. The tribute given by the historian to this ministry is no small praise to the individuals of whom it was composed. — "These men had long been accustomed to business under the late king, and were the least unpopular of all the ministers employed by that monarch." Sir Edward did not lose, under the auspices of the son, the favour he had acquired under Henry VII. Already invested with the order of the garter, and made constable of Dover Castle, he was chosen, by Henry VIII. comptroller of his household, numbered with the privy council, made warden of the cinque ports, and continued in his constableness of Dover Castle.

In the year 1511 Henry became concerned for the state of Flanders. Sir Edward Poynings was therefore dispatched, with a choice body of troops, to assist the Burgundians in repelling the duke of Gueldres: he met with considerable success; and returned with much honour, and little loss, to his native country. He was afterwards, in 1512, employed on an embassy to Maximilian.

Henry, young, sanguine, and ambitious, panted after military glory; while the amazing treasures left by the late king, together with a powerful and well-regulated navy, were circumstances highly favourable to his desires. He had engaged in the great league against Louis XII. and although the deportment of Maximilian was uniformly ambiguous and interested, yet his refined subtilty and the project of a conquest of France, which
was

was entertained by the English monarch and ardently seconded by Maximilian, induced Henry to augment his confidence in his ally, and to rush eagerly into the snare thus spread for hope and credulity by that artful politician.

About April 1513 the first detachment of the destined invasion passed over to Calais; whither it was followed, towards the end of June, by Henry and the remainder of the expedition. Maximilian, who had long discerned the weak side of his confederate, enlisted himself in Henry's service, wore the cross of St. George, and received a hundred crowns a day as one of his subjects and captains. Henry was so blinded by this finesse, as to overlook Maximilian's default in a very serious particular. This prince had received an advance of 120,000 crowns from Henry, and had promised to reinforce the Swiss, who were to make an effectual irruption into Burgundy with 8000 men; but utterly failed in the performance of this engagement. Henry arrived in camp just in time to obtain a decisive advantage over the French forces sent to relieve Teroüane, the siege of which fortress was already formed by the earl of Shrewsbury and lord Herbert. Instead of pursuing the consequences of a victory that had thrown Paris into general consternation, and at an epoch when her monarch was in no condition to resist the power of his enemies, Henry returned to the siege of Teroüane. But his movements were, if possible, still more inexcusable on the reduction of the place besieged. By the advice of Maximilian, he laid siege to Tournay. This city, though lying within the Flemish frontiers, belonged to France; and Maximilian was heartily desirous of freeing his grandson from
so

so troublesome and dangerous a neighbour by the friendly arms of his ally. Having taken Tournay also, and hearing of the retreat of the Swifs, Henry thought it prudent to return home; a measure to which he was also prompted by reflecting on the advanced state of the season, for it was now near the close of September. Though this campaign was tardily began, the king might have reached Paris, had it been judiciously pursued, or had he not suffered himself to be imposed upon by the designing counsels of Maximilian. Sir Edward Poynings bore a principal share in the whole of these transactions, and was left to keep possession of Tournay.

The fortress thus committed to Poynings being at length ceded by treaty to the French, Sir Edward returned to his government of Dover Castle; where, on the 25th of May 1520, he had the honour to receive the emperor Charles V. who landed on a visit to Henry. Charles had but recently ascended the imperial throne; and learning that Francis, the French monarch, who had been his competitor in the contest for that diadem, was arranging an interview with Henry, he resolved, by making his previous respects and insuring Wolfey's favour, to counteract the supposed designs of Francis; and the success of his journey did not disappoint his expectations.

In 1523 sir Edward Poynings fell a victim to the plague, which raged in England with great violence. By Elizabeth, daughter of sir John Scot, he had only one son, who died in his life-time, but he left several illegitimate children.

SIR THOMAS KNEVET.

ALL that can be offered on the subject of sir Thomas Knevet's origin is conjecture. He was probably a descendant of the Knevets of Norfolk; a branch of which family, John Knivet, or Knevet, was chancellor and keeper of the great seal in the reign of Edward III. Sir Thomas Knevet was master of the horse to Henry VIII.

He was ordered to the coast of Brittany, during the summer of 1512, with a fleet of forty-five sail; carrying with him sir Charles Brandon, sir John Carew, and a number of the young nobility, who were earnestly and equally desirous of exerting their naval abilities on this occasion. They had succeeded in committing various ravages, when they were unexpectedly encountered by Primauget, the French admiral, who suddenly issued from Brest with thirty-nine sail. Primauget began the engagement. Fire seized his ship; and finding his own destruction inevitable, he bore down upon the vessel of the English admiral, resolved that he should meet a similar doom. Both fleets stood for some time in suspense, spectators of this dreadful struggle. The horror of the flames, the cries of fury and despair which proceeded from the miserable combatants, and the ghastly consternation of the surrounding seamen, who contemplated the dismal contest, formed altogether a scene of indescribable misery. At last the French vessel blew
up,

up, and at the same time destroyed the English. The rest of the French fleet made their escape into different harbours.

Thus perished sir Thomas Knevet—a loyal subject, an honourable citizen, and a zealous assertor of the naval superiority of his country.

SIR EDWARD HOWARD,
LORD HIGH ADMIRAL.

THERE are not many families to whom considerations of respect and admiration are so justly due as to the illustrious line of the Howards: all that antiquity so remote as not to be ascertained; all that patriotism, valour, genius, and exalted services can claim, is exacted by the virtues, the talents, and the actions of this noble house. Their first recorded ancestor is Edward Howard, judge of the court of common pleas in the times of Edward I. and his successor Edward II. History has not been deficient in commemorating the character of this great man. He is represented as a man of unblemished manners, great learning, becoming seriousness, indefatigable in duty, and of unimpeachable integrity. By the favour of Edward IV. John, a descendant of this magistrate, was made lord Howard; afterwards, in the days of Richard III. he was advanced to the dukedom of Norfolk; and he fell, in defence of his last patron, at Bosworth field.

Thomas, son of John, was, notwithstanding the attachment of his parent, much favoured by Henry VII. and soon restored to the earldom of Surry, a distinction procured for him by his father from Richard III. but of which he had been deprived by the vicissitudes of civil

war. Thomas must be considered the true founder of his family's prosperity, the great origin of their future importance. He was almost as highly estimated by Henry VIII. as by his predecessor. He married Elizabeth, daughter and sole heir of sir Frederick Tilney, and widow of Humphrey Bouchier lord Beners; from which union he derived eight sons and three daughters, among whom were sir Edward, and his brother, sir Thomas Howard. On the death of Elizabeth, lord Howard married Agnes, daughter of sir Philip Tilney, and by her had two sons and four daughters.

Sir Edward Howard gave early proof of his attachment to the naval interests of his country. He was with Poynings at the reduction of Sluys; though at that period but a stripling, he came with the hope of attaining some practical knowledge of a profession wherein he afterwards so greatly excelled. The judgment, activity, and courage, which he on this occasion displayed, procured him the applauses of his best officers, and opened to them pleasing expectations of his future fame. Indeed, his knighthood was conferred on him by Henry VII. in consideration of his conduct at Sluys.

Henry VIII. appointed sir Edward his standard-bearer; a post of great honour, and never conferred but upon characters of singular worth and bravery. The king further augmented sir Edward's reputation, by constituting him lord high admiral of England. Howard was advanced to this dignity March the 19th, 1513; and Henry, by an indenture, dated April the 8th, granted to sir Edward Howard the following allowance for the support of his new rank: "For his own maintainance,

diet, wages, and rewards, ten shillings a day. For each of the captains, on the like accounts, one shilling and sixpence a day. And for every foldier, mariner, and gunner, five shillings a month for his wages, and five shillings for his victuals, reckoning eight and twenty days in the month."

Barton, a famous Scot, having long committed acts of piracy on our coasts, with two stout ships, which he had fitted out under colour of revenging himself on the Portuguese, sir Edward, accompanied by sir Thomas Howard his brother, were dispatched in quest of the pirates. They fell in with them off the Goodwin sands, on their return from Flanders to Scotland. As the force was equal, the contest became exceeding hot. Barton fought desperately, and, when reduced to extremity by the wounds he had received, he encouraged his men, by means of a boatswain's whistle, to his latest breath. The pirates were conducted to London, but dismissed, by Henry's clemency, to their native land. Scotland complained of this act as an infraction of subsisting treaties, but Henry replied, "That to punish pirates was no infraction of treaties between princes." After convoying the duke of Dorset into Spain, Howard cleared the coasts of Brittany, and was present at that dreadful engagement recorded in the life of Knevet.

The spring of 1513 is replete with naval transactions. Henry had long cherished the intention of invading France; and, purposing to pass over to Calais in the present summer, gave orders to the lord admiral to equip a competent fleet, and clear the seas. This armament, amounting to forty-two sail, left England in the month

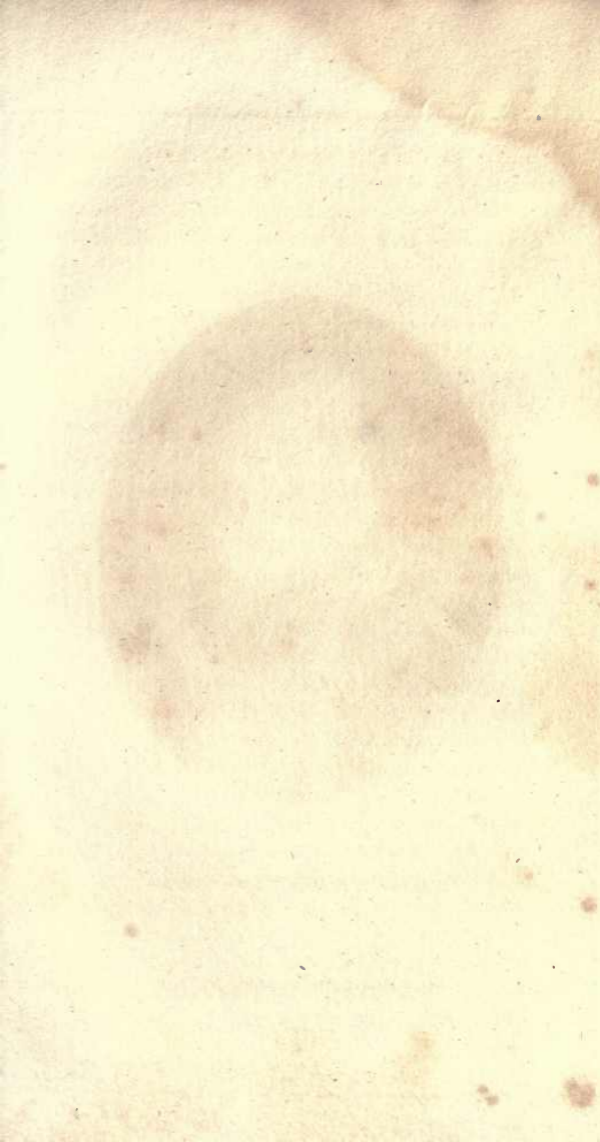
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of April. Howard found the French in Brest, waiting for a reinforcement of six gallies which were daily expected from the Mediterranean under Prigent. Finding it an hopeless attempt to attack the enemy in that situation, he made a feint of landing at a little distance, by which he drew the enemy from the harbour, entered Brest, and ravaged the country in sight of its castle. Prigent, meantime, arrived, and placed himself in Conquet, in a situation which he considered perfectly secure. He was at anchor between two rocks, on each of which stood a strong fort, and lay so far up the bay, that it was with extreme difficulty the English admiral could bring any of his ships to the attack. Having two gallies in his fleet, he chose one, and committing the other to lord Ferrers, with no other assistance than two barges and two boats, entered the bay of Conquet, April the 25th. It was a maxim of Howard's, that no admiral was good for any thing that was not even brave to a degree of madness. He immediately fastened on Prigent's ship, and leaped on board, attended by Carroz, a Spaniard, and seventeen seamen. The cable that linked him to Prigent being soon cut, Howard was left grappling with the French, and was finally pushed overboard in the struggle, and was drowned. Ferrers seeing the state of the admiral's galley, and having expended his shot, withdrew from the scene; and the general dejection of the English now rendered it most prudent to return home, without attempting any thing further against Prigent.

Though the character of the admiral must undoubtedly have prompted him to exertions of the most consummate valour, he would have acted more circum-

spectly, but for some occurrences on shore. So little did he doubt of the utter extirpation of the French fleet, that he wrote to court, apprising the king of his situation, and exhorting him to come and take upon himself the glory of the achievement. Others were not so sanguine, and Howard received an answer ordering him to do his duty in a style of unmerited reproach. The reply took deep root in Howard's breast, and, perhaps, urged him to a desperate attempt. The only account afterwards collected from his own men amounted merely to this: they saw him take his whistle and the chain of gold nobles from his neck, and then throw them into the sea, that they might not fall into the possession of the enemy.

Sir Edward Howard was in all respects a very estimable man; a brave and intelligent seaman: he was also a good soldier; an able and upright statesman; and an amiable private character. He fell in the flower of his age, April the 25th, 1513; and it was fortunate for Henry, that the loss of an admiral, which might at one time have been irreparable, could now be supplied from the same stock which had produced the meritorious sir Edward. Foreign potentates entertained an high opinion of sir Edward Howard. "And surely, dearest brother," says the king of Scots, in a letter to Henry VIII. May the 14th, 1513, "we think more loss is to you of the late admiral, who deceased to his great honour, than the advantage might have been in winning all the French gallies."





Harding sc.

HOWARD LORD HIGH ADMIRAL

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SIR THOMAS HOWARD,

AFTERWARDS

EARL OF SURRY AND DUKE OF NORFOLK,

LORD HIGH ADMIRAL.

WHEN complaints were preferred to the privy council of the practices of the Scottish pirates, the great duke of Norfolk, the father of Edward and Thomas, declared the narrow seas should not be so infested while he had estate enough to furnish a ship, or a son capable of commanding it. Sir Thomas Howard was a worthy descendant of such a father, and an inheritor of his brother's merit. It will be recollected that he assisted his brother in his memorable contest with Barton, but there are peculiarities belonging to the engagement which were naturally reserved for the life of Sir Thomas Howard. The two ships, it is conceived, were fitted out at the expence of the duke of Norfolk. This conjecture is sanctioned by the duke's declaration in council, and the alacrity displayed by the brothers in the execution of it. Had they entered upon the enterprize by royal commission, it is probable that not two ships, but a squadron, as was customary, would have been assigned to them on the occasion. Besides they needed no commission; for pirates being hostes

humani generis, "the enemies of mankind," every man is at liberty to act against them; and on this principle king Henry afterwards justified the action. The brothers were separated by a storm, in consequence of which Thomas first engaged Barton in the Lion. In this situation he had nearly accomplished his victory, when Edward came up, and encountered the consort ship. The Lion was adjudged to be the prize of Thomas; but any comparison between the exertions of the brothers in this action would be invidious and unjust.

Sir Thomas Howard, on his return from accompanying the duke of Dorset against Guyenne, learnt the melancholy catastrophe of his brother Edward. Neither the fame he had acquired in conducting back the troops employed in that unfortunate dispute, nor the intelligence of himself being appointed lord high admiral, in place of his deceased brother, could render him unmindful of the loss of so near and so distinguished a relative. The chief pleasure he appears to have derived from his last appointment originated in the hope, that it would speedily afford him both the means and occasion of revenging his brother's death. In this hope he was not deluded. Present, flushed with his recent success, landed some men in Suffex, who pillaged the country. Sir Thomas put directly to sea; and having scoured the channel, so that not a French bark would venture to appear, landed in Whitland bay, pillaged the places adjacent, and burnt a considerable town. The admiral, after thus clearing the seas, convoyed Henry and his preparations to Calais, on his long-meditated irruption into France.

While

While Henry was amusing himself with the flatteries of Maximilian, James IV. made a serious incursion into England. But the Howards quickly impeded his progress. Sir Thomas landed five thousand men at Alnwick, to the assistance of his noble father, who was proceeding against James. They sent their herald to the Scottish king, who was particularly instructed by the admiral to inform that monarch, "That whereas he could not meet with any of the Scottish ships at sea, he thought fit to land, to the end that he might justify sir Andrew Barton's *death*;" adding, "that, as he looked for no mercy from his enemies, so he would spare none but the king only, if he came into his hands; and to make all this good, that he would be in the van-guard of the battle." The Howards were not unrewarded by Henry: their father, who had till now been only earl of Surry, was made duke of Norfolk, and sir Thomas was created earl of Surry. This battle, called that of Flodden field, wherein the Scottish king and the flower of his nobility were slain, was fought the 8th of September 1513.

During the short interval of peace that followed these transactions, Ireland assumed a troublesome character; the mission of a new lieutenant became indispensable, and sir Thomas Howard, then earl of Surry, was delegated. His assiduity and talents recovered the authority of government, and had no less success in conciliating the minds of the subject. He left every thing on its legal foundation; suppressed Desmond's rebellion, lowered the O'Neals and O'Carrols; and returned to England with a reputation very deservedly augmented by the solid advantages which both nations had

had experienced under his administration. Wolsey's jealousy is assigned as the immediate cause of Surry's recall: dissensions had long prevailed between the cardinal and the Howards; Wolsey grew alarmed at the increasing honour of this connexion, and their probable ascendancy in the political scale.

Pretexts were not wanting to veil the real motives of the minister; a new war had broke out with France, in the prosecution of which it was averred the abilities of the admiral would be of the first moment. France had perpetrated her accustomed insults on the English coast before Howard was called into action. The admiral first applied himself to remedy this evil, which he did effectually, by dispatching his vice-admiral, Fitzwilliams, to guard the narrow seas. On the 4th of December, 1522, Surry was appointed lord treasurer.

The new war had been kindled in consequence of a treaty lately concerted between Henry and the emperor, Charles V. Henry was deluded into this alliance by cardinal Wolsey, whom Charles had secured to his interests under a promise of raising him to the papacy, agreed to join his forces to those of Charles, and engaged the admiral in equipping the stipulated naval succours, at the time when Fitzwilliams was deputed to guard the coasts. Surry was then, by a patent from Charles, made great admiral of the combined fleets. He proceeded to the coast of Normandy, and landing some forces near Cherbourg, wasted and destroyed the country; after which he returned. This retreat was a mere feint: the admiral landed in a few days on the shores of Bretagne a large body of troops, with which he took and plundered Morlaix; and having opened a passage for
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the English forces into Champaign and Picardy, and gained a valuable booty, he returned to Southampton, leaving a strong squadron under the vice-admiral to protect the merchants and scour the seas. Charles V. who had been some time in England, embarked, on Surry's return, on board the admiral's ship, and was safely conveyed to the port of St. Andero, in Biscay.

In 1525 died the great and good duke of Norfolk, the admiral's father. Norfolk lived long enough to be thoroughly disgusted with the cares of office, and the contentions of courts: and died in time to avoid a fight of that precipice over which the ambitious selfishness of the nobility, aided by the feeble jealousies of the old king, had nearly precipitated his children. Surry, on his father's demise, was entrusted with the sole command of an army against Scotland; in the conduct of this enterprise he was attended with his usual success. In 1526 he was appointed one of the commissioners to treat with France.

But the fall of Wolfey approached. Suspected by his master, envied and hated by his peers, and universally decried by the people, this mighty minister was at length destined to undergo the severest trials that could possibly arise to a man of his ambition, opulence, and renown. Of those who accelerated the ruin of Wolfey, none were more powerful, none more inveterate, than the Howards. The cardinal had uniformly conducted himself with singular asperity towards this family, which provoked from them a warm retaliation. Surry was one of the first to subscribe the articles which were framed against this extraordinary personage; and when it was consulted among the lords, to what place he should be banished,

banished, the duke of Norfolk named York, the cardinal's see, adding to Cromwell, who was chosen to convey the order to Wolsey, on finding that the minister made no haste to obey it, "Tell him further, that if he get not away, I will tear him with these teeth."

Henry effected an interview with the French king in 1533; in this scene the duke acted a considerable part. He was again in France, in the latter part of the year, to urge with the pope, the emperor, and the king of France, the necessity of granting Henry a divorce from the queen. There is no doubt that Norfolk conducted this conference in a way perfectly acceptable to his royal master, since he was amongst the first of the nobility who had signed a declaration to his holiness, "whereby they gave him a modest intimation, that the allowance of his supremacy here would be endangered in case he did not comply with king Henry."

Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, resigning the office of earl marshal, the king appointed the duke of Norfolk his successor, May the 28th, 1534: about the same time he also nominated him viceroy of Ireland. Towards the close of the year, Norfolk made another fruitless journey into France on the subject of the divorce.

Great political changes are mostly accompanied with violence; nor is it to be expected that a revolution in the religious creed of a people should be effected without resistance. But the overthrow of the papal power, the suppression of the monasteries, the execution of the most eminent English catholics, the public exposition of secret histories of nuns and friars, formed all together, at the age wherein it was exerted, such an effort of unparalleled

paralleled authority, that the consequent tumults it excited, though exhibiting a temporary terror, will appear to have fallen far short of the causes in which they originated. The first opposition made to the king's proceedings in Lincolnshire, hardly deserves that description: a more formidable opposition, but almost as short-lived as the first, was now attempted in the north. This insurrection was called *the pilgrimage of grace*. Like the tumultuary and ill appointed commotions so often entered upon by the populace in times of unusual events, this vanished before the regular movements of the king's general, the duke of Norfolk. Other insurgents made some efforts, but never could muster an adequate force. Henry himself always entertained a contemptuous opinion of these tumults: he tells them, in a proclamation, that they ought no more to pretend to form a judgment of government, than a blind man of colours. "And we," he adds, "with our whole council, think it right strange that ye, who be but brutes and inexpert folk, do take upon you to appoint us who be meet or not for our council."

Henry, having concluded a hasty peace with the Scots, passed again into France, in 1544: he had concerted this invasion with the emperor; the two princes were to enter on the campaign with one hundred thousand men, Henry by Calais, and Charles from the Low Countries. Had they succeeded, nothing short of the destruction of Francis, and the French monarchy, would have ensued. Norfolk, with his son Henry, earl of Surry, took part in this enterprize: the war opened in July, and terminated in September, unattended

attended by any action of moment, or any acquisition of utility.

Numerous and powerful as were the services which the Howards had rendered to Henry, there were also many causes which counteracted their merits in the breast of that prince. Unfortunately he married Catherine Howard, niece to the present duke of Norfolk; and her conduct, in the opinion of the king, reflected disgrace on all her relations. To the disgust which her behaviour had excited in Henry, were added causes of dislike personally affecting the duke. Norfolk was too powerful and too popular a subject; strong rumours were circulated of his attachment to the Romish establishment; and, finally, he stood allied to the throne. His son Henry, earl of Surry, unhappily rendered himself still more obnoxious to his master. In the warmth and unsuspectiveness of youth, he is said to have dropped some unguarded intimations, which, whether true or not, were assiduously forwarded to the monarch, of a wish to marry the lady Mary, who afterwards ascended the throne. These motives acted so violently on the jealous temper of the king, and were so vehemently enforced by the enemies of Norfolk, that private orders were suddenly issued for the arrest of that peer, together with his son the earl of Surry; and they were accordingly lodged in the tower in December 1546.

Wit and learning, qualities in which the young earl highly excelled, though exerted with the utmost promptitude and acuteness by him during his trial, could not avert his determined doom. He was beheaded on Tower-hill, January the 19th, 1547. His father's attainder

attainder was expeditiously obtained from a parliament summoned for that purpose; he was tried, and condemned unheard, and orders were issued for his execution on the morning of the 29th of January; when the death of the king, happening on the evening of the 28th, reserved him to a more peaceful end. He survived till the commencement of Mary's reign in 1554.

The character of sir Thomas Howard is sufficiently illustrated in his life. He was brave in war, prudent in council, loyal to his king, and highly serviceable to his country.

WILLIAM FITZWILLIAMS,
EARL OF SOUTHAMPTON.

WILLIAM FITZWILLIAMS sprang from William Fitzgodric, who flourished in the time of Henry II. His son Thomas changed Godric for Williams, and thus, in lieu of Fitzgodric, became Fitzwilliams. A descendant of this house was city recorder during the short reign of Edward V. An anecdote is related of this Fitzwilliams truly honourable to his character, and which reflects no small credit on his progeny. When Buckingham had convened the citizens of London at Guildhall, in order to sound them relative to the usurpation of Richard III. and in hopes they would declare for the tyrant, he found that eloquence to which he had trusted entirely lost on the obdurate honesty of the Londoners. No shout of "God save king Richard!" no testimony of popular approbation crowned his artful harangue; unless the silence which so awfully prevailed might be taken for consent. Turning about to the mayor, he asked him the reason of this silence. "Perhaps (said the mayor) they do not understand your grace." Buckingham renewed his eloquence, and was again as silently received. "I now see (said the mayor) the cause: the citizens are not accustomed to be harangued by any but their recorder, and know not how to answer a person of

your grace's quality." The recorder Fitzwilliams was then commanded to urge the principal topics upon which Buckingham had in vain expatiated. But as Fitzwilliams felt heartily inimical to the business, he performed his office with such reluctance, and took such pains to inform the people that what he said proceeded not from himself, but from the duke, that his grace found himself compelled anew to address the multitude, which he did in concise and plain terms: but the citizens persevered in their disaffection to Richard: a few apprentices were at last incited to join Gloucester's servants in the feeble and despicable cry "God save king Richard!" And Buckingham declared, that the favour of the nation was now manifested towards the person of Richard III. late duke of Gloucester.

Sir Thomas Fitzwilliams married Lucia, daughter and co-heir to Nevil, marquis Montacute, by whom he had two sons, Thomas, slain at the battle of Flodden; and this William, who became earl of Southampton. As Willam was a younger son, he began early to reflect on circumstances which unavoidably impelled him to activity; and he chose the naval service, as the fairest and most certain method of raising himself into favour and fortune. Important changes had recently been made in this profession. Whatever were the defects of Henry VIII. his attention to the naval interests of his country entitle him to the gratitude of every Englishman. He was the first of our princes who can be said to have instituted a ROYAL NAVY; for though his father, Henry VII. paid singular attention to this important concern, and such as fairly procured to him the honourable applauses of posterity, yet it was reserved for the son to have the glory of improving and establishing the great source of our
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safety, riches, and grandeur, the naval superiority of this country. When the Sovereign, the largest ship at that time in our possession, blew up with Knevet, the king instantly repaired the loss, by building *Henry Grace de Dieu*, a ship of still greater magnitude. From the Conquest to this period there was no fixed and permanent naval force: the cinque ports and maritime towns fitted out, upon application, their quota of ships, which, after meeting at a certain rendezvous, ranged under the royal authority. It is not necessary to dwell on the imperfections of this mode of procuring a public navy. Sometimes no force could be procured in any degree adequate to the urgency of the occasion, and that which was obtained often served with reluctance, and without vigour. Sometimes an admiral was self-appointed; at others he was elected by the people; and at another time, he was chosen and constituted by his sovereign. Henry remedied all those evils. He built, or collected, a royal navy; founded a navy-office; fixed salaries for his admirals, vice-admirals, captains, and seamen; so that, by the wisdom of his regulations, and the munificence of his protection, the naval service became a distinct and regular profession, and has ever since been furnished with an illustrious series of officers.

There is abundant reason for believing that sir William Fitzwilliams began his career of glory at an early period of his life, though no histories now mention the nature of his youthful exploits. In 1511, near the commencement of the reign of Henry VIII. he was appointed one of the esquires of the king's body. He was soon afterwards in the engagement off Brest, where he received a dangerous wound; but this accident did not prevent him

him from assisting the siege of Tournay. In acknowledgment of his merits, Henry conferred on him the honour of knighthood.

In the spring of 1522 sir William acquired the station of vice-admiral, and putting to sea, retrieved the losses of the merchants upon the French. He performed a service of the same nature early in the next season. This conduct highly ingratiated him with the mercantile world; nor was his royal master less sensible of the abilities and exertions of the vice-admiral, for he obtained of Henry, in the course of 1521, large grants of those estates forfeited to the crown by the attainder of the duke of Buckingham. Hitherto success attended his operations, and if alacrity in preparation, and vigour and understanding in executing the commands of his country, could insure a prosperous issue, sir William had never failed of the fullest extent of the designs entrusted to his conduct.

He had recently returned from an embassy into France, when he received orders to afford the accustomed protection to our trade, to molest the enemy, but particularly to way-lay the duke of Albany, who was daily expected to pass with French succours to Scotland. Commerce found no reason to lament a misplaced confidence in her gallant friend the vice admiral, and it is much to be regretted that he experienced not that good fortune in intercepting Albany which ever attended him in his exertions to protect the valuable acquisitions of trade. The fleet assigned him for this service, consisted of but eight-and-twenty sail. With these he had, however, the satisfaction of chasing twelve Frenchmen, which formed a part of Albany's fleet, and had a number

of the great Scottish nobility on board, into Dieppe, with the loss of two of their squadron. The duke meanwhile, seeing it impossible to attempt his passage while Fitzwilliams was at sea, feigned to relinquish his design, throwing his troops into quarters, and dispersing the transports. Unhappily this stratagem succeeded too well with the English commander. The vice-admiral, having scoured the French coasts, and secured considerable booty, returned home; while Albany putting to sea, about the middle of September 1523, escaped to the place of his destination.

During the year following, 1524, sir William was preferred to be captain of Guines castle, in Picardy, and in the course of the same year appointed treasurer of the king's household. One circumstance will place in a convincing light the interest that he had gained with the king. Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, said in the house of lords, "That nothing now would serve with the commons but the ruin of the church." Both the king and the commons were much offended by the bishop's observation; but Fitzwilliams, who alone possessed great influence with the parties offended, found means to mediate the quarrel.

In 1537, on returning from another French embassy, in which he had conducted matters in a manner peculiarly acceptable to Henry, he was raised to the dignity of admiral of England: he already held the offices of treasurer of the household, and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster; he was, besides, knight of the garter. Henry did not here pause in his favour towards him: he was shortly after created earl of Southampton, and made lord privy seal. He appears to have been one of the first seamen raised to the honours of the peerage.

In 1539 the earl of Southampton was sent with a fleet of fifty sail, to bring home the princess Ann of Cleves, to whom Henry was married; January the 6th, 1540.

His constitution was now evidently broken; he even made a will, whereby he bequeathed the king his best collar of the garter, and his rich George set with diamonds; yet the continual intimations that he felt of his approaching dissolution could not damp the accustomed ardour of his disposition.

“Age had not quench'd one spark of manly fire.”

He was not to be restrained from participating in the war which broke out between England and Scotland in 1542. But having accompanied the duke of Norfolk as far as Newcastle, overcome by the fatigue, he could proceed no more. The duke commanded his banner to be borne, as it had hitherto been, in the front of the army, during the remainder of the expedition.

Fitzwilliams had no issue by his countess Mabel, daughter of lord Clifford, and sister to Henry, the first earl of Cumberland. He left, however, an illegitimate son, Thomas, who assumed the name of Fitzwilliams, *alias* Fisher.

J O H N D U D L E Y,

VISCOUNT LISLE, &c.

JOHN DUDLEY, afterwards, successively, viscount Lisle, earl of Warwick, duke of Northumberland, and lord high Admiral, was elder son of the memorable Edmund Dudley, co-partner with Empson, during the latter years of Henry VII. These ministers, by their assiduity in the service of Henry VII. incurred that popular resentment to which they were politically sacrificed under the reign of his successor. In the third year of Henry VIII. one year after his father's execution, young Dudley was, however, restored to the blood and estates of the attainted parent. John was about eight years of age when, on the petition of his guardian, Edward Guildford, esq. this restitution took place.

He was knighted in 1494; in 1535 he was appointed master of the tower armoury; and, on the arrival of Ann of Cleves in 1539, he was made master of the horse to that princess. On the 12th of March, 1543, he was created viscount Lisle. In the course of the same year Henry VIII. conferred on him the rank of lord high admiral.

War being determined on against Scotland in 1544, the earl of Hertford, assisted by the lord admiral, was ordered to invade that realm. Lisle sailed with one hundred

dred ships from Newcastle to Leith, where he disembarked the troops early in May. The land forces effected great devastation, and then retreated securely to Berwick, while the admiral burnt Leith, and ravaged the Scottish coasts.

But, as Henry's projects required this force in another direction, peace was soon granted the Scots, and Lisle instructed to attend the operations of the war with France. The duke of Suffolk had lain siege to Boulogne; the reduction of this place seemed important; and the admiral therefore hastened to accelerate its capture. Long invested by superior forces on the land, and now blocked up by the English commander at sea, Boulogne surrendered September 14, 1544.

The king of France could not submit tamely to this defeat. He collected a powerful navy, which, under the orders of D'Annebault, his admiral, and aided by five and twenty gallies from the Mediterranean, commanded by Paulin; baron de la Garde, sailed for the English coasts. Francis, unremittingly employed in concerting the recovery of Boulogne, determined, till the requisite preparations were accomplished, that his fleets should make some attempts on the British shores as some return for the loss of that fortress. Just as this force was about to proceed on its destination, the admiral's ship blew up*; this accident, according to the fu-

* This ship, called the Carracon, had (according to Bellay) 100 large brass cannon on board: but they must have been very small, when proportioned to what are now distinguished by that appellation, as he allows that the Carracon was only of eight hundred tons burden. Yet, it is equally clear that she was the stoutest ship of the French navy. A contemporary writer assures us, that she appeared like a castle among the other ships of the fleet, and that she had nothing to fear at sea but fire and rocks.

perfitious genius of the times, might have been expected to damp the ardour of the French ; but they followed up their designs, apparently undifmayed by the calamity : they met, however, with little fuccefs in the expedition.

The next year, 1546, they refumed their defign upon Boulogne. Lifle, the lord admiral, had been constituted lieutenant of Boulogne, and was left to fecure its defence. In this fituation he bravely contended with the dauphin, who, at the head of 52,000 men, repeatedly affaulted the place. Though the walls were much fhattered, and the French had once effected an entrance, a refolute fally drove them from this laft advantage, with the lofs of 800 of their beft troops. Hearing of their recent vifit to England, he likewise put to fea, and, landing fome forces in Normandy, took ample revenge. Each fide had now grown weary of the conteft : Lifle was therefore empowered to negociate with the French commiffioners of peace ; and a treaty, the refult of this negociation, was concluded between the two nations, near Guifnes, June 7, 1546.

Henry VIII. did not long furvive the termination of his French campaigns. He died on the night of the 28th of January, 1547, leaving the lord admiral, who had attained to great favour, one of his fixteen executors.

The admiral's character had now a full opportunity of displaying itfelf. Finding that Somerfet, young Edward's protector, was deficient in capacity and courage ; that he was weak, credulous, and fufpicious, he foon ingratiated himfelf into the confidence of that minifter, refolving to erect in him the ladder by which he fhould

mount, imperceptibly, to the first offices of government. His present influence and popularity were such as to warrant these gigantic projects. "He was the minion of that time; so as few things he attempted, but he achieved with honour; which made him the more proud and ambitious. Generally, he always increased both in estimation with the king, and authority amongst the nobility." This year, 1547, he was made earl of Warwick, an honour which he claimed by his descent, on the maternal side, from Margaret, elder daughter and co-heir of Richard Beauchamp earl of Warwick. Nearly at the same time he was appointed to the trust of lord high chamberlain. With his title he also obtained the grant of Warwick castle, and of the annexed lands.

War with Scotland, and a rebellion in Norfolk, are amongst the leading features of the first years of the reign of Edward VI. and from both these events did Warwick reap a new accession to his power. On the reduction of Ket's insurrection, he was again made lord admiral; and in 1550, the year following, as a farther recompence of his services, he was advanced to be steward of the household. Such a quick accumulation of honours and riches only extended the views of their possessor. He is accused of having set no bounds to his thirst after power, and of having paused in no step that might terminate in the gratification of his desires. To Warwick are attributed the beginnings and progress of that contention between the protector and his brother, which ended in the destruction of lord Thomas Seymour. And to him is also assigned the subsequent ruin of the protector. Such, in truth, appears to have been the nature of his proceedings,

proceedings, that they cannot be justified even by the most refined policy.

His intrigues were, however, interspersed with actions of a more estimable kind. During the prosecution of these political designs, he discharged several situations of importance with his accustomed ability and success; and his rewards kept pace with his merits. On the 20th of April, 1551, he was constituted earl marshal; and on the 11th of October, the same year, created duke of Northumberland.

The schemes so long in preparation took at length their destined effect. Somerset, the protector, was arraigned, tried, and condemned of various treasonable intentions towards the young monarch, and immediately beheaded on tower hill. But Edward did not long survive these tumultuous transactions. It has been asserted, and it is probably true, that he never forgave himself the consenting to the execution of his uncle, the protector; and that the impression of this event, on his young and feeling mind, accelerated his end. Northumberland watched the declining days of this amiable prince, with an anxiety proportioned to the use that he designed to make of his demise. When Edward's fate became no longer doubtful, he married his fourth son, Guilford Dudley, to lady Jane Grey, elder daughter of Henry duke of Suffolk by Frances, daughter to Mary, second sister to Henry VIII. But the measure remained yet imperfect, unless Mary, the lineal successor of Edward, were secured. The princess was then at some distance from court; and her dying brother was induced to write to her, and request her attendance in his sickness.

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She accordingly made preparations to that effect, and had almost reached London, when she was informed of the real intention of the king's friends.

Edward now breathed his last; and the lady Jane was proclaimed queen. Mary, mean time, warned of the plans of her adversaries, was not less active in procuring adherents. Norwich first recognized and asserted her rights, and was speedily supported in this measure by the counties of Buckingham and Northumberland. The earl, who advanced hostilely to meet Mary, was soon induced, by the coldness of his followers and the increase of his foes, to abandon all hope of supporting his daughter-in-law, the lady Jane. He returned to Cambridge, where, attended by the mayor and the earl of Northampton, though destitute of herald or trumpet, he proclaimed queen Mary in the market place, throwing up his cap in token of his extreme joy, and in expectation of reconciling himself to his rightful sovereign. This fervility very deservedly procured him no favour in the eyes of Mary. He was the next day arrested; then tried; and executed on tower hill, August 22, 1553. His remains were interred in the tower church by John Cock, an old servant, whose gratitude induced him to petition Mary for his master's body, that he might make some return to his lord, dead, from whom he had received so many favours, while living.

At the place of execution Northumberland made ample confession of his attachment to the catholic cause. "He acknowledged himself guilty; and, craving pardon for his insatiable ambition, admonished the people, that they should embrace the religion of their forefathers, rejecting

rejecting that of later date—which had occasioned all the miseries of the forepassed thirty years. And, for prevention for the future, if they desired to present their souls unspotted to God, and were truly affected to their country, they should expel those trumpeters of sedition, the preachers of the reformed religion. As to himself, whatsoever he might have pretended, his conscience was fraught with the religion of his fathers;—but, being blinded by ambition, he had been contented to make wreck of his conscience, by temporising; for which he professed himself sincerely repentant, and acknowledged the justice of his death.” The circumstance which he assigned as having prompted him to countenance the reformation, is too light to merit any serious degree of credit: he told sir Anthony Brown, afterwards viscount Montague, *that, albeit he knew the Romish religion to be true, yet, seeing a new religion was begun, run dog, run devil, he would go forward.*

Perhaps it may not be difficult to appreciate the character of Dudley. To a great portion of personal bravery he certainly has an equitable claim; nor were his talents as a statesman of an inferior description: but these advantages were wholly counteracted by his unlimited ambition; a passion whose nature it is not to see, or perceiving, to slight the obstacles which would rationally present themselves to the attainment of its favourite views. Another important defect in the temper of this great personage must not be overlooked. There are those who never are known to sink under adversity; and who are always concerned that the means by which they endeavour to regain their ascendancy should

be worthy of the object to be retrieved, and compatible with the dignity of their aims. Herein was Dudley most culpably deficient.—How pitiful were the arts by which he ruined the Seymours; and how wretched and contemptible was the device by which he essayed to conciliate himself with Mary!

THOMAS LORD SEYMOUR

OF SUDLEY,

LORD HIGH ADMIRAL.

THE Seymours, so conspicuous in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. were descendants of sir Roger Seymour of Wiltshire: Thomas of Sudley was younger son of sir John Seymour, knight, and brother to Seymour duke of Somerset, protector, during the minority of Edward VI.

Thomas stood high in the favour of Henry VIII. towards the decline of whose reign he attended the succours sent to the emperor, and was in the same year constituted master of the ordnance for life. In the 38 of Henry VIII. he was knight marshal of the forces employed at that time in France under the earl of Hertford. On the demise of Henry VIII. his name is also found among the number who were nominated by that monarch to assist and advise with the executors appointed to superintend the education of the prince, and to conduct the government till he should attain to years of maturity.

But a greater accession of honour was intended him by Henry VIII. It appearing from the evidence of those who were intimately acquainted with the mind of the deceased king, that Henry really had it in contemplation

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THO.^o LORD SEYMOUR of SUDLEY

From the Collection of the R.^t Hon.^e the Marquis of Bath

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to confer on Thomas the dignity of a baron of the realm ; he was, on the 16th of February, 1547, created lord Seymour of Sudley, by the new administration ; and to this advancement almost immediately followed the post of lord high admiral.

Great wisdom and providence characterize the final dispositions of Henry VIII. such attention and such foresight as might be justly expected of a prince whose reign was distinguished by firmness and vigour ; and, with all its violences and stretches of power, by a singular and very beneficial attention to the improvement and prosperity of the subject. His unwearied occupation in naval concerns, has been the subject of sincere admiration : and with undiminished satisfaction we can likewise dwell upon his application to objects of internal strength, utility, and riches. The laws made in his time, for facilitating and supporting inland navigation ; his solicitude for the augmentation and stability of the hemp manufactures ; the munificence with which he expended, from his own coffers, between sixty and seventy thousand pounds in building a new pier at Dover ; the fortresses which he erected in every part of his dominions for the protection of his navy, and the security of his people ; and, above all, his founding those two cradles of the British marine, the royal yards of Woolwich and Deptford, constituting and establishing at Deptford the noble fraternity of the Trinity : these actions, collectively, evince so true an attachment to the interests of his country as balance many of his vices, and must for ever entitle him to the gratitude and esteem of Englishmen.

An union betwixt England and Scotland had been one of Henry's most favourite schemes ; he cherished it

with a sollicitude worthy of its objects, and recommended it to the investigation and pursuit of those who were designated to guide the councils of his infant son. This recommendation became, accordingly, a leading subject in the consideration of Edward's ministers: many overtures were made on their part, towards the desired end, in all which it was uniformly proposed, that a matrimonial contract should be instantly completed between Mary, the young queen of Scots, and Edward; but, lest these offers should not, unless urged by more pressing considerations, obtain the notice of the Scottish court, the protector prepared himself with a force fully adequate to establish his sovereign's claim to the territories of the princess. He collected a fine army, 16,000 strong, to which the lord admiral, Somerset's brother, added the equipment of a powerful and well-appointed fleet. As the Scots persisted in refusing the proffered alliance, a decisive engagement ensued, in which, on September 10, 1547, the enemy were defeated, leaving 14,000 dead on the field, and 8000 of their nobility and gentry prisoners. The next year the lord admiral with a stout fleet sailed about the coasts of Scotland, to prevent the enemy from repairing their harbours, and to effect additional depredations; to this end he made two descents, in both which he now proved unsuccessful; and as Mary had, meanwhile, escaped into France, and great efforts were there making to obtain assistance in her cause, a peace was sought after by the English, and as soon acceded to by the Scots. It must not, however, be concealed, that the jealousies and quarrels of the protector and the admiral operated more effectually in favour of Scotland than any dread excited in the English,
from

from their late check, or by the threatening language of France. To understand the nature of dissensions so fatal to the prosperity of the public, it will be necessary to estimate the characters of these eminent individuals.

The protector was easy, generous, placable, yet extremely irritable. The admiral possessed a lofty spirit, was impatient of a superior, and indignant against those who gained favours which he considered as unmerited. Both were hasty; when moved to anger, careless of what they said, or to whom they communicated their discontents; and there were never wanting those who lay in wait to avail themselves of these errors. Somerset was more in favour with the people; Seymour more respected by the nobles. These contrarieties, sufficient in themselves to create serious differences between the brothers, were yet heightened by additional aggravations. The admiral had early paid his court to Elizabeth, afterwards queen of England, on whose young heart it is thought he made no transient impression; for his person was stately, his manners were accomplished and imposing, and his voice sonorous, which heightened the effect of his appearance; and he enjoyed the reputation of great courage. But the protector becoming alarmed at this procedure of the admiral, interposed, and obliged him to seek another wife: thus necessitated to forego his views, he married Catherine Par, queen dowager of Henry VIII. a lady endowed with too many virtues and graces for her husband's peace.

Somerset had betrothed himself to Anne Stanhope, daughter of sir Edward Stanhope, a woman exactly the reverse of Catherine. She easily conceived a deadly hatred to the admiral's lady, who, besides her great compa-

rative superiority both of heart and mind, enjoyed the conspicuous advantage of precedency at court. As the effects of this malicious spirit could not be wreaked on Catherine, they were easily transferred to the admiral. Catherine died shortly after in childbed; but never could Anne rest, till, goaded on by Northumberland, she brought the admiral to the block.

Unhappily the conduct of this nobleman but too well countenanced the suggestions of his enemy. He was instigated to intrigue against his brother; and renewed his addresses to Elizabeth. Such movements roused all the caution of the protector; Seymour was deprived of his admiralship, and committed to the tower. Here he uniformly repulsed his brother's conciliatory advances; desiring to see the nature of his accusation, and demanding a trial.

The parliament by whom his attainder was passed, accused him of attempting to get the person of the king into his custody, with the view of governing the realm; of making suspicious provision of money and victual; of endeavouring to marry the lady Elizabeth, the king's sister; and persuading Edward, in his tender age, to assume the rule and ordering of himself.—Such, amongst much frivolous matter, are the principal grounds upon which, unsupported by any regular evidence, the parliament passed the bill of attainder against Seymour, March 1549. Their sentence was carried into execution on the 20th of the same month.

How far the accusations are countenanced by events, the reader will, perhaps, determine. On the scaffold, Seymour protested, *that, he never willingly did, either actually endeavour, or seriously intend, any thing against*

the person of the king, or the state. As he was not permitted to answer his accusers, these protestations, when coupled with the general frankness of his life, procured general belief, and excited a proportionate disgust against the protector.

He left no offspring.

Amidst the din of these wretched cabals, the general interests of the community were not wholly disregarded. In 1548 an act was passed for laying the Newfoundland trade entirely open; and Smith, Edward's agent at Antwerp, in settling some mercantile transactions, assured the emperor's commissioners, that *his master would support the commerce of his subjects, at the hazard of any monarch's friendship upon earth.* On another occasion, Edward very graciously received a memorial, wherein certain methods were enumerated of encouraging and increasing the number of seamen in his dominions, also of preventing the carrying on of English trade in foreign bottoms. Great hopes were formed of this good prince, founded on the many excellencies that distinguished his government, but he did not live to realize the fond anticipations of his subjects.

JOHN LORD RUSSELL,

AFTERWARDS DUKE OF BEDFORD,

LORD ADMIRAL.

THE Ruffells were originally of Dorsetshire, and are a family of great antiquity. John lord Ruffel, afterwards duke of Bedford, resided near Bridport; he was a person of great genius and learning, and became the founder of that honour which so eminently distinguished his descendants. The circumstance that immediately effected his rise, evinces as much of what is usually termed fortune, as can well fall to the lot of an individual. When Philip of Austria, driven on our coasts, landed at Weymouth, sir Thomas Trenchard, a wealthy knight, who resided in those parts, wishing to give the best possible entertainment to his royal guest, till he could inform the court of the event, sent for lord Ruffell. Ruffell was nearly related to sir Thomas, and, being but recently arrived from his travels, was esteemed by his worthy relative a fit character to contribute to the amusement of the illustrious stranger. Philip knew how to estimate worth; and he so much admired that of Ruffell, as to solicit his company to Windsor, and to recommend him, on their arrival there, to the notice and advancement of Henry VII.

The

The decease of Henry VII. which happened soon after, formed no bar to the prosperity of Russell. In 1515 he accompanied Henry VIII. in his French expedition, where he personally attended the king, as one of the gentlemen of his privy chamber. His services were rewarded in 1524 with the marshalsea of the royal household.

In the year following his employments were various; sometimes attending Henry in his irruptions into France, and sometimes entrusted with embassies of the first moment. Between 1534 and 1539, he was principally in Italy. During the last of those years he was made comptroller of the king's household, and one of the privy council; he also shared largely in the distribution of church lands in 1540. In 1541 he succeeded Fitzwilliams, earl of Southampton, in the dignity of admiral of England, Ireland, Wales, Normandy, Gascoigne, and Aquitain, and in this capacity he passed over into France, together with Fitzwilliams, who was on that occasion appointed lord privy seal.

Fitzwilliams dying shortly after, the admiral was made privy seal; and again employed, 1545, in France, where he sustained a principal part in the capture of Boulogne, being captain general of the vanguard of the army occupied in that expedition. Such was Henry's confidence in Russell, that he named him one of his executors.

Preparations were now making for the coronation of the young prince, and as it was intended that the ceremony should be brilliant, Russell was appointed lord high steward on the 17th of February, 1547, three days antecedent to its performance.

Religious contentions, which had raged to a great height under Henry VIII. were rather increased by the first proceedings of the new government. In Devonshire some priests turned an insurrection on common grievances to their own account; and the insurgents became formidable enough to draw the attention of the council, who dispatched lord Russell to repress them. For some days he was held at bay by the rebels, but succeeded at length in completing the full object of his appointment. He was hereupon advanced to a new dignity, being created duke of Bedford, January 19, 1549. The politics of the day now engaged his attention, and perceiving the despondency of the protector, he went over to the Northumberland interest.

Bedford was so fortunate as to acquire under Mary a confidence and prosperity not inferior to what he had enjoyed during the reign of her predecessor. When the matrimonial articles were adjusted between this princess and Philip of Spain, the honour of escorting the prince from the Spanish territories into England was entrusted to the duke of Bedford; and when, in 1554, the discontents to which this marriage gave birth, burst out into open opposition, Bedford being again dispatched towards Devonshire, succeeded in quelling sir Peter Carew, nearly on the same spot where he formerly had subdued a portion of those religious tumults which distracted the reign of his late sovereign.

He died soon after the reduction of those insurgents; about the 14th of March the same year, at his house near the Savoy in the Strand, and was buried at his seat in Buckinghamshire.

AGAIN the course of biographical narration is suspended to pursue that spirit of adventurous discovery, which originated in the times of Henry VII and from which the most important consequences have resulted to succeeding ages.

The general propensity of the times towards voyages of discovery, but particularly the history of the Cabots, incited in the breasts of the English merchant an inextinguishable desire for adventures of this description. THORNE, the friend and intimate of Sebastian Cabot, stands foremost in the ranks of illustrious individuals whose talents were thus exerted for the service of their country. In 1527 he addressed himself to Henry VIII. on the subject of a discovery which he proposed to pursue even to the north pole; enumerating, at the same time, the advantages which were derived by the Portuguese and the emperor from colonial possessions, and enforcing his projected discovery by much plausible reasoning. Impressed with a high opinion of Thorne's abilities, Henry readily acceded to his wishes; and ordered that two ships, well manned and victualled, should be equipped for the expedition. On the 20th of May, 1527, Thorne left England, accompanied by several persons of property and distinction, steering his course full north-west. But the issue proved extremely unpropitious. One of the ships was cast away near Newfoundland; and the other, after vainly, though ably, endeavouring to ascertain the great object of its sailing, a north-west passage, returned home in the commencement of October in the same year. This voyage was

P 4

undertaken

undertaken during the life-time of Sebastian Cabot, and while that spirited navigator was employed, on behalf of some Spanish merchants, in the expedition to the Moluccas. Mr. Thorne lived to be afterwards mayor of Bristol, and to enjoy, for a long time, the uninterrupted confidence of his friend Sebastian Cabot. He died full of years, and full of honour, and lies buried in the Temple church.

Mr. WILLIAM HAWKINS, father of sir John Hawkins, knight, is also distinguished in the list of early naval adventurers. Anxious to outdo the generality of his competitors in this new path to fortune and renown, he fitted out, in 1530, a ship of two hundred and fifty tons burden, which he denominated the Paul of Plymouth. He made three voyages to the coast of Brazil, touching also on that of Guinea; here he traded in slaves, gold, and elephants' teeth. Such was his unexampled success in ingratiating himself with savages, that, on his second voyage, one of the Brasilian kings consented to return with him to England; Hawkins leaving, as a security for his own conduct, Martin Cockram of Plymouth, with the natives. Of this savage monarch, who was presented at court on his arrival, Hackluyt has preserved a description at once natural and attractive. "In his cheeks," he says, "were holes, made according to the savage manner, and therein small bones were planted, standing an inch out from the holes; which, in his country, was looked on as a great bravery. He had another hole in his lower lip, wherein was set a precious stone about the bigness of a pea. All his apparel, behaviour, and gesture, were very strange to the beholders." Having stayed in England about

twelve months, he embarked for his return; but unfortunately died on the passage. Serious apprehensions began now to be entertained of the manner in which his countrymen might feel this event; and poor Cockram was given over. It must be owned that the conduct of these savages was as magnanimous as it was unexpected: they never questioned the veracity of the English, in accounting for the death of the prince; but restored Cockram, furnished Hawkins with the usual articles of barter, and then permitted him to depart in strict amity. These voyages opened the channel of the rich and extensive commerce that has since been carried on in those parts. Hawkins was much esteemed by his sovereign, Henry VII. and filled the office of principal sea-captain in the west of England: he was a skilful seaman, and a person of great wisdom, prudence, valour, and intrepidity.

To the enterprizes of Hawkins, succeeded, in 1536, the meritorious, but disastrous, adventures of Mr. HORE. This gentleman, whose great mercantile character, and whose personal reputation and influence had the most extensive effects, incited, by his discourses on the advantages of discoveries in North America, no less than thirty gentlemen of family and property to an invincible desire of participating in his fortunes. With two ships, the Trinity, of one hundred and forty tons, and the Minion, of less burden, which were equipped at their own expence, they sailed from Gravesend, April 30, 1536, carrying about one hundred and twenty persons. Hore commanded the Trinity.

Unobstructed by any accident of consequence, they reached the Newfoundland coasts, but while here intent upon

upon discovery, were reduced to the dreadful necessity of killing and eating their companions. At length, when the remaining crew were on the point of being all starved, a French ship arrived, well furnished. They instantly mastered the Frenchman, and returned therein to England; yet in such a miserable plight, though they had not been out above seven months, that sir William Butts and his lady could only recognize their son, who was one of the company, by an extraordinary wart on his knee. The French arriving afterwards, made a considerable clamour about the injuries which they had experienced at the hands of our countrymen. Henry made due inquisition into the particulars; and learning, in the course of this inquiry, the misery of his brave subjects, generously satisfied the French from his own purse, and promoted several of those who had escaped the general destruction which had attended the voyage. Hackluyt rode two hundred miles, to learn from the mouth of Mr. Butts, at that time the sole survivor of those who had made this voyage, the particulars of the event.

Though Hawkins touched at Guinea, the traffic which he established was with Brasil. Mr. THOMAS WINDHAM, whose undertakings come next in review, must be considered as the first Englishman who in reality traded on the Guinea coast. Windham performed his three voyages to Guinea in the reign of Edward VI. Of the first of these excursions, we know only that it took place in 1551; of the next, in 1552, we learn no more than that, with three sail, he visited Zaphin, or Saphia, and Santa Cruz, whence he brought sugar, dates, almonds, and molasses. His third voyage, achieved in 1553, is more particularly, though not sufficiently detailed. He sailed from Portsmouth, with

with three ships, in conjunction with Anthony Anes Pintado, a Portuguese, who was the promoter of the measure. They traded for gold along the coast of Guinea, and proceeded as far as Benin. At the last place they were promised a lading of pepper. But here the commander, and most of the men, fell victims to the climate; and the remainder, thus reduced to forty persons, returned to Plymouth, with one ship and little wealth.

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SIR HUGH WILLOUGHBY, KNIGHT,

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four returned to Plymouth with one ship and little
wealth.

THIS commander is descended of the ancient line of
the Willoughbys of Eresby and Parham, and is distin-
guished as the conductor of that expedition which pro-
duced the important discovery of the trade to Archangel.

Sebastian Cabot must be considered as the original
projector, since, in 1551, it was he who offered proposals
to the king for the discovery of a north-east passage to
China and the Indies. It was at first intended that the
adventure should be prosecuted at the public expence,
but on conferring with some merchants, who evinced
a promptitude to undertake it for themselves, Cabot re-
linquished his prior method; and three new ships, the
Bona Esperanza, one hundred and twenty tons, com-
manded by Willoughby; the Edward Bonaventure,
one hundred and sixty tons, Captain Chancellor; and
the Bona Confidentia, of ninety tons, Cornelius Dur-
forth master, were equipped by the joint stock of the
society, which amounted to six thousand pounds. The
money was raised by shares of twenty-five pounds each
member, a sum that entitled its subscriber to all the be-
nefits which might accrue from the voyage, the pro-
prietors of which were distinguished as a SOCIETY
ERECTED FOR THE DISCOVERY OF NEW LANDS.

Empowered

Empowered by the king's letters * recommendatory, and instructed by Cabot †, they sailed from Ratcliffe on May the 10th, 1553, and reached Gravesend by the 18th of the same month, though it was June the 23d before they entirely cleared our coasts.

Much was expected from the issue of this engagement. The admiral, Sir Hugh Willoughby, possessed

* Edward the sixth directs these letters particularly "to the kings, princes, and other potentates inhabiting the north-east parts of the world, towards the mighty empire of Cathay; and then to all others, having any excellent dignity under the universal heaven; wishing to them peace and tranquillity and honour." He next vindicates the adventurers—"forasmuch as the great and almighty God hath given unto mankind above all other living creatures such a heart and desire, that every man covets to join friendship with others, to love and be loved, also to give and receive benefits, it is therefore the duty of all men, according to their power, to maintain and increase this desire; and especially to shew this good affection to such as being therewith moved, come unto them from far countries." As a further mark of the approbation of Providence towards such pursuits, it is observed, "the God of heaven and earth, greatly providing for mankind, would not that all things should be found in one region, to the end that one should have need of another; by which means friendship might be established among all men, and every one seek to gratify all." He therefore empowers these adventurers, his subjects, "to seek such things as we lack, as also to carry unto them from our regions, such things as they lack." He concludes with solemn assurances that strangers shall be amicably received into his dominions, as he expects, on the part of strangers, a like deportment towards his own people. This document was written in Latin, Greek, and various other languages.

† Cabot's paper is termed "Ordinances, Instructions, and Advertisements, of and for the direction of the intended voyage to Carthay, compiled, made, and delivered by the right worshipful Sebastian Cabot, Esq. governor of the mystery and company of the merchant adventurers, for the discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown; May the 9th, in the year of our Lord 1553, and in the 7th of the reign of our most dread sovereign lord Edward VI. &c. &c." He appointed a council of twelve, formed of the admiral, his four officers, the chaplain, one gentleman, two merchants, and three masters' mates, to regulate the proceedings of the voyage.

all the leading qualifications of a good commander; honourable in family; of tried wisdom, great experience, and unyielding fortitude.

This little fleet kept tolerably together till the 2nd of August, 1553, on the night of which they were unfortunately separated through the violence of the wind and the thickness of the fog, near the north cape. The Edward, captain Chancellor, was the vessel from which they were divided. They experienced afterwards only a series of disasters on the coast of Greenland, which was discovered early in the morning of the 14th. On the 18th of September they entered a haven, wherein they agreed to winter; and dispatched men in all directions, up the country, to seek out its inhabitants. No inhabitants, except wild beasts, were, however, to be found; and in this dismal situation they lived beyond January 1554, when the ships were closed in by the ice, and their crews frozen to death: in this state they were discovered the next summer, by some Russian fishermen who repaired to the spot, the original journal of sir Hugh, from whence most of these particulars are derived, laying open before him. Captain Chancellor, happily escaping this fate, entered the river St. Nicholas, where he was amicably received, and had, soon after, access to John Basilowitz, great duke of Muscovy, by which was opened to us the communication with that country.

SIR WILLIAM WINTER, KNIGHT,
 VICE ADMIRAL.

THE memoirs to be collected of sir William Winter are merely historical. Though a valiant and worthy man, and one much distinguished by his exertions in his country's cause, for all that now can be accurately ascertained of him we must look in the pages of public events.

Edward's minority, embroiled, as it seemed, with the Scottish court, was deemed by France a propitious time for attempting to wrest away the few of her original possessions still held by the English. Upon this principle, without the least previous intimation of their hostility, they had recaptured Bologne, and were now intent on the acquisition of Jersey and Guernsey. But as the eyes of administration could no longer be shut to the designs of the ancient enemy, especially when in possession of timely information of his inimical intentions, commodore Winter was dispatched with a few vessels, and eight hundred men in transports, to the relief of the islands. He found the enemy prepared to receive him; they had blocked up the ports with a very superior force. Undismayed by these circumstances, he resolved to attack them, and executed this resolution with such skill and vigour, that, having killed near
 a thousand

a thousand of their number, he compelled the residue to embark on board some light vessels, in which they precipitately fled, abandoning their ships, which were set on fire by Winter's orders. The defeat so chagrined the French, that they forbade any particular mention of it under penalty of death. It was effected in 1549.

Early in the reign of Mary, commodore Winter was employed with a stout squadron to bring over the ambassadors sent by Charles V. to conclude the marriage of the queen with Philip. The emperor presented the English commander with a very handsome gold chain on his arrival at Ostend, a present which had nearly proved fatal to its owner; for shewing it to sir Nicholas Throckmorton, that gentleman, after musing over it a few moments, said to Winter, "For this gold chain you have sold your country:" the observation getting vent, it almost endangered the lives of the two friends. This is the only transaction recorded of sir William Winter during the government of Mary.

In 1560 he was entrusted by queen Elizabeth with a fleet destined to support the confederate Scots, a body of that nation who leagued themselves against the influence which the French court was insidiously acquiring over their liberties. Sir William appears for the first time, in this expedition, in the character of vice-admiral, and it is certain that he now filled the situation of master of the ordnance.

He sailed up the frith of Forth, blocked up Leith road, where several of the French ships were riding at anchor, and while the land forces under lord Grey were preparing their attack, made himself master of this fleet. In the siege of the town he also materially assisted. It

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was pressed with decisive ardour; the enemy were obliged to capitulate, upon terms perfectly agreeable to Elizabeth, and afterwards to negotiate a peace. The vice-admiral was joined, some time after, with Robert Beale, esq. in a mission to Holland, requiring restitution for certain insults experienced by English individuals at the hands of the Dutch.

The ever memorable armada called anew into exercise the abilities of the veteran, Winter. He commanded the Vanguard, a ship of five hundred tons, carrying two hundred and fifty mariners; and was stationed off Calais, together with lord Henry Seymour, there to await the approaches of the hostile fleet, and also to be in readiness to reinforce the lord admiral, Charles Howard. On the 27th of July, 1588, the Spaniards came to an anchor before Calais, while Howard, instantly joined by Winter and Seymour, anchored likewise not far from the enemy. Sir William Winter sustained a very considerable part in the engagements which ensued: he was ever in the heat of each action, performing feats of the most eminent valour, with the vigour of youth, and the judgment of years.

This is the last of his recorded transactions, and it is probable that death soon afterwards closed his useful and honourable career.

EDWARD
LORD CLINTON AND SAY,
 AFTERWARDS EARL OF LINCOLN,
HIGH ADMIRAL.

THOMAS lord Clinton, the father of Edward, descended of a long line of illustrious ancestors, died of the sweating sickness in 1518, at the early age of twenty-six; leaving his son, who was born about the year 1515, to the inactivity of a long minority. Edward took his seat in the house of Peers in 1537.

In 1545, having previously distinguished himself in the celebrated tournament given by Henry VIII. towards the latter part of his reign, lord Clinton accompanied the earl of Hertford in his irruption into Scotland; he conducted himself so gallantly in this enterprise, that he obtained the honour of knighthood from that commander. During the summer of the same year, he sustained a part in the expedition commanded by viscount Lisle, with increased reputation.

With the commencement of the reign of Edward VI. began also that series of good fortune which continued to favour the exertions of lord Clinton, with augmenting success, during his succeeding years. For the distinction of admiral of the North Sea, the possession of

of

of which at this time he had attained, it is probable that he stood indebted to his first commander, the earl of Hertford, then duke of Somerset, and protector. He was, therefore, entrusted with the effective command of that fleet, so ably equipped by lord Seymour, and destined to assist the operations of the protector against the Scots *. It appears that lord Clinton had before, in the reign of Henry VIII. executed an almost similar commission in the same quarter; carrying off the Salamander and Unicorn, two of the enemy's best ships, and a number of vessels. He now continued in these parts long after the engagement of the 10th of September 1547, and with prosperity far exceeding his former ravages on the Scottish coasts: for he burnt the sea-ports, with the small craft lying in their harbours, and searched every creek, and all the mouths of rivers, with such determined perseverance, that he did not leave one ship of force or burden to that kingdom.

The next year, 1548, lord Clinton was appointed to the government of Boulogne. In 1549 the French, under a young and aspiring prince, Henry II. began the recovery of those parts of their territory still in the hands of the English, by besieging Boulogne. Though every exertion that could be expected of a brave commander, seconded by a resolute garrison, was made to repulse the French, and though some of these valiant efforts succeeded, yet it was found impracticable to hold out beyond the spring of 1550. There exists not a doubt of lord Clinton having honourably and fully exerted himself on this trying occasion; since, though

* The particulars of this expedition are detailed in the life of the lord high admiral Seymour, brother to the protector.

Somerſet, his friend, was accuſed, among other ſtrange charges, of careleſly reſigning Boulogne, Clinton, on the completion of the treaty between France and Scotland and England, was conſtituted lord high admiral for life, and had large grants of land awarded him by the king, in conſideration of his eminent ſervices to the ſtate. On the arrival of the maſhal of France at Graveſend, entrusted with the order of St. Michael for king Edward, lord Clinton conducted him to London.

Mary continued to lord Clinton the truſt of lord high admiral; ſhe alſo inveſted him with the order of the garter; and, in 1558, ſhe commiſſioned him to revenge a loſs that preyed deeply on her heart—the loſs of Calais. With a fleet of one hundred and forty ſail, to which were added thirty of Flemings by king Philip, the lord high admiral put to ſea in July, his great object the reduction of Breſt. Finding the main point of his orders impoſſible to be effected, he landed at Conquet in Brittany, which, together with the abbey of St. Michael, and ſeveral of the adjacent places, were ſacked and burnt. The Engliſh, having executed this retaliation, retired to their ſhips, while the Flemings, not ſo provident, rambled up into the country, and were nearly all cut off in their retreat. But both were deſtined to act a part of yet greater moment. The count d'Egmont, governor of Flanders, advancing towards Gravelines, encountered de Termes, governor of Calais, with an inferior force. Fortunately ſome of the Engliſh ſhips, which were accidentally on the coaſts, hearing the noiſe of cannon, and concluding it to proceed from battle, entered the river near the ſcene of action, and, having ranged in a line with their broad-

ſides

sides towards the French army, they so galled the right wing of the enemy with cannon, that it could no longer stand the tremendous fire. It soon gave way; and, a panic at once seizing the remaining ranks, the victory on the Spanish side became complete: two thousand French were killed on the spot; numbers of them were knocked on the head, by peasants, in retreating; and among numerous prisoners was de Termes himself, wounded. D'Egmont presented the English two hundred of his captives as a recompence for their service, which were carried in triumph to the queen. This engagement was fought on the 3d of July 1558.

Lord Clinton, on the accession of Elizabeth, was peculiarly distinguished by that queen. Very early in her reign she numbered him with her privy council; she afterwards sent him, with the earl of Warwick, against the insurrection of the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland; and, in the 14th of her reign, advanced him to the title of earl of Lincoln. He was then nominated one of the commission for the trial of the duke of Norfolk; and, shortly after this, appointed to treat of the marriage of Elizabeth with the duke of Anjou.

The earl of Lincoln had three wives: Elizabeth, daughter of sir John Blount, widow of Gilbert lord Talboys, and at one time concubine to Henry VIII. Ursula, daughter of William lord Stourton; Elizabeth, daughter of Gerald Fitzgerald, earl of Kildare. He died in the year 1584; and was buried on the south side of the collegiate chapel of St George at Windsor.

LORD WILLIAM HOWARD,

OF EFFINGHAM.

THIS nobleman was the first son of Thomas Howard, duke of Norfolk, by his second marriage with Agnes, daughter of sir Hugh Tilney, and sister and heir to sir Philip Tilney of Lincolnshire.

To lord William Howard were entrusted several eminent embassies during the reign of Henry VIII. who seems, indeed, to have had a genuine attachment towards his family; for though William was arrested by that king's orders, and committed to the tower, on the discovery of the infidelities of Catherine Howard, Henry's fifth queen, and niece to William, yet his confinement was but of short continuance, and bore no kind of proportion to the displeasure which the conduct of his female relative had excited in the breast of the monarch. He was afterwards received into great favour by Edward VI. and made deputy of Calais in 1552.

On the accession of Mary he became yet more successful. That princess, perceiving him to be a person of real valour, and finding that his deportment had ever been characterized by unshaken fidelity to the sovereigns under whose reigns he had flourished, first raised him to
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the dignity of a baron of the realm, by the title of lord Howard of Effingham, March the 11th of 1554; and then, on the 2d of the same month, to the important trust of lord high admiral. He was further advanced, on the 8th of April following, to be lieutenant-general of all her majesty's forces at sea, and also lord chamberlain of the household.

It was the wish of Mary that lord Howard, with the English fleet, should proceed towards Spain, in order to escort over her consort king Philip, and for this end the admiral put to sea; but so high were the discontents of the sailors, when acquainted with the queen's wishes, that it was thought rash any longer to persist in the intention of going in quest of Philip, and the admiral was therefore ordered to cruize about the coasts. Mary's precautions for her husband soon proved to be extremely ridiculous, as Philip shortly after entered the narrow seas with a fleet of one hundred and sixty sail. The Spaniard had the weakness and vanity to carry the Spanish flag in his main top, a circumstance that soon roused all the feelings of the English commander, who immediately saluted him with a shot, and obliged him to take in his colours before he would make his compliments to the prince. Such an action needs not the feeble testimony of individual praise; it is worthy of everlasting remembrance.

Elizabeth, who next ascended the English throne, was too noble not to be affected with the merits of such a commander as lord Howard, and too sagacious to permit any circumstance of religious opinion to deprive her of the services which such abilities were calculated to perform. He was employed on several missions, and

in quelling the insurrection of the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland; and received from her the order of the garter. He presided, during this reign, at the trial of the duke of Norfolk.

He died about the 15th of Elizabeth, and was buried, according to his will, in Ryegate church.

THE unhappy reign of Mary is remembered for few events more than for the loss of Calais, which was recovered by France in January 1558. Thus did we lose, in eight days, a place which had cost Edward III. eleven months siege, and which we had now held two hundred and ten years. Whether Calais were beneficial or injurious to the English, its loss is clearly to be attributed to the queen's marrying Philip of Spain. At any other era the nation would have fired at the report of such success on the part of France, and would have exerted every means in order to arrest the victorious progress of the ancient enemy; but now it was feared to enter into hostilities in which the king of Spain must take part, lest the fortune of the war should by Philip be turned to his own sinister ends.

Two or three voyages of discovery were prosecuted during this short and distracted reign. STEPHEN BURROUGHS was fitted out in order to pursue and perfect the attempt, so unfortunately made by sir Hugh Willoughby, to find a passage by the north to the East Indies; but in this Burroughs also failed, though he passed as far as the straits of Weygatz. In 1555-6
 captain

captain CHANCELLOR made two additional voyages to Russia, on behalf of the Russia company, who were now incorporate, and who had appointed him their grand pilot. He reached Moscow on the eleventh of October 1555, and being admitted to an audience of the czar, obtained to the company those decisive privileges upon which they have since so successfully traded, establishing at the same time that liberal intercourse between Russia and England which has ever been accompanied with the most momentous and salutary effects to both countries. Chancellor effected his third and last voyage in 1566. He was again most courteously received by the czar, who deputed Osep Napea, a person much in the emperor's confidence, with rich presents to Mary and Philip, his ambassador into England. Osep Napea, together with sixteen of his countrymen attendants, embarked for England July the 20th, 1556, on board the Edward Bonaventure, which was laden with goods to the amount of twenty thousand pounds. The Confidenza, the Bona Speranza, and the Philip and Mary, were the ships in company with that on board of which were the Russians and captain Chancellor. They experienced a tempestuous sea; the Confidenza and Bona Speranza were lost, nor did the Philip and Mary arrive in the Thames till the 18th of April 1557. More afflicting than that of the two lost ships was the fate of the Edward Bonaventure; after beating the sea for the space of four months, she arrived, November the 10th, 1556, on the coast of Scotland, where having parted from her anchors, and being driven on the rocks, she split. Captain Chancellor, intent only on saving the life of the ambassador, took him, with as many of his

his

his attendants as he could, into the boat. The boat was thus probably overfet ere it could reach the shore, and Chancellor perished. It was with signal difficulty that the ambassador, with a few of his attendants, were rescued from similar destruction. The ship with her whole cargo, the czar's presents, and the ambassador's baggage, were either lost in the sea or plundered by the inhabitants. As soon as the company were apprized of these events, they deputed two of the body to wait upon Osep Napea, and attend him towards London, within twelve miles of which metropolis he was met on February the 27th, 1557, by eighty merchants, richly attired*, who conducted him to a merchant's house, within four miles of the city. Here his excellency was superbly refitted, at the expence of the Russia company. He entered the city in great state, on February the 28th, and on the 20th of April following had his public audience at court.

The Russian ambassador sailed from Gravesend, on his return, May the 12th, 1557, on board the *Primrose*,

* They all had chains of gold about their necks; their servants also were very numerous, in one uniform livery, and well mounted.

Near the city four merchants presented him with a stately gelding magnificently caparisoned, which he immediately mounted. He was met by the lord viscount Montague, and numbers of the nobility, &c. with the queen's compliments. At Smithfield bars the lord mayor and court of aldermen in their robes waited to receive him; and in this manner was he conducted to apartments provided by the company for his reception in Fenchurch Street.

On the 29th of April, 1557, he was sumptuously entertained by the society at Drapers' hall. And a cup of wine being drank to him in their name, they entreated him that he would permit them to defray all charges, both for his person and attendants, from the hour of his setting foot in Scotland to the time fixed for his departure from Gravesend, the third of May approaching. Such were the honours which distinguished the arrival of the FIRST RUSSIAN AMBASSADOR in England.

commanded by captain Anthony Jenkinson, and in company with the St. John the Evangelist, the Ann, and the Trinity. They reached in safety the bay of St. Nicholas, where they disembarked July the 12th, 1557, and proceeded to Moscow. Captain Jenkinson met with a most grateful reception from the Czar. Jenkinson afterwards penetrated, though with infinite labour, and almost incredible danger, into Bucharia, having traversed the countries bordering on the Caspian sea, and thus became the first discoverer of the Persian trade, by the way of Muscovy.

AMBROSE DUDLEY,

EARL OF WARWICK.

AMBROSE DUDLEY was the third son of the great duke of Northumberland, and came to the title of earl of Warwick on the demise of his brother John, who, attainted with their father, by the parliament held the 1st of Philip and Mary, died in prison soon after, without issue. Ambrose, restored to blood by the clemency of queen Mary, in the 5th of Philip and Mary, soon occupied situations of eminence in the state.

Signally as the favour of Mary was displayed in his restitution, the accession of queen Elizabeth must be nevertheless considered a fortunate circumstance for Warwick. He was, on this event, immediately reinstated in the full patrimony of his ancestors; and experienced, at the hands of the new sovereign, a succession of honours and emoluments. Elizabeth, in 1559, gave him the place of master of the ordnance for life, and, before the close of 1562, he was made captain-general of all her majesty's subjects in Normandy, an appointment of a nature rather singular. The huguenots had long sued for her protection, offering to put the port of Havre de Grace, then called Newhaven, into her hands. She, at length, listened to the wishes and accepted the conditions of this persecuted people.

Warwick

Warwick was dispatched, in September 1562, with a considerable fleet, on board of which were some excellent forces, to the relief of the French protestants. The treachery of the inhabitants of the port, and appearances of a pestilence among the English soldiers, at the moment when they were likely to be closely and vigorously besieged by France, induced Warwick to surrender the town of Havre de Grace, July 29, 1563: but the surrender was made on terms highly honourable to England, and such only as were strictly compatible with the safety of the protestants. While in Havre de Grace, the earl of Warwick received the order of the garter; a pleasing testimonial of his sovereign's attention and approbation.

He seems to have been particularly happy in acquiring the good opinion of Elizabeth; and not less fortunate in confirming what he had so happily acquired. He was made lieutenant-general of the forces which, aided by lord Clinton, were raised to quell the northern disturbances; in 1570, he was appointed chief butler of England; in 1572, admitted to the privy council; he presided, on that year, at the trial of Norfolk; and, in 1586, at that of Mary queen of Scots.

Ambrose earl of Warwick died the 21st of February, 1589, at Bedford House in the suburbs of London, and was buried at Warwick, in a chapel adjoining the collegiate church. He married three wives: Anne, daughter and coheir to William Whorwood, esq. attorney general to Henry VIII. Elizabeth, daughter of sir Gilbert Talboys, knight, and sister and sole heir of George lord Talboys; and Anne, daughter to Francis earl of Bedford, but he had no offspring.

CHARLES HOWARD,

BARON OF EFFINGHAM,

AFTERWARDS EARL OF NOTTINGHAM,

HIGH ADMIRAL.

DEAR to the heart, and proud to the imagination of Englishmen, is the age on which we are entering, the age of Elizabeth; a sovereign who had the spirit to rescue her country from a state of the most humiliating despondency; and who, having succeeded in reviving the ancient temper of her people, established, by her wisdom and firmness, the prosperity to which she had conducted them. Her reign is distinguished by a long list of illustrious naval characters—a Drake, a Howard, a Hawkins, a Raleigh. We open this splendid scene with the life of the High Admiral, in whose history are involved the leading transactions of the English navy during the era of queen Elizabeth.

Charles Howard, baron of Effingham, afterwards earl of Nottingham, and high admiral, was the elder son of Howard earl of Effingham by a second marriage. He was born towards the close of the reign of Henry VIII. in the year 1536. The active situation of his parent, who, as we have seen, was lord admiral to Mary, did not permit

permit the youth of Charles to pass away inefficient and indolent. Charles, on the contrary, served under his father in several expeditions which preceded the accession of Elizabeth. During the first years of her reign he was deputed into France to compliment Charles IX. who had just ascended the throne; and he was, afterwards, a general of horse in the army headed by Warwick against the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. His next service was in the escort of Anne of Austria, daughter of Maximilian the emperor, to the coast of Spain. In 1571 he was chosen to parliament as knight of the shire for the county of Surry; and very soon after succeeded his father in title and estates.

Never did sovereign evince more discretion than was displayed by Elizabeth in the general distribution of honour: her favours were not easily procured, and they were therefore exceedingly prized. She made Charles, now lord Effingham, chamberlain of the household, and, on the 24th of April 1573, a knight of the garter. On the death of the earl of Lincoln, in 1585, the queen immediately determined to raise lord Effingham to the post of high admiral. To this office he came with the unanimous approbation of the people, and highly to the gratification of the seamen, by whom he was greatly esteemed.

Philip of Spain, the husband of Mary, in vain exerted his arts to acquire that ascendancy with Elizabeth which he had formerly gained over her credulous and infatuated sister. He wished also to become the husband of Elizabeth, but his proposals were uniformly rejected. No doubt this disappointment not a little heightened his dislike of the English; and at length urged him, among
many

many powerful political considerations, to the efforts which he made for the subversion and destruction of the country. Elizabeth, always vigilant, soon penetrated the dreadful scheme. As early as 1574, there is not any thing more frequent in our annals than instructions for viewing fortifications; for inquiring into the condition of the militia; taking frequent musters; and, indeed, for instituting every kind of examination into the strength and extent of the national resources. It appears, by this inquisition, that the serviceable men throughout England were computed at 182,929; of whom, such as were armed, and in a capacity of immediate action, were reckoned to be 62,464; and of light horse 2,566. The royal navy, in 1548, amounted to no more than twenty-four ships of all sizes: among these the largest, the *Triumph*, was one thousand tons burden, and the smallest was under sixty tons. At the same time, all our ships of one hundred tons and upwards were but one hundred and thirty-five; and all under one hundred, and upwards of forty tons, were six hundred and sixty-six. The queen employed herself in augmenting this force, which, after all, bore no fair proportion to the enemy. Nor did she neglect, under the menaced invasion, to invigorate the commerce of her subjects, and even to assail the enemy in every vulnerable direction.—“A maritime power injured, instead of expostulating, immediately makes reprisals.” With great justice did Elizabeth acquire the glorious distinction of the RESTORER OF NAVAL POWER, and SOVEREIGN OF THE NORTHERN SEAS.

But, while the queen was replenishing her magazines; while ordering the construction of new cannon; and

and while commanding the manufacture of a store of gunpowder, *the first that England produced*; she took other methods, besides those already specified, of distressing and confounding her foes. Having detected the principal engines by whom Philip proposed the accomplishment of his plans, instead of exposing or destroying them, she contrived to turn them to her own preservation; though they remained, all the time, and in their own estimation, the agents and the pensioners of Spain*.

Philip, far from deeming it expedient to conceal the nature and intention of his preparations against England, arrogated to himself such ideas of infallible success, that he published aloud both the extent and the force of his "MOST HAPPY, AND INVINCIBLE ARMADA!" According to the list which announced this equipment, and which was published in Latin and in most of the European languages, except English, the armada consisted of 130 ships, making in all 57,868 tons; on board of it were 19,295 soldiers, 8,450 mariners, 2,088 slaves, with 2,630 pieces of cannon, also 124 volunteers of quality, and about 180 monks. Added to this force, there was a large fleet of tenders, with a prodigious quantity of arms on board, intended for those who

* She caused the Spanish ambassador, Mendoza, whose arts might have been otherwise dangerous, had he remained here, to be so wrought on as to forfeit his character, by suborning persons to murder secretary Cecil; and to spread libels in the night through the streets, reflecting on herself. The Spanish emissaries employed to seduce her people, she took care to engage in plots against her person, whereby they became speedily obnoxious to a legal conviction, and so were brought to an ignominious death, equally terrible and shameful to the papal faction. This appears clearly from the cases of Parry and other conspirators, with whom her secretaries played till their treasons were ripe, and then seized and convicted them.

would join them. Towards the close of May 1588, the respective officers repaired on board the armada at Lisbon; and in a few days after the whole was in readiness to sail. They left Lisbon on the 1st of June, with hopes as great as ever yet deluded the most confident ambition, and with a pomp commensurate to their hopes. To contribute to the state and impresson of this force, twelve of the ships were named after the twelve apostles.

Such formidable proceedings might have justified no inconsiderable alarm among the people upon whom they were destined to act: without betraying, however, any symptoms of dismay, Elizabeth and her ministers performed all that prudence and courage could achieve. There were not wanting advisers silly enough to suggest, that the enemy should be allowed to land, and then welcomed with a warm martial salute: but those who then so happily directed the national councils thought more wisely upon the subject, and by consulting the naval reputation, consulted also the true interests of England. A good fleet, although by no means so numerous as the Spanish, long since prepared for the impending storm, was put under the command of lord Howard of Effingham, who had for his vice-admiral sir Francis Drake, and for his rear-admiral sir John Hawkins, and who was also assisted with many other experienced officers: they were ordered to lie on the west coast, in readiness to receive the enemy. Lord Henry Seymour, with count Nassau, cruised on the coast of Flanders, to watch the movements of the prince of Parma, who was expected to attempt a descent.

When the ministry discountenanced a land defence,
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they disliked it merely while proposed as the chief barrier to invasion, for they were too considerate to be insensible to its just importance, if viewed as a last resource, when the foe should have landed. An army of 81,000 men, well appointed, and wisely distributed, under the joint command of the earl of Leicester and lord Hunsdon, were occupied in the internal defence of the state.

The lord admiral having collected the whole of his fleet, about ninety sail, and victualled them at Plymouth, put to sea, and lay off and on in the channel, between Ushant and Scilly.

All parts of the kingdom were at once animated by the vigour of government, and became equally emulous in seconding its measures. The city of London advanced great sums of money to the queen; and, on being desired to furnish 5000 men and 15 ships, they instantaneously supplied 10,000 men and 30 ships! There was indeed no apprehension on the countenances, no hesitation in the minds of Englishmen: the hearts of the people were as the heart of one man, filled with love of his native land, and with joy and alacrity in its defence.

The Spaniards had hardly proceeded in their voyage when they were so assailed by the fury of the elements, as to be obliged to put into the Groine. This circumstance, but for the reasonings of lord Howard, had probably proved more disadvantageous to the English than to their enemies. It became now the universal report that the armada was destroyed; and though the ministers did not credit the full extent of the account, they yet concluded the Spanish fleet to be so much damaged, that they would not be enabled to proceed till another year, and therefore Walsingham, who thought his in-

telligence so far correct, signified the queen's pleasure to the lord admiral to send back four of his largest ships into port. The admiral received the same information as the court, but, doubting its truth, retained the four ships, alleging the danger of immediate credulity in circumstances so eventful, and adding that he would rather keep the four ships out at his own charge than expose the nation to such a hazard. Howard now bore away towards Spain, and picked up such news of the hostile fleet as soon confirmed the propriety of his recent conduct: he therefore regained Plymouth by the 12th of July, and speedily supplied himself with such stores as were wanting.

Meanwhile the Spaniards became in some degree entrapped in a snare from which Howard had so fortunately escaped: meeting with an English fisherman, while they lay at the Groine, who, either ignorantly or designedly, gave information that the English fleet, lately at sea, had, seeing no prospect of the Spaniards pursuing their design that year, returned, and discharged the greater part of the sailors; hearing this the duke of Medina Sidonia, the Spanish commander, was induced to depart from his orders*, with the view of surprising

* His orders were—To repair, as wind and weather would allow, to the road of Calais, and there to wait a junction with the duke of Parma's fleet; then, upon their meeting, to have opened a letter directed to both, with further orders. He was especially commanded to sail, till this time, along the coasts of Brittany and Normandy, avoiding the English, with respect to whom, if he should unexpectedly meet them, he was as yet to act purely on the defensive. To the breach of their orders the Spanish court afterwards imputed the miscarriage of the enterprize. The duke escaped punishment through the interest of his wife, but don Diego Flores de Valdez, whose persuasions greatly induced the duke to his rash step, being conducted to the castle of St. Andero, was never heard of more.

the English, and thus destroying their fleet. Falling in with the Lizard, which they mistook for the Ram's Head near Plymouth, towards night; they stood off to sea till morning, in which interval they were descried by *Fleming*, a Scotch pirate*, who bore away instantly for Plymouth, and gave the lord admiral notice.

It was at four p. m. July 19, that Howard received this critical information. The season had so far advanced that the English began to feel little thought of an enemy, and were almost lulled into a fatal security: but the lord admiral was equal to his situation. He, to stimulate others, not only appeared and gave orders in every thing himself, but worked likewise with his own hands, and with no more than six ships got the first night out of Plymouth, and the next morning, though increased only to thirty, and these the smallest of the fleet, attacked the Spaniard. On the 20th of July, seeing the Spanish navy drawn up in a half moon, sailing slowly through the channel, its wings being near seven miles asunder, the admiral permitted them to pass, that, having the advantage of the wind, he might the more effectually assail them in the rear. And he performed this intention, on the ensuing day, with such courage and success, that he compelled don Martinez de Ricalde, who did, notwithstanding, all that a brave officer could do, to retire with considerable loss and in evident confusion.

* This man was, in reality, the cause of the absolute ruin of the Spaniards; for the preservation of the English was undoubtedly owing to his providential discovery of the enemy. At the request of the lord-admiral, the queen afterwards granted a pardon to Fleming for his piracies, and a pension for the service he had rendered to the nation in his timely intimation of the approach of the Spanish fleet.

Many days were consumed in immaterial engagements, or in plans which proved incapable of execution; while the Spaniards, the wind favouring them, continued their course up the channel, and anchored before Calais on the 27th of July. This was nearly the point at which Howard wished them to arrive, as he was by this means enabled to join lord Henry Seymour, and sir William Winter, who had waited with a fresh squadron in the straits of Dover. He now found himself decidedly strengthened, commanding near one hundred and forty ships, and receiving daily additions, either of supply or force, from the public spirited conduct of individuals. On the 28th it was therefore determined to effect a stratagem long meditated against the enemy. The admiral, at the queen's particular desire, picked out eight of his worst ships, and, depositing in these plenty of pitch, tar, rosin, and wild-fire, and having charged their cannon with bullets and chains, he sent them, before wind and with tide, about two hours after midnight, under the conduct of Young and Prowse, into the midst of the Spanish fleet. The approach of these vessels, which had been kindled by the two officers ere they quitted them, was no sooner perceived by the Spaniards, than the whole fleet became victims of the most dreadful consternation. Numbers of the enemy had witnessed the destruction attendant on the machines that were employed at the siege of Antwerp; and naturally suspecting that the present, which already effected such a prodigious blaze, as to represent the sky and ocean in one united and general conflagration, were big with a fate equally tremendous, they set up a most hideous cry
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of *Cut your cables and get up your anchors*, and immediately put to sea with the utmost precipitation.

The next day, July 30, an admiral-galeas ran ashore on the sands of Calais, where she was taken by the English, though not till don Hugo de Moncada, her captain, was killed, and her hands, to the number of four hundred, either drowned or involved in the fate of their brave commander. Eager to retrieve, if possible, their accumulated distresses, the enemy collected near Graveling, where, however, after fruitlessly waiting for some relief from the prince of Parma, and finding themselves hard pressed by the fire of the English, they made a resolute effort to retreat through the straits of Dover. But the wind coming about, with hard gales at N. W. they were at first driven on the coasts of Zealand, which they yet escaped by the wind soon after veering to S. W. It is said that when the Spanish admiral gave the signal for weighing anchor, on the approaches of the fire-ships, he did it only to avert present danger, and ordered that each ship, the danger avoided, should return to her station. He certainly acted upon this plan, and at the same time fired a gun as a signal for the fleet to rendezvous: but his signal was purposely misunderstood by some, and could not be distinguished by others whose panic had carried them a considerable way out to sea, so that when he collected near Graveling, his force was sadly diminished. The duke, taking all circumstances into view, now summoned a council of war, by which it was resolved, that, as there were no hopes of success remaining, it would be more eligible to throw up their design, and to save as many ships as possible.

The execution of this resolve admitted no delay. The whole Spanish navy made all the sail they could for their own shores, going north about.

The Spaniards had directed their course towards Zealand, chiefly with the view of being at hand to receive reinforcements from the dilatory Parma; but here again they were disappointed by the wisdom of the lord admiral, who had sent lord Henry Seymour, with a stout squadron to cruise off Zealand. Thus frustrated, they resolved to return to Spain by north of the British isles. Arriving on the Scottish coast, pursuant to their last resolution, and finding they were effectually prevented from acquiring any supplies, they threw their horses and mules overboard, to save water. Meanwhile the lord admiral, leaving lord Seymour to assist the blockade of the duke of Parma, and having stationed sir William Winter, with another squadron, in the narrow seas, pursued the Spanish fleet as far as the Frith of Forth, where he thought to destroy them. But the Spaniards kept on their course by the Orkneys, the Western Isles, and Ireland. The lord admiral perceiving, at length, that the real purpose of this division of the enemy's fleet was merely to escape, desisted from the pursuit; for he found himself much contracted in provisions, and destitute of almost every thing that was requisite to a successful prosecution of the chase. A part of the Spanish fleet, such of them as were properly stored, with the duke de Medina Sidonia on board, had made directly for the Bay of Biscay.

What they missed at the hands of Howard, was, however, speedily inflicted on the hostile fleet by the fury
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of the elements. On the second of September, a tempest arose, which drove most of them ashore, and upwards of thirty ships and many thousand men perished on the Irish coast. Some were a second time forced back into the English channel, and there captured either by the English or by the Rochellers: others were cast away among the Western Isles.

Such was the fate of the Great Spanish Armada!— It took no less than three years preparing: it was destroyed in one month. It at first numbered one hundred and thirty fine ships, completely manned, and amply provided: but no more than thirty-four of these, many of them in a shattered, all in a necessitous, condition, regained the Spanish coasts; and there perished at least 20,000 of the individuals who had so eagerly embarked in the enterprize. It left Spain with the character of Invincibility; and its first progress seemed to alarm all Europe for the fate of the British isle: but that which had roused the amazement, now excited the derision of the world.

The king of Spain is by some said to have received the intelligence of this disaster with great stoicism; but this neither accords with the expectations which were raised of the success of his fleet, nor with the treatment of don Diego Florez de Valdez, nor with Philip's proclamation to prohibit mourning on the event. Far more probable is the account, that, being at mass when the news was brought to him, Philip swore, after mass, "he would waste and consume his crown, even to the value of a candlestick (pointing to one that stood upon the altar), but either that he would utterly ruin Elizabeth

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beth and England, or else that himself and all Spain should become tributary to her." As to Elizabeth, she adopted that mode of exultation which became a christian princess:—she performed a public thanksgiving, which was conducted with great solemnity, at St. Paul's, where the colours and standards taken from the enemy were hung up: and she afterwards applied herself to the distribution of those rewards which had been so justly merited by her navy*.

On every occasion, during the whole of this trying scene, and when victory was as yet indeterminate, the abilities and courage of the lord admiral shone forth in pre-eminent lustre. It was owing to his magnanimity, experience, and prudence, that the defeat was at last so signal; and those who surmised that our advantages might have been still greater, yet do not impute any want of exertion to Howard. The queen acknowledged his great merits in very expressive terms. — Though extremely frugal, she awarded him a pension for life; and immediately after his expedition to the coast of Spain, with the earl of Essex, in 1596, she advanced him to the title and dignity of earl of Nottingham, declaring, in the patent, "That, by the victory obtained anno 1588, he had secured the kingdom of England from the invasion of Spain, and other impending dangers; and did also, in conjunction with our dear cousin Robert

* Several medals were struck in commemoration of this glorious victory: one, in honour of the queen, represented fire-ships, and a fleet in hurry and confusion, with the inscription *Dux Fœmina Facti*: on another, in honour of the English navy, with the device of a fleet flying under full sail, was the motto *Veni Vidit Fugit*.

earl of Essex, seize by force the isle and the strongly-fortified castle of Cadiz, in the furthest part of Spain; and did likewise entirely rout and defeat another fleet of the king of Spain, prepared in that port against this kingdom." When the earl of Nottingham first entered the house of peers, he was received with the most lively, and unusual marks of congratulation. He was shortly after made lord justice itinerant of all the forests south of Trent, for life.

Circumstances of extreme delicacy and great apprehension again demanded the services of Nottingham: in 1599, when the Spaniard meditated a new invasion, and when the conduct of the earl of Essex had embroiled the concerns of Ireland, a good fleet and a large army were expeditiously collected and put under the admiral's command, who bore, for the space of six weeks, the very unusual and almost unlimited authority of lord lieutenant general of all England. When Essex, quitting his post in Ireland, afterwards gave himself up to rebellion, and fortified himself in his house in the Strand, confining the chancellor and the chief justice with other nobles sent by the queen to inquire into his grievances; Nottingham was so successful in reducing this contumacious earl, as to obtain from Elizabeth an encomium which she had often applied to the character of her admiral, that "he was born to serve and to save his country!" The same year the admiral was appointed one of the commissioners for executing the office of earl-marshal. To him, upon her death bed, the queen was also free to make known her intention with respect to the succession; an unequivocal proof of her regard for the earl

earl of Nottingham, since it was a disclosure for which she had hitherto been in vain supplicated by her most favoured ministers, and which, even at this time, she made to no one so readily as the admiral: "Her throne (she said) was a throne of kings;" and, by her signs, directed the appointment of James of Scotland*.

The accession of James by no means impeded the fortunes of the earl of Nottingham. He was appointed lord high steward, that he might assist at the coronation of the new sovereign; and filled, shortly after, the most brilliant embassy that this country had ever before deputed. He was commissioned to this employment, not as a man of very great fortune, but from the known generosity of his temper, and the number of his dependants who at their own charge were content to accompany him on the voyage. During his stay at the Spanish court, the dignified splendour of his diplomatic character procured the admiration and respect of that people; and at his departure, Philip III. made him presents to the amount of £.20,000. Though this seasonable and even necessary ostentation had, properly viewed, done honour to the English government, at least as much as to its agent, it was some time ere Nottingham could entirely erase from the mind of James the unlucky use to which his enemies had converted his unprecedented display of magnificence; these men knew but too well the

* This account of the decease of queen Elizabeth evinces, on her part, an uncommon degree of attachment to the earl of Nottingham, whose countess had been the perpetrator of an act (vide Andrews's continuation of Henry's History of Great Britain, vol. I. p. 199 to 201) which is thought to have materially accelerated the queen's end.

temper of their master, to whom there was not any thing more offensive than a popular and respected subject*.

But Nottingham disappointed the activity of his foes : he regained the confidence of the king ; was selected to assist at the marriage of the lady Elizabeth with the elector palatine, and afterwards escorted her with a squadron to Flushing. Disqualified by age, and its attendant infirmities, from prosecuting the high duties of his office, he shortly after resigned the post of lord admiral to Villiers earl of Buckingham. As his estate was rather contracted, and he had lately married a young wife, the terms of his resignation were—that a debt of £.1800 due from him to the crown should be remitted ; that he should have an annual pension of £.1000 and that he should take seat in the house as earl of Nottingham, according to his descent, from the time of Richard II. Buckingham visited the late admiral in person, returning him thanks for having resigned, and at the same time presenting his young countess with £.3000. Nor is there a doubt but that Buckingham truly esteemed his veteran predecessor ; for he ever called him father, and bent his knee whenever he approached him. The life that had long been exercised to the most beneficial ends, experienced, as it deserved, a calm and honourable close on

* This is a trait very conspicuous in the history of this monarch. He was always observing to his nobles, when at court, “ that they were there but little vessels sailing round the master-ship ; whereas, in the country, they were so many great ships, each riding majestically on its own stream, and more distinguished :” a device by which he hoped to lure them from the metropolis into situations in reality less favourable to the operations of popularity and ambition.

the eleventh of December, 1624. The earl of Nottingham died at the advanced age of eighty-eight.

Extensive as were the services, and acknowledged as were the abilities and merits, of Nottingham, yet has he not escaped the strictures of his contemporaries. To him is attributed, though rashly, some portion of that envy which certainly too much influenced the court of Elizabeth; for it is fairly presumable that the earl, who was of a generous and manly disposition, has in this instance been charged with the effects of the temper of his first countess, whose enmity to Essex seems unaccountable.

The person of Nottingham was graceful: his loyalty, his patriotism, his courage, are conspicuous in every act of a long and indefatigable life. He loved the state and hospitality which were formerly attached to elevated rank; of this his Spanish embassy, and the practice of keeping "seven standing houses at once," are incontestable proofs. On the whole, there is in the character of this nobleman much to admire, much to applaud, and very little to censure.

SIR JOHN HAWKINS,
ADMIRAL.

SIR JOHN HAWKINS was the son of William Hawkins, esq. by Joan, daughter of William Trelawny, esq. of Cornwall. The family of Hawkins were of Devonshire, and possessed great opulence and respectability. Under his father, who is celebrated for his voyages to Brazil, John most probably acquired that sound maritime knowledge which raised him to such distinction during the prosperous years of queen Elizabeth: he was early inclined to the study of navigation, and became so great a proficient in this science, that he was "employed by Elizabeth as an officer at sea, when some, who were afterwards her chief commanders, were but boys, and learned the skill, by which they rose, from him."

Having in the course of his voyages to the Canaries, gained some insight into the slave trade, he succeeded with his friends in engaging them to open a new traffic; first to Guinea for slaves, and then to Hispaniola, and other Spanish islands, for sugars, hides, silver, &c. He sailed from England upon this speculation in October 1562. Touching first at Teneriffe, he proceeded to Guinea, where having obtained three hundred negroes, he sailed directly to Hispaniola, at which place he completed his purchases and sales, and returned home in safety, about
September

September 1563. Another voyage, performed in nearly the same direction, and tending to similar views, in 1564-5, added so much to his nautical reputation, that Harvey, then Clarencieux king at arms, granted him by patent, for his crest, a demi-moor in his proper colour, bound with a cord.

Early in 1567 he sailed to the relief of the French protestants in Rochelle; as this object was almost instantaneously effected, he employed the greater part of the summer in preparing for his third voyage to the West Indies.

This voyage began in storms, and terminated in war. He sailed from Plymouth, October the 2d, 1567, and met at first with such repulsive weather that he purposed to return; but the tempest abating, he prosecuted his route to the Canaries, to Guinea, and thence, for the sale of his negroes, to Spanish America. After stopping at Rio de la Hacha, and Carthagena, he was again arrested by the elements, on the coast of Florida, and compelled into St. John de Ulloa, in the bottom of the bay of Mexico. He entered the port on the 16th of September 1568, and securing two persons of distinction as hostages, he forwarded his demands to Mexico.

The appearance of the Spanish fleet, on the 17th, first awakened the suspicion of Hawkins; who, however, agreed to admit it, provided the new viceroy of Mexico, who was on board, would stipulate that the English should have victuals for their money, that hostages should be given on both sides, and that the island and its cannon should be entrusted to his crew while they remained: to these demands the viceroy acceded, though
not

not without evident reluctance and ominous discontent. Upon this settlement, however, the Spaniard was permitted to enter the port on the 26th; mutual salutations passed, and the two following days were employed in a correct arrangement of the ships of the two nations.

But the movements of the Spaniards too soon justified the apprehensions of the English. On the 24th Hawkins dispatched a messenger to the viceroy, with directions to require an explanation of some recent motions that were observed on board the Spanish fleet; and as the answer did not satisfy the inquiry, he sent the master of the *Jesus*, who understood Spanish, to learn from the viceroy, whether a great number of men had not been concealed in a ship moored next the *Minion*, and what purpose was intended by their concealment. The Spaniard's language became at last explicit; he detained the master, he caused the signal trumpet to be sounded, and an attack was immediately commenced against the English, in all directions. Those of our countrymen who landed, attempted to regain their ships, but were all butchered, and the *Minion* was at once beset by the three hundred who had been hid in an adjacent vessel. The *Minion* and *Jesus* getting clear of the enemy, began a most stubborn engagement, in which the admiral of the Spaniards and another ship were sunk, and their vice-admiral burned: it was a conflict truly honourable, but at the same time really calamitous to the English; for the *Minion* and the *Judith* were the only two of their ships that escaped, and even the *Judith* became separated from the *Minion*.

Extremely limited in food, and almost exhausted of

S

water,

water, in unknown seas, and many of her men wounded, the *Minion*, under the command of Hawkins, entered a creek in the bay of Mexico, on the 8th of October, in order to procure refreshment. At this place, one hundred of his company desired to be put ashore; on the 16th he weighed, and stood through the gulph of Florida; he stopped in his way home, at Ponte Vedra and Vigo, and arrived at Mount's bay in Cornwall on the 25th of January 1586. "If (says captain Hawkins) all the miseries and troublesome affairs of this sorrowful voyage should be perfectly and thoroughly written, there should need a painful man with his pen, and as great a time as he that wrote the lives and deaths of the martyrs." In commemoration and reward of the action at *Rio de la Hacha*, the following addition was made to his arms. On an escutcheon of pretence, or, an escallop between two palmer's staves, sable. Fortunately, the revolution of a few months brought to Hawkins no unimportant opportunity of humbling the national spirit of his adversaries.

He was riding in *Catwater* with a small squadron of the English fleet, when the Spanish admiral, on his way to bring *Anne of Austria*, the last wife of *Philip II.* from *Flanders*, attempted to run between the island and the place, unmindful of the usual compliment to the English flag. "Perceiving this, Hawkins ordered the gunner of his own ship to fire at the rigging of the Spanish admiral, who nevertheless, taking no notice hereof, the gunner fired now at the hull, and shot through and through. The Spaniards, upon this, took in their flags and top-sails, and ran to anchor; the Spanish commander then sending an officer of distinction in a
boat

boat to carry at once his compliments and complaints to Hawkins, he, standing upon deck, would not admit either the officer or his message; but bade him tell his admiral, that, having neglected the respect due to the queen of England, in her seas and port, and having so large a fleet under his command, he must not expect to lie there; but, in twelve hours weigh his anchor, and be gone, otherwise he must regard him as an enemy declared, as his conduct had already rendered him suspected. On receipt of this message the Spaniard went in his boat to the *Jesus of Lubeck*, on board of which Hawkins's flag was flying, and desired an audience; which was at first resisted, but at length granted. The Spaniard then expostulated the matter, insisting that there was peace between the two crowns, and that he knew not what to make of the treatment he had received. Hawkins informed him that his own arrogance had brought it upon him, for that he could not but know what respect was due to the queen's ships; also, that he had dispatched an express to her majesty, with advice of his behaviour, and that, meantime, he would do well to depart. The Spaniard affected ignorance of his offence, but proffered satisfaction. To this Hawkins very mildly replied, that he could not be a stranger to what was practised by the French and Spaniards in their own seas and ports: and put the case—"Sir, added Hawkins, had an English fleet come into any of the king, your master's ports, his majesty's ships being there, and that those English ships should carry their flags in their tops, would you not shoot them down, and beat the ships out of your ports?"—This was an irresistible appeal to the equity and common sense of the Spaniard;

he confessed his error, and submitted to the penalty imposed.

Hawkins was appointed to the rank of rear admiral, on board the *Victory*, in 1588, and acquitted himself so ably in the conflict with the Spanish armada, particularly in the pursuit of the enemy, as to obtain the honour of knighthood, accompanied with very expressive commendations from his sovereign. In 1590 he was sent with Sir Martin Frobisher to intercept the Plate fleet, and annoy the Spanish coasts; an expedition that was conducted entirely to the satisfaction of government.

As the war continued, a more effectual attack in those parts was proposed by sir John Hawkins and sir Francis Drake, to which the queen gave a ready countenance: the plan, which was to be executed at the joint costs of the commanders and her majesty, included the burning of Nombre de Dios, marching thence by land to Panama, and there seizing the treasure which they knew must arrive at that place from Peru. But this important design proved completely abortive, partly through the opposition of the season, but more by the contentions of the projectors; and concluded in the loss of the gallant Hawkins, who, sickening upon the miscarriage of his favourite scheme, expired of a broken heart, on the 21st of November 1595. Thus died Sir John Hawkins, who had commanded at sea with high reputation, during forty-eight years, and had been treasurer of the navy for the space of two and twenty.

He was a man ardently attached to the naval interests of his country, who, with his brother William, possessed at once thirty sail of good ships, and was both the author and promoter of many beneficial regulations in the navy.

navy. To him and fir Francis Drake is the brave
 seamen indebted for the institution of the CHEST AT
 CHATHAM; a scheme of the most excellent tendency,
 in which every sailor may, by a voluntary deduction
 from his gains, relieve the wants and reward the services
 of those of his comrades who are either disabled by the
 fate of war, or the adversities of fortune. The bene-
 volence of Hawkins is indeed truly estimable; for he
 also built and liberally endowed an hospital at the same
 place.

SIR JOHN NORREYS.

THIS brave officer descended from a respectable family in Oxfordshire. The Netherlands and France were the scenes of his early prowess; scenes in which the effects of an enterprising and daring soul had, on more than one occasion, drawn upon him the reprimands of queen Elizabeth.

In the year 1589, when the Spaniards meditated a second armada, sir John Norreys was entrusted with the joint command of an expedition intended to frustrate their plans. Too prudent to engage in open warfare with Spain, the queen expressed only her intention of assisting don Antonio to recover his kingdom of Portugal; and consistently with this idea the equipment was made partly at the royal charge, and partly at the expence of individuals. Sir Francis Drake, with whom Norreys was associate in command, contributed largely to the scheme; the commanders and their united friends adventured 50,000*l.*; her majesty furnished six men of war and 60,000*l.*; and the rest was provided by London, the cinque ports, and the Dutch.

They first disembarked near the Groine, where having burnt the adjacent country, and defeated a body of Spaniards, they sailed for Lisbon. This place had certainly fallen into the hands of the English, but for the dissensions of the commanders, together with a pestilential disorder which infested the troops. On their return, they

they plundered Vigo, and took about sixty prizes, which however they were obliged afterwards to restore to the Hanse Towns. When it is added, that the adventurers would have fallen victims to famine had they not been met and relieved by the earl of Cumberland, their disappointments seem sufficiently great. Sir Francis Drake arrived at Plymouth on the 21st of June, and Sir John Norreys, with the rest of the fleet, on the 3d of July: they had lost 6000 of their men by sickness; and Drake's most valuable prize was dashed to pieces on the rocks of Cornwall, at the very moment when he was exulting in the prospect of security and home.

This result procured to the commanders a very cold reception at court: it had also the melancholy effect of fomenting the virulent altercation between themselves. Sir John charged his coadjutor with breach of promise, in not meeting him with the fleet at Lisbon; and Drake retorted the absurdity of depending upon what could not be done, of expecting from a fleet services to which it was wholly incompetent*. If, however, the event was essentially injurious to the adventurers †, the damage in-

* The chief grounds of their miscarriage were held to be these: They were but indifferently manned and victualled; their landing at the Groine contrary to their instructions, gave the men an opportunity of drinking new wines, and exposed them to great and unnecessary loss: then the disagreement of the generals defeated the remaining part of the design; whereas if, in pursuance of their instructions, they had sailed directly for the coast of Portugal, and landed the forces there, it is more than probable they had effectually seated don Antonio on his throne.

† The soldiers, &c. extremely disappointed and disgusted at returning without money, and not being nice casuists in their distinctions between foreign and domestic property, were with difficulty restrained from making themselves amends, by plundering *Bartholomew fair!* STOWE.

flicted upon the enemy was still great enough to augment his terrors, and to insure the safety of Elizabeth.

Norreys sustained an arduous conflict in Brittany during the year 1594, where he defeated the Spanish forces, and assisted at taking Morlaix, Quimpercorentin, and Brett. From this career of success, he was suddenly commanded to Ireland, where the restless Tyrone had excited a new insurrection. His efforts to reduce the rebel were at first apparently prosperous; but the deceit and barbarity of Tyrone triumphed over the generosity of Norreys. Sir John fell a victim to the craft of this turbulent individual:—he broke his heart on finding that Tyrone had taken advantage of his confidence to injure the affairs of England.





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SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE,

VICE-ADMIRAL.

OF the family of this eminent navigator and seaman, the first who made the circuit of the globe, and one who most ably sustained the trust of vice-admiral in 1588, the details are neither copious nor satisfactory. Some who have endeavoured to explore the origin of Drake, believe him to have been the son of a clergyman, in circumstances by no means affluent, who inclining to the protestant communion, was compelled to seek refuge in Kent from the persecution excited against this branch of christians, in the reign of Henry VIII. by the law of the six articles. Others, who have evinced no less labour and circumspection in ascertaining the parentage of Drake, declare him to have been the son of a common sailor, the elder of twelve, and born near Tavistock, in 1545. These likewise assert his relationship to sir John Hawkins, by whom, they affirm, he was educated, and at the age of eighteen introduced into the navy as purser of a ship trading to Biscay; and that at the age of twenty-two he succeeded to the command of the Judith, in the harbour of St. John de Ulloa, in the gulph of Mexico; a station in which he conducted himself entirely to the satisfaction of that brave commander, sir John Hawkins. Those who, on the contrary,

trary, contend that Drake was the offspring of an indigent clergyman, explain his introduction to sea service in a very different manner. His father retiring into Kent, read prayers on board the fleet, and this was probably the mode by which young Drake became acquainted with the seas; for he was soon after apprenticed to the master of a coasting vessel, who entertained so high an opinion of the lad, that dying unmarried, he bequeathed to him his ship, and thereby laid that foundation upon which Drake afterwards raised the superstructure of so much fame and fortune. Johnson supports the opinion that Drake was the son of a clergyman: Campbell, on the contrary, favours the supposition that his father was a seaman. Both, however, agree that Drake was engaged in sir John Hawkins's expedition to the West Indies; and both coincide in the opinion, that it was on this voyage he first entertained those extensive designs which astonished his own age, and from the execution of which his name has descended with so much honour to posterity.

As nothing was at this time more popular than reprisals on the Spaniard, Drake found no difficulty in collecting money enough to fit out two ships, the Dragon and the Swan. With these, in the years 1570-1, he made two voyages of adventure. He returned in safety; and acquired from both considerable pecuniary advantages, as well as that experience which confirmed him in the pursuit of more important undertakings.

He next applied himself to the performance of a favourite scheme. On the 24th of March 1572, he sailed from Plymouth, in the Pascha, a ship of seventy tons,
and

and accompanied by his brother, John Drake, in the Swan, of twenty-five tons, with no more than twenty-three men and boys, proceeded to the town of Nombre de Dios, which at that time held the same importance in the maritime concerns of Spain, as Porto Bello holds at this day. He arrived at Nombre de Dios July the 28th, having been joined on the way by one captain Raufe, with a bark of fifty men. This place he attacked in the night, with great bravery; but was obliged to retire at break of day, with little booty, and badly wounded. To a Spanish gentleman, afterwards sent on board to inquire "whether the captain was that Drake who had been before on their coasts; and whether the arrows with which many of their men were wounded were not poisoned?" Drake firmly answered, "that he was the same Drake with whose character they were before acquainted; that he was a rigid observer of the laws of war, and never permitted his arrows to be poisoned." He added, as he dismissed the messenger, with considerable presents, "that though he had unfortunately failed in this attempt, he would never desist from his design till he had shared with Spain the treasures of America." About this time he parted with Raufe, who became too timorous to adventure further in his fortunes, and desired to be discharged. But Drake was not to be discouraged by sinister accidents or trivial interruptions. Having acquired from a Symeron whom he took on board at Nombre de Dios, a knowledge of the wealthiest parts, and by stratagem prevailed upon his brother to destroy the Swan (a measure he judged indispensable to the manning of his pinnaces, which were here found to be of singular benefit), he sailed to
6
Carthagea,

Carthagena, where he made several prizes; but was soon necessitated, by the sickness of his crew, to return to Port Diego, where he had left his brother. On his arrival, he learnt that his brother was no more; he had been killed in an attempt to board a frigate full manned and prepared, while he was himself unarmed and almost unassisted. This misfortune was followed by the calenture, a fever whose ravages destroyed, among many others, Joseph, another of Drake's brothers. It was at this distressing juncture that some Symerons, who had ranged the country for intelligence, brought information of the arrival of the Spanish fleet at Nombre de Dios; the treasures of the American mines were now to be transported overland, from Panama to Nombre de Dios: and now, therefore, Drake, directed by his faithful Symerons, on February 3, set out from Port Diego, to intercept the riches of the new world. Disease had bereft him of twenty-eight of his men, and a detachment must be left to guard the ship. Eighteen of the English, and thirty Symerons, were all that could accompany him on this service.

Though unimportant in number, as they were abundantly supplied with other requisites, this little band had probably effected their most sanguine expectations, but for the wretched imprudence of one man. When in view of Panama, their *avant courier* came running with the welcome intelligence that the treasurer of Lima, intending to return to Europe, would pass on that night, with eight mules laden with gold, and one with jewels. Drake, therefore, ordered his men to lie down in the long grass, about fifty paces from the road, half on one side with himself, and half on the other with Oxenham

Oxenham and the captain of the Symerons; so placed that one company might seize the foremost reeve, and the other the hindermost; for the mules, being tied together, travel on a line, and are all guided by the first. But Pike, a drunken fellow, as soon as the mule-bells greeted his ear, quitted his place, and, instead of lying still while the droves from Venta de Cruz passed by, and awaiting the signal for attack, prevailed upon one of the Symerons to creep with him to the wayside, that so they might signalize themselves by seizing the first mule. Thus was the ambush discovered, and disappointed. However, Drake proceeded to the attack of Venta de Cruz: he carried it, and acquired some booty. Nor was his honour less conspicuous in the disposal, than was his fortitude in supporting those fatigues which accompanied him in the acquisition of riches. On receiving from Pedro, chief of the Symerons, four large wedges of gold, in return for a fine cutlass with which he had presented him, Drake threw the wedges into the common stock: "It was but just," he said, "that such as bore the charge of so uncertain a voyage, on his credit, should share the utmost advantages that voyage produced."

It was on February 11th, 1573, that Drake on his progress toward Panama, arriving at the top of a very high hill, from a kind of tower which had been erected on the hill, saw the great South-sea, on which no English vessel had yet sailed. At that moment, animated by an enthusiasm known only to genius and magnanimity, he lifted up his hands towards heaven, and implored the blessing of God upon the resolution, which he then formed, of sailing in an English ship on that sea.

Drake embarking his men, with considerable wealth,

bore

bore away for England. He was so happy as to sail from Cape Florida to the isles of Scilly in twenty-three days; and to arrive at Plymouth, without any accident, August 9, 1573. It was on a Sunday, in the afternoon, that Drake arrived and landed; and so greatly did the tidings of this event affect the good people of Plymouth, that they unanimously quitted the church, and ran in crowds to the key, to congratulate the return of their brave countrymen.

That success which ought to have advanced his merits served for some time to retard his career: it had raised him many enemies. Too many were disappointed in their prognostications of the failure of his bold plans; and too many, whose cowardice would not permit them at first to league with Drake, now found themselves compelled, by a species of necessity, to depreciate the value of his achievements. Thus thwarted, he was content, during some time after, to serve as a volunteer in Ireland, under Walter, father of the unfortunate earl of Effex. At length becoming known to sir Christopher Hatton, then vice-chamberlain and privy-counsellor to queen Elizabeth, who introduced him to her majesty, he was enabled to form that expedition on which he had incessantly meditated. He proposed a voyage into the South-seas, through the Straits of Magellan; a project at last favourably received, and decidedly seconded by the court. He was constituted, by a commission from queen Elizabeth, captain-general of a fleet consisting of five vessels.

These ships *, as usual in that time, partly equipped by

* The Pelican, admiral, 100 tons—Drake; the Elizabeth, vice-admiral, 80 tons—John Winter; the Marigold, 30 tons—John Thomas; the Swan,

by Drake, and partly by other adventurous individuals, he manned with 164 stout seamen, and furnished them with such provisions and stores as the nature of his voyage seemed to indicate. Naval and military stores were not all that such an enterprize required: he carried with him every thing necessary to facilitate his intercourse with those distant nations, and establish with them a high character of his country. He, therefore, procured a complete service of silver for his own table; and furnished the cook-room with various vessels of the same metal. Still to add to the effect of his appearance, he engaged several musicians to accompany him: for he well knew the power of music, especially on the savage or uncivilized breast. Prudence advised that the object of these preparations should be concealed, and they were accordingly declared to be for Alexandria.

November 15, 1577, about three in the afternoon, the fleet endeavoured to clear Plymouth; but were forced, by a heavy storm, into Falmouth, to refit. He put again to sea on the 13th of December following. His course was much embarrassed, though on the 25th he fell in with the coast of Barbary, and on the 29th with Cape Verd; on the 13th of March, 1578, he passed the equinoctial line. The 5th of April he made the coast of Brazil in 30° N. L. and entered the river de la Plata, where he lost the company of two of his ships; but, meeting these again, and having taken out their provisions, &c. he turned them adrift. On May the 29th he entered the port of St. Julian. Here,

Swan, 50 tons—John Chester; the Christopher, 15 tons—Thomas Moche.

on July 2, 1578, he sanctioned the execution of Mr. John Doughtie, a person next in authority to himself; who was tried for designs against the conduct of the fleet and the life of the admiral, and sentenced to be beheaded, by a jury of twelve men, after investigating the proceedings of the accused.

This is the only transaction of his long life, that ever involved the memory of Drake in any degree of obloquy or reproach; and it is, unhappily, so strangely detailed by those who undertook to record it, that we have now no clue by which to obtain any thing like precision or certainty on the subject. The plainest accounts which we have of Doughtie's death exhibit only a tissue of inconsistencies. Drake, for instance, is represented as apprized of the malversations of this conspirator, before he sailed from England; and yet he was admitted to Drake's confidence, during the whole of the voyage. No symptoms of the conspiracy, thus framed, are disclosed till the fleet arrives at a remote corner of the world, and then Doughtie, in one moment, accused by Drake of criminal and mutinous designs, confesses the guilt, and cheerfully submits to the sentence pronounced by his peers: he even prefers immediate death; rejecting the alternatives of being set ashore on the main land, or sent to England for trial.

But it has been stated, that "Doughtie was sent abroad for no other purpose than to meet with his end, and this because he had charged the great earl of Leicester with poisoning the earl of Essex"—a fact generally admitted at that era, from the circumstance of Leicester's marrying, in a short space, Lettice, countess of Essex, with whom it was known he had been already
too

too familiar. In a poem, called *Leicester's Ghost*, are the following stanzas:

I doubted, lest that Doughtie would bewray
 My counsel, and with other party take ;
 Wherefore, the sooner him to rid away,
 I sent him forth to sea with captain Drake,
 Who knew how to entertain him for my sake.
 Before he went, his lot by me was cast ;
 His death was plotted, and perform'd in haste.

He hoped well : but I did so dispose,
 That he, at Port St. Gillian, lost his head ;
 Having no time permitted to disclose
 The inward griefs that in his heart were bred,
 We need not fear the biting of the dead.
 Now let him go, transported to the seas,
 And tell my secrets to the antipodes.

When, however, it is observed that the earl of Essex was Drake's first patron, and highly esteemed by that commander ; that Doughtie embarked eagerly in the present expedition, and, a few minutes previously to his execution, embraced Drake with the most lively cordiality ; when these points are considered, it becomes difficult to conceive, how the commander could be active in crushing a man whose only offence consisted in his designing to reveal the murderers of Drake's patron and friend? Nor is it probable that Doughtie would have shewn so much readiness to enter on a voyage of which he was the intended victim. He underwent the usual examination, and seems to have been equitably condemned, although the criminalities of his conduct appear never to have been sufficiently exposed and detailed.

Soon after the execution of Doughtie, August 20, 1578, Drake entered the Straits of Magellan. About

this time he experienced so violent a tempest, that, when the storm abated, he found he was driven through or round the Straits into the latitude of 50 degrees. Here, lying close under an island, which he named Elizabetha, he went on shore, and, having stretched himself as far over a promontory as was compatible with personal security, he told his crew, when returned, that he had been farther south than any man living. He reached Machos, the place of rendezvous, in latitude 30 degrees, on November the 25th, where he learnt that captain Winter, having repassed the Straits, was returning to England. Drake, however, continued his course by Chili and Peru; and, coasting North America to the height of 48 degrees, endeavoured to discover a passage back into our seas on that side. Though he failed of that design, he was by this time considerably enriched by the capture of Spanish ships. Having, therefore, trimmed his own ship, and called the country New Albion, on the 29th of September, 1579, he set sail for the Moluccas. The dangers to be apprehended from the attacks of the Spaniards, and the approach of the hurricane season, induced Drake to prefer this passage to that by the Straits of Magellan.

On the 4th of November he gained sight of the Moluccas, though not without having contended with many storms; and was kindly received by the king of Ternate. Under the direction of an Indian, whom they met with at Philip's bay, on the 5th of December they came to anchor near the town of St. James of Chiuli: here they found abundance of stores, besides capturing a valuable prize.

Early in the night of the 9th of January, 1580, while sailing on an unruffled and prosperous sea, their course was suddenly arrested by one of those dreadful oppositions to which the mariner is peculiarly exposed. They were thrown upon a shoal, and by the celerity of the motion fixed too fast to indulge the thought of becoming extricated. The pump was plied, and the ship found free from new leaks: but, in attempting to ascertain, towards the sea, some place where they might fix their boat, and from thence drag the ship into deep water, it too readily appeared, that the rock on which they had struck rose perpendicularly from the water, and that there was neither anchorage, nor a bottom to be attained a boat's length from the ship. This was a conjuncture wherein even the intrepidity of Drake felt alarmed; and while exhorting his men to lighten the vessel, by throwing part of their lading overboard, he also directed, with his accustomed devotion, that the sacrament should be administered. And now, when hope itself paused, and all human efforts were acknowledged ineffectual, the wind, which had hitherto blown strongly against the side of the ship towards the sea, and held it up against the rock, slackening; as the ship lay higher with that part which rested on the rock than with the other (it was low water), no longer borne up by the wind, she reeled at length into the deep water. Vain would be the attempt to describe feelings so truly indescribable as those which now seized the transported breasts of the adventurers. To fear had succeeded hope; and to the most distressing apprehensions, surprise, gratitude, and joy. But as this was the most accumulated distress which they had yet undergone, it

taught them to contract the incautious spreading of their sails, and to move forward with becoming circumspection; for adversity is a forcible teacher.

Thus instructed, they preserved an equable course, and anchored before Java on the 11th of March 1580. By the king of Java, to whom Drake sent a present of cloth and silks, he was favourably received; and this friendly intercourse was at length only interrupted by his leaving Java, on March 26, when he directed his course towards the Cape of Good Hope. He saw the Cape on the 5th of June; passed the tropic August 15; and arrived at Plymouth on the 26th of September. In a tour so extensively diversified, it is not to be wondered at that they should err in the computation of time; and Drake accordingly discovered, on his arrival in England, that they had lost a day in their account—it being Sunday by their journals, but Monday by their regular reckoning*. April 4, 1581, Drake having brought his ship up to Deptford, the queen went on board, and conferred on him the honour of knighthood, as a pledge of her entire approbation of his conduct †.

Towards the end of 1585, Drake put into execution

* In this voyage he completely surrounded the globe, which no commander in chief had ever done before. His success in this enterprize, and the immense mass of wealth he brought home, raised much discourse throughout the kingdom, some highly commending, and some as loudly decrying him. The former alleged, that his exploit was not only honourable to himself, but to his country; and the latter, that, in fact, he was no better than a pirate;

† She likewise gave directions for the preservation of his ship, that it might remain a monument of his own and country's glory. In process of time, the vessel decaying, it was broken up; but a chair made of the planks was presented to the university of Oxford, and is still preserved.

a cheme concerted with sir Philip Sidney. Though the queen had detached sir Philip from this adventure, Drake, assisted by the captains Carlisle, Frobisher, and Knollys, left Plymouth for the West Indies, with a fleet of twenty-five ships, on the 12th of September. Having touched at Bayonne, and plundered Vigo, they arrived before St. Jago on the 16th of November, and burnt a little town called San Domingo. From this island they pursued their voyage to the West Indies, designing to attack St. Domingo in Hispaniola, which they considered as the richest place in that quarter of the world. Provoked by the treachery of the Spaniards, they destroyed part of St. Domingo, and then sailed for Carthagená. Against this place they were equally successful; and, having taken St. Augustin, they returned to Portsmouth on July 28, 1586.

There perished in this voyage 760 men. The gain of the expedition amounted to 60,000*l*. Of this sum, all that devolved to the surviving crews, after those who had fitted them out were satisfied, did not exceed six pounds each man. Thus, the undertaking could hardly be thought profitable; but Drake had distressed the enemy, if he had not enriched himself, and the result was still honourable.

His next enterprize may be regarded as more fortunate. In 1587, with thirty sail, he proceeded to Lisbon against a numerous fleet, intended to compose part of the armada, which was assembled at Cadiz. He entered this bay, and burnt upwards of ten thousand tons of shipping. But he rested not here. Proceeding to Terceira, he there awaited the arrival of a carrack, which he

captured. This ship amply recompensed his toils, and more than answered the expectations of his employers*.

Sir Francis now enjoyed an interval of repose. But his repose was not idleness: he employed this interval in superintending a project for bringing water into the town of Plymouth. This idea, which originated with himself, was realised by conducting into Plymouth a stream which issued from springs at the distance of twenty miles; but which distance was reduced, by the mode in which the stream became conducted, in a straight line, to the length of eight miles only. Whatever, therefore, might be the extent of Drake's riches, the hazards at which they were acquired, and the uses to which they were applied, ought to have silenced the clamour of his adversaries.

In 1588 sir Francis Drake received a further proof of his sovereign's estimation †, in his appointment to the station of vice-admiral, under the lord Howard, high-admiral. He acquitted himself of this momentous trust

* Important indeed were the ultimate consequences of this capture: "It was in consequence of the journals, charts, papers, taken on board his EAST INDIA prize, that it was judged practicable for us to enter into that trade."

† The origin of the arms of sir Francis Drake furnishes another evidence of Elizabeth's attachment to his services. He had a quarrel with his countryman, sir Bernard Drake, whose arms Francis had assumed; which so provoked Bernard, who was also an enterprising seaman, that he gave Francis a box on the ear. The queen took up the quarrel, and gave sir Francis a new coat; which is thus blazoned:—Sable, a fess-wavy, between two pole stars argent: for his crest, a ship on a globe under a ruff, held by a cable with a hand out of the clouds; over it this motto, *Auxilio divino*; underneath, *Sic parvis magna*; and in the rigging is hung up by the heels a wivern, gules, which was the arms of Bernard Drake.

in a manner that reflected additional honour on his already pre-eminent reputation. The terror of his name awed don Pedro de Valdez into the surrender of a galleon that contained 50,000 ducats; these were distributed by the vice-admiral, with his usual liberality, among the seamen and soldiers. He was also eminently successful in the pursuit of the flying enemy, whom he impressed with augmented apprehensions of the effects of his long-tried abilities. During 1589, he was conjoined with Norrey in an expedition against the Spaniards.

The years 1594 and 1595 are rendered memorable by that expedition to the West Indies which terminated with the destruction of Nombre de Dios, and was followed by the death of the two commanders, sir John Hawkins and sir Francis Drake. Drake expired about four in the morning of January 9, 1596, on board his own ship, in the West Indies, and was committed to the sea, in a leaden coffin, with all the magnificence that naval obsequies could bestow.

Sir Francis Drake was in person rather short, but muscular; had a broad, open chest, and a round head; he was of a fair complexion, his eyes large and clear, and of a fresh, cheerful and engaging aspect; his hair was of a fine brown, his beard full and comely.

His disposition was rather imperious and decisive, but he was extremely generous and unsuspecting. Some degree of ostentation has been imputed to him; but those who consider the number and rancour of his enemies, and at the same time the value of his services, will not hastily blame him for occasionally asserting those merits which his opponents were so assiduous to traduce, and claiming that reward of which the injustice of others

would have deprived him. He possessed great abilities, and was indefatigable in improving them to the best advantage. To a thorough knowledge of maritime affairs, he joined as competent an acquaintance with astronomy as he could then obtain; and he was an eloquent and graceful speaker. He, in fine, must have been a great man, who, disadvantaged by birth, and depressed by enemies, rose, in spite of such obstacles, into affluence and fame, while characterized by the most unbending integrity, and unversed in the flatteries of the world.





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SIR RICH^d GREENVILE

SIR RICHARD GREENVILLE.

THIS officer sailed for the American coast in 1584, in order to the settlement of a colony which Elizabeth had distinguished by the appellation of Virginia. But dissention being followed by famine, soon after Greenville had landed the new settlers, and some of them being carried off by death, the remainder returned to England in 1585, so dispirited as not to attempt further emigration.

In 1591 a fleet of seven ships, in which sir Richard was vice-admiral, sailed to the Azores, designed to intercept the usual remittances of Indian gold. Here five of the English vessels, unexpectedly assailed by a large Spanish squadron, immediately effected their escape, leaving the *Revenge*, commanded by captain Greenville, and another ship, to contest the day. Greenville, animated by unjustifiable contempt for his assailants, or by a heroism devoid of prudence, resolved, sooner than shew the stern of his ship to a Spaniard, to engage fifty-three men of war, manned with ten thousand sailors, for such was the force to which he presented the *Revenge*. He sustained the almost incredible conflict for fifteen hours; and now, when he was covered with wounds; when his men were either nearly removed by death, or incapacitated by their sufferings; his powder almost
 spent;

spent; his masts gone; and his vessel sinking under him; even at this moment, he still scorned to yield, and recommended the survivors to trust in God rather than in Spain, and blow up the ship. But this was a requisition with which the majority could not be brought to comply; and the *Revenge* was surrendered, on honourable terms, to Don Alphonso Bassano, the Spanish admiral. "A dear prize," observes the historian, "as the capture of her had cost the enemy two thousand of their bravest sailors, and two of their stoutest ships sunk, besides two disabled."

Memorable are the last words of the gallant Greenville: "Here (he exclaimed) die I, Richard Greenville, with a joyful and quiet mind; for that I have ended my life as a true soldier ought to do, fighting for his country, queen, religion, and honour. My soul willingly departing from this body, leaving behind the lasting fame of having behaved as every valiant soldier is in his duty bound to do." Greenville was of that distinguished number in whom the example of Drake had kindled up this noble and enthusiastic attachment to their country.

The *Revenge*, the first English man of war the Spaniards had yet taken, sunk, shortly after, with two hundred men on board.

SIR MARTIN FROBISHER.

SIR MARTIN FROBISHER was the son of poor parents, who resided near Doncaster in Yorkshire, and who bred him to the sea. Of his early years, passed probably in obscurity and pain, we have no accounts. Indigence claims attention from no one; and the indigent, who expand afterwards into affluence, are seldom inclined to expose the penury from which they have escaped.

By what means, therefore, Frobisher contrived to attract the attention, or secure the confidence of a respectable portion of the mercantile world, in the year 1576, when he made his first voyage for the discovery of the north-west passage, we may conjecture, but we cannot determine. He had two barks and a pinnace assigned him by his employers; and with these, assisted by captain Matthew Kinderley, he quitted Gravesend about the middle of June, and returned to Harwich in October, having just discovered Greenland. The next year, in a second attempt this way, he further explored the country, but found nothing to recompense his trouble; he met only with savages, cold as the region they inhabited.

In the course of these voyages, Frobisher, from the strait which still bears his name, brought a large quantity of black, soft stone, full of grains, which, possessing
a yellowish

a yellowish light, he supposed to be gold ore. On trial, this composition did not, however, answer the ideas of its discoverer.

Frobisher was appointed to the command of the *Triumph*, in the year 1588. His exertions on this occasion, against the armada, procured him the distinction of knighthood, an honour conferred on him by the lord admiral. In 1590 he commanded a squadron on the coast of Spain, and by his vigilance frustrated the sailing of the Plate fleet for that year. In 1592 he superseded sir Walter Raleigh in the command of a fleet which was equipped to act against the Spaniards. Notwithstanding the discontents of the other officers on board, who, when the queen's letters of revocation arrived to Raleigh, refused to serve under Frobisher, the squadron proceeded to the coast of Spain, where, with only three ships, he burnt one large galleon, and captured another.

Elizabeth having stipulated certain aids to the French, in order to drive the Spaniards, whom she considered her more dangerous neighbours, from Brest, sir Martin Frobisher was dispatched, in the autumn of 1594, to accomplish the object of this treaty. He landed his sailors, and, desperately storming the place, it soon surrendered to the vigour of the English arms. But it was an advantage purchased at the expence of too many brave men, among whom was sir Matthew Frobisher *." He received a shot in his side, which, through

* The slaughter of so many excellent subjects and officers affected the queen so much, that on the first advices of the impetuous attack of Brest, she dispatched a messenger to the English, informing them, that "The blood

through the unskilfulness of his surgeon ended his existence at Plymouth, a few days subsequent to his return.

He was manly in person; of unblemished character; and of great naval abilities and knowledge. He was also a strict disciplinarian; and this, in an age when “undaunted valour, and a forward spirit of enterprize distinguished the soldier and the mariner, but when subordination appears not to have marked his character,” will explain that aversion with which he was certainly regarded by his inferiors.

blood of men ought not to be squandered away at all adventures: that the boiling heat of pushing and forward men had need to be curbed, and not encouraged and edged on into danger and ruin.” The commander was particularly reminded, that, “if he observed these measures, he would save the credit of his conduct, and sit free at the same time from the charge of cruelty: and, finally, that she herself should, upon better ground, commend his care and regard for her subjects.” Unhappily, this truly excellent mandate arrived too late to restrain the impetuosity of the English.

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.

THE family of Gilbert are of Devonshire, and possess great claim to antiquity. Sir Humphrey Gilbert was the second son of Otho Gilbert esq. of Greenway, by Catherine, daughter of sir Philip Champernon, of Modbury; a lady who became afterwards the wife of Walter Raleigh, esq. of Fardel, and, by this marriage, the mother of the great sir Walter Raleigh. As his father was rich, Gilbert, though a younger son, inherited considerable property.

For that eminence to which he attained, Humphrey Gilbert stood highly indebted to his female relatives. It was to his mother that he owed the advantages of an education begun at Eton, and perfected at Oxford; and from his aunt, Mrs. Catherine Ashley, who attended on the person, and was greatly in favour with queen Elizabeth, he derived an early introduction at court, where his abilities and acquirements soon procured him the most flattering estimation. Elizabeth recommended him to sir Henry Sidney, as a youth of much promise, by whom he was incited to pursue his favourite studies of cosmography, navigation, and the art of war, and who readily undertook his initiation into the practice of those important theories. Young Gilbert soon convinced his noble patrons that he was not unworthy of this support. He accompanied sir Henry Sidney into
 3 Ireland,



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SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT



Ireland, about the year 1570, and acquitted himself so highly to his satisfaction as to obtain from that experienced commander the honour of knighthood.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert was not less accomplished as a writer, than he was brave and judicious as an officer. In 1576 he delivered to the world that celebrated treatise *On a north-west passage to the Indies*, whose consequences we have already witnessed in the several voyages that were speedily made to realize the favourite suggestion. This work is characterized by simplicity of language, and great methodical arrangement. His ground for a belief in the practicability of a north-west passage is thus explained: "There was (he says) one Salvaterra, a gentleman of Victoria, in Spain, that came by chance out of the West Indies into Ireland, anno 1568, who affirmed the north-west passage from us to Cataia, constantly to be believed in America navigable; and further said, in the presence of sir Henry Sidney, then lord deputy of Ireland, in my hearing, that a friar of Mexico, called Andrew Urdaneta, more than eight years before his then coming into Ireland, told him that he came from Mer del Sur into Germany through this north-west passage, and shewed Salvaterra (at that time being then with him in Mexico) a sea card made by his own experience and travel in that voyage, wherein was plainly set down and described the north west passage, agreeing in all points with Ortelius's map. And further, this friar told the king of Portugal, as he returned by that country homeward, that there was of certainty such a passage, *north-west from England*, and that he meant to publish the same; which done, the king most earnestly desired him not in any wise to disclose

disclose or make the passage known to any nation; for that (said the king) if England had knowledge and experience thereof, it would greatly hinder both the king of Spain and me. This friar (as Salvaterra reported) was the greatest discoverer by sea that hath been in our age. Also Salvaterra, being persuaded of this passage by the friar Urdaneta, and by the common opinion of the Spaniards inhabiting America, offered, most willingly, to accompany me in this discovery; which it is like he would not have done, if he had stood in doubt thereof." Gilbert then proceeds to reason on the probability of such a passage; and it must be confessed, that, if his work contains much that is futile and exploded, it has also many valuable conjectures, and is, upon the whole, a manly and respectable performance.

Colonization, however, no less than discovery, engaged the attention of Gilbert; and, therefore, laying aside for the present his project of the north-west passage, he procured from Elizabeth a patent, dated June 11, 1578, by which he was fully empowered to undertake the western discovery of America, and to inhabit and possess any of those lands as yet unoccupied by christian potentates or their subjects. Full of hope, he sailed for Newfoundland in the summer of 1578. He continued here but a short time, and in his way home, with extreme difficulty, cleared himself of several Spanish vessels; his first experiment by no means answering the anticipations to which it had given rise.

Such a failure might, in this sanguine age, have ruined any man of less reputation than sir Humphrey Gilbert. But, undepressed himself, he also found means to reanimate the courage of others; and, on the 11th of June,

1583, again set sail for Newfoundland*. Here they landed on the 3d of August, when the general read his commission; and, being duly recognized by the adventurers, he, on the 5th, took possession of the harbour of St. John, in the name of the queen of England, granting, as her patentee, leases unto such as were willing to take them. One Daniel, a Saxon, an able miner, about this time discovered a rich silver mine.

Having changed his residence to the Squirrel, because, being light, he esteemed her better calculated for entering all creeks and harbours, and sent home the Swallow with the sick and weary, he left St. John's on the 20th of August. They sailed prosperously till the night of the 29th, when a storm arose, and the Delight, on board of which was captain Brown, was lost, with the exception of twelve of her crew, who escaped in the boat. The loss of this ship was severely felt by Gilbert; for with her he was deprived of his Saxon miner, and the silver which had been dug in Newfoundland †, besides a number of excellent seamen.

* His fleet, which was ready for sea by the first of the month, consisted of the five following ships: The Delight, of 120 tons, admiral, on board of which was sir Humphrey Gilbert, and under him captain William Winter; the bark Raleigh, a stout new ship of 200 tons, vice-admiral, built and manned and victualled at the expence of sir Walter (then Mr. Raleigh, and commanded by captain Butler; the Golden Hind, 40 tons, rear-admiral, captain Edward Hayes, who was her owner; the Swallow, 40 tons, captain Maurice Brown; the Squirrel, 10 tons, captain William Andrews. On the 13th of June the bark Raleigh returned, the captain and most of those on board falling sick of a contagious distemper.

† So highly did he exult in the discovery of this ore, that he told some of his friends, "Upon the credit of that mine, he doubted not to borrow 10,000*l.* of the queen for his next voyage."

September 2d, he repaired on board the Golden Hind, for the purpose of getting his foot dressed. The officers of the Hind endeavoured, by every effort of persuasion, to prevail upon him to pass the residue of the voyage on board their ship, alleging, that the Squirrel was very inadequate to the exigency of his situation, too weak successfully to resist the increasing violence of the seas. But he immediately negatived their advice, by assuring them that "he would never desert that bark and that crew with whom he had escaped so many dangers;" and returned to the Squirrel. In the evening of September the 9th, his danger was indeed but too evident; yet, in this situation, was he seen sitting in the stern of the bark, with a book in his hand, and heard frequently to exclaim; "Courage, my lads! we are as near heaven at sea as at land!" About midnight he sunk into the deep with the whole of his crew.

He was an eminent naval character; and the first who introduced among his countrymen a legal and regular method of colonization.



Harding sc.

EARL PERCEY

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EARL PERCY.

HENRY PERCY, the ninth earl of Northumberland, was eldest son of that unfortunate earl of Northumberland, who was arrested during the reign of queen Elizabeth, on suspicion of being attached to the cause of Mary of Scotland, and who, while imprisoned in the Tower, was found dead in his bed, shot with three bullets near his left pap. The mother of Henry was Catherine, eldest daughter and co-heir of John Neville, lord Latimer.

There can be no doubt but earl Percy received an education not unworthy of his quality, as he was afterwards the great patron of learned men, and the munificent encourager of learning. His valour also was not less conspicuous than his literary abilities. In 1585 he embarked with Dudley, earl of Leicester, for the Low Countries, where he displayed true courage, and acquired considerable perfections as a soldier; and he was among the foremost of those patriotic young noblemen, who in 1588, hiring ships at their own charge, joined the grand fleet under the high admiral Howard. In 1593, his lordship was created a knight of the garter, at Windsor.

Percy, in 1601, accompanied sir Francis Vere in the siege of Ostend. A disagreement unhappily arising

between these great men, in which earl Percy conceived himself aggrieved, that nobleman, on his arrival in England, dispatched the following challenge to Vere.

*To the valorous and worthy Captain, Sir Francis Vere,
Lord Governor of the Brill, and Commander of the
English under the states.*

“ I tould you at Ostend that then was noe fytt time to expostulate matters; nowe I hould it proper to call you to an accompt for those wronges you have done mee. You love to take the ayre and to ryde abroad; appointe, therefore, a place and tyme to your liking, that I may meete you. Bring you a friend with you; I will be accompanied with another, that shall be witnessse of the thinges I will laye to your charge. If you satisfie mee, wee will return good friends; yf not, wee shall doe as God shall put in our mindes. I will eschew all bitter words, as unfit for men of our occupation. Seeke not by frivolous shiftes to diverte this course of fatisfaction; for all other meanes than this I have prescribed I shall call as an affirmation of what I have heard, which will cause mee to proceed in wrighting myselfe as the wronge requires. Make no replies by letter, but send mee your will by this bearer directlie, that you will or not, for from mee you shall have no more. Give no cause of noyses in the world, to hinder this course, least you baffle your own reputation. Whatsoever I shall doe in this just cause of offence, fewer words I could not have used to expresse my mind.”

This

This notice was transmitted to Vere on Saturday the 24th of April 1602. Notwithstanding, however, Percy's intimation to "give no cause of noyses," it is palpable that either Vere or his friends informed the queen of these proceedings, who immediately commanded Percy to desist. In this he did not tamely acquiesce, but desired those of his friends, who were present when the injunction arrived from court, to observe—"That he referred himself to all men of judgment, that made profession of honour, and that he hoped they would not blame him, if that in attending to his satisfaction, he protested that sir Francis Vere was a knave and a coward, who in fleeing and jeering, like a common buffoon, would wrong men of all conditions, and had neither the honesty nor the courage to satisfy any." Vere set forth a very unsatisfactory reply to these charges, and here the affair seems to have terminated.

The earl of Northumberland, on the death of the queen, applied himself so successfully to the favour of James, that his subsequent depression becomes a matter of surprize. He was by that prince continued in the council, employed in many royal commissions, and assisted in the christening of the princess Mary, to whom his countess stood godmother; and yet, before the end of 1605, he was arrested and charged with being privy to the gunpowder treason. In the month of August preceding, he had received the degree of master of arts in the university of Oxford. King James was present at the ceremony; and very honourable record is made of Percy, "the most generous count of Northumberland, a great encourager of learning and learned men, especially ma-

thematically, who, as well as others, have in a high manner celebrated his worth."

Though the earl was imprisoned in 1605, and not liberated till 1620, and sentenced to a severe fine, his innocence is incontrovertibly clear. To use his own words*, "I thought I had chosen an honest instrument, and fit, because of the place he lived in, to be the carrier of my letters; but I finde to my sorrow, that he had craft and poison laid up in his breast against your majesty, the state, and unfaithfulness to me:" and by this instrument, who corresponded with a treacherous relative, sir Thomas Percy, the earl was driven into disgrace and almost ruin. He who had been confidentially employed by his sovereign to execute the laws against papists, was now accused of coalescing in the foulest plots in order to advance the popedom. In vain did he beseech when Percy was taken, that the conspirator might be questioned as to his innocence; in vain did he imprecate on himself and his family, the direst vengeance of the Almighty, if he were not free of the criminalities imputed; in vain did he supplicate the throne, and his friends to intercede with the throne; an enormous fine was exacted, and a painful bondage was sustained. A more severe sentence, it has been observed, could hardly have been passed, without bereaving him of his life and all his estates; and without doubt, it much induced his son Algernon to espouse the party which in the reign of Charles I. abolished the ancient court of star-chamber. He was at last indebted for his release to

* See his letters to the king.

the friendship of lord Haye, afterwards earl of Carlisle, who had married the lady Lucy, earl Percy's youngest daughter, a lady of incomparable beauty, and celebrated in the poems of the most exquisite wits of her time.

Percy passed the latter days of his life in social tranquillity. In August, 1620, there were with him, as guests at Petworth, Buckingham the king's favourite, prince Charles, the earl of Suffolk, the earl of Pembroke, the earl of Montgomery, his own son, lord Percy, two sons-in-law, the lord viscount Lisle, viscount Doncaster, sir George Goring, sir Henry Rich, and several other knights and gentlemen. He lived just long enough to see the beginning of the reign of Charles I. dying at Petworth on the 5th of November 1632.

Northumberland married Dorothy, daughter of Walter Devereux, earl of Essex, and widow of sir Thomas Perrott, by whom he had four sons and three daughters.

SIR RICHARD HAWKINS.

THE adventures of this officer cannot fail to impress us with regret that his success was not proportioned to his merits; like Drake, he designed to pass the straits of Magellan, and then to surround the globe; but he experienced the severest disappointment.

Sir Richard, son of the great sir John Hawkins, was born at Plymouth in Devonshire. Having a strong predilection for the naval service, he fitted out, in 1593, two ships and a pinnace, and obtained the queen's commission, empowering him to assail the Spaniards in South America. His progress did not, however, correspond with his wishes and abilities. He was at first thwarted by the elements, and the whole of his scheme subjected afterwards to ruin by the baseness of one Tharlton, whom he had taken into the employment of captain. Upon the loss of his pinnace, which was accidentally burnt at St. Ann, Tharlton deserted, leaving Hawkins, who had but just entered the river of Plate, to pass the straits of Magellan by himself, with one ship. It afforded but little satisfaction to sir Richard for the injury which resulted from Tharlton's treachery, that the miscreant became in time amenable to the tribunal of justice, which did not neglect to award the punishment so fully merited.

These

These fatal disadvantages could not intimidate sir Richard Hawkins; who at length, with equal resolution and prudence, made the Straits of Magellan in January 1594. Having sailed up to the height of 56 degrees, and spent six weeks, steering against currents at once dangerous and uncertain, amongst the neighbouring islands, he directed his course towards Peru, with the reputation of being the sixth navigator who, according to the account of the Spaniards, had passed the Straits.

On the coasts of Peru he captured several prizes; but this prosperity was speedily reversed by his having the ill-fortune to encounter with the Spanish admiral Don Bertrand de Castro, who commanded a squadron of eight sail, on board of which were two thousand men. Yet this misfortune is in a great degree attributable to the rashness or the avarice of Hawkins. Those elements which opposed his outset now favoured his escape, and he had happily cleared himself of the enemy, when, by his attempting to secure fresh prizes, he gave him an opportunity to come up with him again. He was overtaken in the bay of Atacama, and, after an obstinate resistance, obliged to surrender* to de Castro. As long as

* The contest lasted for three days and nights successively, and then, most of his men being killed, his ship sinking under him, and himself dangerously wounded, he was importuned to strike. The terms of his surrender were notwithstanding honourable: That himself and all on board should have a free passage to England as soon as possible. De Castro swore, by his Maker and by his knighthood, that the capitulation should be observed with fidelity; in token of which, having sent his glove to Hawkins, he took possession of the ship without displaying the least insolence, or permitting the smallest outrage.

Hawkins remained in America with de Castro* he was treated with great humanity and politeness; but he was commanded by the Spanish court to the metropolis, and remained during several years a prisoner in Seville and Madrid.

Sir Richard Hawkins was at length released from imprisonment and restored to his country. The last years of his life, which he passed in honourable retirement, were employed in digesting his adventures; of these he had written an account to the era of his captivity, when death for ever suspended his prosecution of the interesting narrative. He was struck with an apoplexy while attending the privy-council on business, in one of the outer rooms, and expired.

* After Hawkins had surrendered, the Spanish admiral produced a letter from the king of Spain to the viceroy of Peru, which gave a particular account of the voyage, the ships, the force, and the designation of Hawkins. "You may see by this (said De Castro) whether the king my master has not some good friends in England!"—"No wonder (returned Hawkins) that your master has so many friends every where, since he has so much gold and silver: it is no uncommon thing to see these make people tell tales out of school, and out of country too."

THOMAS CAVENDISH, ESQ.

THE life of Cavendish is a full verification of the remark, that necessity is the mother of invention; that a fortune dissipated by extravagance is only to be retrieved by enterprise. He appears to have descended from the ancient family of Trimley in the county of Suffolk, and was the inheritor of ample property; but his resources were not proof against libertinism early indulged, and expenses often repeated. He, therefore, resolved to exact from his enemies the money which he had lavished on his friends; and with this view, having at his own cost built two ships and a bark, he sailed from Plymouth on the 21st of July 1586.

His design was to enter the South seas for the express purpose of plundering the Spaniards. Having gained the coast of Brittany he steered for Brazil, made the Straits of Magellan, January the 5th, 1587, and passing these he coasted along Chili and Peru, where he conducted himself with great prudence and intrepidity, and secured some valuable prizes. In the progress of this route mention is made of a harbour about 48 degrees south latitude on the coast of America, whose inhabitants, the savages, were extremely gigantic, one of their feet measuring eighteen inches in length; this place they named Port Desire. Cavendish continued his course as high as California, where he took the St. Ann,

an Acapulco ship: her cargo was exceedingly rich; but, as his ships could not retain it, after disburthening her of gold to the amount of 60,000 l. he was compelled to sink the rest. Steering now for the Philippine islands, he reached Java Major on the first of March 1588. June the first he doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and returned in safety to Plymouth on the 9th of September. In this voyage, which was attended but with little loss, and was distinguished by much bravery, wisdom, and perseverance, Cavendish had sailed completely round the globe, and had also acquired what, in that age, might be esteemed an amazing fortune.

On his arrival in England, Cavendish immediately wrote to lord Hunsdon, one of her majesty's privy-council, and at that time lord chamberlain, the following account of his voyage.—“ It has pleased the Almighty to suffer me to circumnavigate the whole globe of the world: entering in at the Strait of Magellan, and returning by the Cape of Good Hope. In this voyage I have either discovered, or brought certain intelligence, of all the rich places of the world that ever were known or discovered by any Christian. I navigated along the coasts of Chili, Peru, and Nueva-Espanua, where I made great spoils. I burnt and sunk nineteen sail of ships, small and great. All the villages and towns that ever I landed at I burnt and spoiled, and had I not been discovered upon the coast I had taken great quantities of treasure. The most profitable prize to me was a great ship of the king's which I took at California, &c. &c. From the cape of California, which is the uttermost part of Nueva Espanua, I navigated to the islands of the Philippines, bordering upon the coasts of China; of
6 which

which country I have brought such intelligence as hath not yet been heard of in these parts." He describes the stateliness and riches of China to be almost incredible, and continues—"I sailed along the islands of the Moluccas, where I was civilly entertained by some of the heathen people, and where our countrymen may trade as freely as the Portuguese." From hence, he says, he passed the Cape of Good Hope, &c. home. He concludes, in a strain as honourable to himself as it must have been gratifying to his sovereign, "All which services, with myself, I humbly prostrate at her majesty's feet, desiring the Almighty long to continue her reign among us; for at this day she is the most famous and victorious of princes."—Such a harmony (subjoins an old historian) was there, in this golden age, between the sovereign and the subject. The one offered his all, and the other accepted of no more than the absolute exigencies of the state required!

But the extravagances so happily intermitted, returned upon him with augmented force; and, in 1591, he was again driven to those measures by which he had already in a great degree repaired his shattered fortunes. He sailed from Plymouth on August the 26th, with three ships and two barks; on the 8th of April, 1592, he reached the Straits of Magellan; and one of his ships, the *Desire*, under the command of Davis, actually passed the Straits. Having remained in them, however, to the 15th of May, and finding the weather still adverse to his hopes, he returned to the coast of Brazil, where he was seized by the most inconsolable grief, and where disappointment soon terminated in death.

CAPTAIN EDWARD FENTON.

FENTON descended from a good family in Nottinghamshire. He had a younger brother, who, like himself, disdaining inactivity, agreed to dispose of their patrimony, which was but small, and adventure in foreign speculations. Edward succeeded in attracting the patronage of two noble characters, Robert earl of Leicester, and Ambrose earl of Warwick. Having served some time in Ireland under the protection of these friends, he engaged himself with Frobisher in the discovery of a northwest-passage during the year 1577. In 1578 he was still engrossed in the pursuit of this passage; and so firmly persuaded, notwithstanding the experience of Frobisher, of the existence of such a route, as continually to importune the earl of Leicester to obtain the countenance of government towards a voyage which he designed to make in prosecution of that delusive scheme. He at length experienced the gratification he had so incessantly implored. He left England in May 1582, with three stout ships and a bark; directed by the privy-council to attempt the discovery of the northwest-passage, but by a new way—he was to go by the Cape of Good Hope to the East Indies, and being arrived at the Moluccas, to proceed from thence to the South seas, and then to effect his re-

turn

turn by the yet undiscovered desideratum, the north-west passage; but he was not by any means to think of passing the Straits of Magellan, except impelled to it by inevitable necessity. It seems, however, that Fenton always understood he was commissioned to make his fortune in the South seas, and that he constantly acted upon this conviction.

They arrived in August on the coast of Africa, where, entering Sierra Leona, their necessities compelled them to trade with the natives for provisions. Hence he failed to Brazil, and intended to have proceeded directly to the Straits of Magellan, but for the intelligence which he gained that Don Diego Florez de Valdez, with a powerful fleet, was entering the Straits to oppose him. He now resolved to return; when, putting into a Portuguese settlement to refit, he met with three of the Spanish squadron. A brisk engagement ensued, of which Ward, Fenton's vice-admiral, has given an interesting description.—“About four in the afternoon of January the 24th, 1583, we saw (says Luke Ward) three sail come bearing in about the Point, which, as soon as they saw us, anchored on the Bar, and put themselves in a readiness, sending from one ship to another with their boats, and preparing their ordnance to attack us. We, on our side, were not idle; but before night, getting our men and other necessaries from the shore, put ourselves in a posture of defence. I went on board the admiral to know what he designed to do, and he determined to set his watch in a warlike manner; and so he did: for, after his trumpets and drum had sounded, he shot off a great piece, as they before had done. Presently the enemy's

vice-

vice-admiral shot at me; and I answered him. We then set up our main-top and top-mast, which we had taken down since we lay here; and before eleven at night we were rigged. In the mean time they let slip their anchors and cables, and came driving and towing with their boats in upon us, designing to have boarded us. When they came near our admiral hailed them, and they not answering, let fly at them; but was, however, glad to let an anchor slip to avoid them. Then they came all driving down thwart my hawser, so that I was forced to slip an anchor and cable to shun the gallion. All this while the ordnance and small shot plied hard on all sides, and I was forced to send the gallion my skiff with a hawser to ride by; for she was loose, and with the flood drove up within me. The enemy's vice-admiral was then on my broad-side, and was pretty much shattered: yet I did not leave galling him till I thought our powder spent on him in vain, he being already in such a miserable torn condition. By four in the morning it rained so hard, the moon being likewise gone down, we could not see one another." The day-break of the 25th disclosed all the wretchedness of the enemy. They saw the Spanish vice-admiral sunk very near them, with some of her men yet hanging about the shrouds, most of whom were drowned. The engagement was continued with the two remaining Spanish ships till two P. M. when the English stood off to sea, and the Spaniards for the river. Captain Fenton returned safely into England, where arrived Ward, his vice-admiral, after a tedious and hazardous voyage, on May the 31st, 1583.

Fenton afterwards conducted himself with signal reputation

putation in the ship which he commanded against the Armada. He resided during the latter part of his life near Deptford, where he died in the spring of 1603, and was buried in the parish church of that place. The great earl of Corke, who married his niece, raised a handsome monument to the memory of Fenton, in Deptford church, and graced it with an elegant inscription.

SIR ROBERT DUDLEY.

SIR ROBERT DUDLEY, a gentleman not less distinguished by his bravery than his learning, and by the elegance of his manners no less than the acquisitions of his mind, was son to the great earl of Leiceſter, by the lady Douglas Sheffield, daughter of William lord Howard of Effingham. He was born at Richmond in Surrey in 1573, and received the rudiments of his education from Mr. Owen Jones, at Offington in Suffex. From hence he was removed to Oxford, and entered of Chriſt Church in 1587, where he had the advantage of being ſuperintended in his ſtudies by Mr. afterwards ſir Thomas Chalmer; and his proficiency was ſuch as early to entitle him to the applauſe of that learned and judicious ſcholar. In 1588, on the demife of his father, he became entitled to the caſtle of Kenelworth* in Warwickſhire, and other princely eſtates, to the poſſeſſion of which he accordingly ſucceeded on the death of Ambroſe, earl of Warwick, his uncle.

Though Dudley excelled in moſt of the qualifications which were in his age deemed neceſſary to the character of a gentleman, yet his peculiar attachment to the mathematics had created in him ſuch a deſire for navigation, that, when but two and twenty years of age, he made preparation for a voyage to the South Seas, a project from

from which he was with difficulty withheld even by the interposition of royal authority. At length, having fitted out a squadron of four sail; he left Southampton on the 6th of November 1594. He had hardly proceeded to the coast of Spain when he was divided from the other ships with which he sailed, though this could not impede him from pursuing his course to the West Indies. He remained a considerable time at Trinidada; and on his return homeward, though much impaired by the voyage, coming up with a Spanish ship of 600 tons, he engaged her, though he carried no more than 200; he did not take her, but left her in so shattered a condition that she sunk shortly after. This, we are informed, was the ninth ship which he had either taken, sunk, or burnt, in his voyage. He was employed in the expedition to Cadiz in 1596, where he received the honour of knighthood in acknowledgment of the gallantry and ability which he on that occasion displayed.

Unhappily his country was too soon deprived of a man who had rendered her such meritorious assistance, and whose abilities seemed to promise services still more extensive and important. In endeavouring to substantiate the legitimacy of his birth he met with so many mortifications and obstacles, and conceived himself so deeply and undeservedly injured, as to quit England for ever. He retired to Florence, where he experienced the most flattering reception from the grand duke of Tuscany, and the archduchess Magdalen of Austria. He was not of a disposition to be unaffected with these attentions; the breast susceptible of resentment was also capable of gratitude; and he directed his abilities to the devising of plans for the improvement of the shipping, the manu-
X 2

factures,

factures, and the commerce of the natives. During his residence here he formed that design of making Leghorn a free port, which has been of such importance to the dukes of Tuscany. Penetrated with the highest sense of his services, the grand duke assigned him a most liberal pension, and presented him the castle of Carbello, a very magnificent villa, three miles from Florence. He had previously, by letters patent from the emperor, bearing date March 9, 1620, been created a duke and count of the empire, by the title of duke of Northumberland and earl of Warwick; and, in 1630, by Urban VIII. enrolled among the nobility of Rome. He spent the last years of his life in the improvement and decoration of his villa, which he rendered one of the finest palaces in Italy; and at Carbello he died, September 1649, in the 76th year of his age. While resident in Italy he published a very elegant mathematical and scientific work, in two volumes, which is now very scarce.

Sir Robert Dudley was in person tall, finely shaped, and expressively graceful; his complexion was both agreeable and admirable; his hair rather inclining to red. He was particularly expert in tilting, riding the great horse, and other fashionable exercises; and he was esteemed, altogether, one of the most accomplished cavaliers of his age.

DISCOVERIES AND DETACHED ADVENTURES.

INDEPENDENTLY of those illustrious voyagers whom biography has made her care, and whose brows she delights to encircle with the wreath they so nobly acquired, there are many eminent individuals whose exertions must not be overlooked, and to whom the tribute that is due to meritorious exertion must not be denied. In chronological arrangement OXENHAM'S expedition has the first claim to our attention; and in boldness of conception, and celerity of execution, it is not inferior to any of those adventures to which the wealth of Spain had attracted the enterprising Englishman.

This officer, captain John Oxenham, having accompanied Drake in several voyages, and remarked the defenceless state of the enemy's settlements in those parts, resolved to forestall his old master in his projected expedition to the South Seas. He said it was better to trade for one's self, than to share with another; and this logic was strong enough to prevail upon some to join him. Thus supported, he was enabled to fit out a ship of 140 tons, on board of which were 70 seamen. His success for a while even outran his expectations. He arrived in the South Seas early in 1575, and captured several prizes. But, too eager after booty, he loitered in these scenes till

the Spaniards, alarmed, assembled and beset him with a force which he was now in no condition to resist. Many of his coadjutors were killed; the rest, with himself, were made prisoners, and their whole property lost. Oxenham was at last carried to Panama, where he was questioned by what authority he had invaded the Spanish territory? Being unable to produce any licence or commission from Elizabeth, he, with all his party, were sentenced to death, as pirates. Most of them were immediately executed, and Oxenham soon afterwards at Lima,

IN 1576 Mr, ANDREW BARKER, a Bristol merchant, but formerly of the Canaries, fitted out two ships, with which he failed to annoy the Spaniards in the West Indies. Though the result of this voyage proved eminently unfortunate, it had more of justice for its basis than those adventures which were at this time entered upon with so much avidity against Spain; since its object was merely to retaliate upon the Spaniards an outrage they had wantonly inflicted on the relations and property of Barker. Diffensions unhappily attended the progress of this little equipment. Barker was set ashore at the Honduras, by his mutinous officers, where he soon fell a victim to the Spaniards, who came unexpectedly upon him, and slew him. It is, however, consoling to observe, that the conspirators were not permitted to enjoy the immediate fruit of their iniquitous proceedings. Several died in their passage home, in the course of which by far the most valuable parts of their spoils were lost;

lost; and some of those who arrived at Plymouth were seized on their landing, and committed to prison, at the suit of Barker's brother, as accessories to the death of the captain. A sort of compromise was at last effected; after a strict examination, the ringleaders were sentenced to a long imprisonment, instead of that death which was thought the desert of their crimes.

THE Russia Company, desirous of finding a passage by the north-east beyond Weygatz, through the frozen ocean, to China and the Indies, in 1580 fitted out and commissioned captains JACKMAN and PETT, with two barks, to realize their wishes. They sailed from Harwich in May, and encountered many difficulties and much ice. Pett arrived in the Thames on Christmas day, but Jackman was lost, and the purpose of their sailing remained uneffected, as it was, most probably, impracticable.

IN April 1584 the captains AMIDAS and BARLOW, empowered and employed by the society incorporated for that purpose, sailed for the discovery of unknown parts of America. On the 10th of May they passed the Canaries, and on the 10th of June fell in with the southern American islands. The 2d of July they touched on the coast of Florida, and two days afterwards they discovered

and took possession of an island then called Wokoken, but since Virginia.

“ The queen (says our author) was so well pleased with the account given of this place, that, as the greatest mark of honour she could do to the discovery, she called the country by the name of Virginia; as well because it was first discovered in her reign, as a virgin queen, as because it did still seem to retain the virgin purity and plenty of the first creation, and the people their primitive innocence; for they seemed not debauched or corrupted with those pomps and vanities which had depraved and enslaved the rest of mankind; neither were their hands hardened by labour, nor their minds corrupted by the desire of hoarding up treasure. They were without boundaries to their land; without property in cattle; and seemed to have escaped, or rather not to have been concerned in, the first curse, *Of getting their bread by the sweat of their brows*, for by their pleasure alone they supplied all their necessities; that is, by fishing, fowling, and hunting; skins being their only cloathing, and these laid aside by far the greater part of the year; living without labour, and only gathering the fruits of the earth when ripe, or fit for use; nor fearing present want, nor solicitous for the future; but daily finding sufficient afresh for their sustenance.”

EQUIPPED and supported by several opulent individuals, captain JOHN DAVIS, a veteran seaman, made three unsuccessful attempts for the disclosure of the north-west passage, during the years 1585 and 1586.

VERY different were the circumstances which characterized captain PARKER's expedition to the West Indies in 1601. His whole force, acquired at the charge of a few merchants, consisted of two ships, one of 130, and the other of 60 tons, with about 220 men. With this he sailed in November, and reduced St. Vincent. Steering now for the coast of America, he took the town of La Ranchieria in the island of Cubagua; and then proceeding to Porto Bello, and entering the port by moonlight, he attacked the place by surprize, which, in spite of the gallant defence of Don Pedro Melindez, he carried by assault, and took Don Pedro prisoner. The greater part of the booty, which was considerable, Parker divided amongst his men. He then liberated Melindez, out of respect to his courage; spared the place, because it was well built, and the destruction of it could not profit him; and set his prisoners unconditionally at large, because the money with which they might have been ransomed was already in the hands of his crews. He returned with real glory to Plymouth, on May the 6th, 1602, respected by his enemies and admired by his friends.

IN 1602 captain GOSNOLD, a distinguished mariner, first ascertained the way of crossing the Atlantic to North America, without deviating to the West Indies, and passing the dangerous gulph of Florida.

WE are now brought to the close of a reign in which many sources of trade were either opened or established, and

and every branch of it was uniformly and effectually encouraged, wisely regulated, and powerfully protected. We have seen the rise of that important society, the East India Company, and the beginning of that extensive power which led to the colonization of North America. Elizabeth, with many faults, still attracts the veneration of posterity; for under her did the naval power of this country assume its decided superiority, and by her was that mighty engine first wielded with resistless force and immortal fame.





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SR WALTER RALEIGH

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

OCCUPIED in treaty, or directed to colonization, the successor of Elizabeth, himself pacific, gave no scope to the genius of war, and his reign afforded but little employment to the experienced and enterprising naval character. Sir Walter Raleigh is the only eminent seamen whose services, though partly achieved under the government of Elizabeth, more naturally devolved to the reign of James I.

The family of the Raleighs are traced beyond the conquest; and of this family there were three branches. Walter was the second son of Walter Raleigh, esq. of the county of Devon, by Catherine, daughter of sir Philip Champernon of Madbury, his third wife. He was born in 1552, at Hayes, a pleasant farm, situate in the part of Devonshire that borders on the sea. The first part of his education he received near the place of his nativity, after which he was removed to Oxford, where he is discovered to have been a student of Oriel College so early as the year 1563; but how long he remained in this station is not decided. Equally uncertain is the account that he became afterwards a member of the Middle Temple. It is, however, ascertained that he was in France in 1570, and shortly after in the Netherlands. These were the scenes to which the youth of family and fortune

fortune in this age resorted, to acquire the knowledge of arms and the polish of gentlemen: and here Walter passed about five years of his time, which he so truly improved, that at his return he was considered among the most accomplished personages of an era in which the graces and qualifications of gentility were by no means rare—at an era in which a vigorous and cultivated mind, fine taste, and a noble enthusiasm of soul, were indispensably requisite to the formation of an exalted character. It was 1578 when Raleigh returned to England, and he immediately engaged himself with his brother-in-law, Gilbert, in an unsuccessful voyage to North America.

On the termination of the North American adventure, Raleigh was employed in Ireland, where he performed much valuable service, first under the president of Munster during the year 1580, and afterwards under the illustrious earl of Ormond in 1581. His merits began already to attract envy, and he was recalled. But the cloud was quickly dissipated; Elizabeth ascertained his worth, and he spent the greater part of 1582 at court, expressly patronized by the queen. Undismayed by their recent disaster, Raleigh again coalesced with Gilbert in 1583, to effect a second expedition to America; and though the fate of the present was still more unfortunate than that of the preceding, it did not allay his desire of making discoveries in this quarter. In 1584 he fitted out that little fleet which, under the command of Amidas and Barlow, discovered Virginia. He was, about this time, made knight of the shire for Devon, and his parliamentary exertions were of such a nature as to procure him the honour of knighthood from a sovereign who was
never

never seen to bestow unmerited or unmeaning distinctions.

From 1585 to 1588 he was employed in fitting out several adventures, of which four sailed to Virginia, and another was a partnership concern with Davis's voyage for the discovery of the north-west passage. Two of these undertakings were productive; while at home he was made seneschal of the dutchies of Cornwall and Exeter, and lord warden of the stannaries of Devonshire and Cornwall. He had before derived from the crown some eligible grants; and this addition of favour, though honourably acquired, and afterwards as patriotically employed, served to increase and exasperate his adversaries. His advice respecting the reception of the armada, the defence of the country, and the skill and valour which he evinced in combating the enemy, impressed the queen with a yet deeper sense of his worth; and, on the result of that conflict, she made some munificent additions to his revenue. Nearly at the same time sir Walter Raleigh disposed of all his right, title, and interest, in the colony of Virginia, to a number of merchants. There were two motives by which he seems to have been incited to this measure—he wished to realize a certain property, that should enable him to prosecute further adventures; and he thought that a society were more likely than an individual to yield the resources necessary to the supply of an infant settlement. He afterwards engaged in restoring Don Antonio to the crown of Portugal, and the next year made a voyage to Ireland. During this voyage he formed a project for attacking the Spaniards, and capturing the plate-fleet.

He failed on this expedition May the 6th, 1592, but had

had hardly cleared the English coasts when he was re-manded by the queen's letters of recall, and sir Martin Frobisher succeeded him in the command of the fleet, which, however, had the good fortune to master the *Madre de Dios**, at that time one of the principal ships belonging to Portugal.

Sir Walter Raleigh had now an interval of repose from the toil of distant adventures. It afforded him leisure for the further display of his abilities; and his speeches at this time in parliament, of which some remains are yet preserved, almost challenge the palm of admiration from his great naval and military talents. But neither the energy of his mind, nor his persevering activity, could secure him from the approach of passions less elevated, but not less powerful. He became deeply enamoured of Mrs. Throckmorton, one of Elizabeth's ladies of honour. The character of the queen did not permit that indulgence to Raleigh which she had denied to Leicester and Essex, and he was, for a time, obliged to withdraw from court.

* This carrack, the most considerable capture made by the English during the war, was in burden no less than 1600 tons, of which 900 were merchandize. She carried 32 pieces of brass ordnance, and about 700 passengers; was built with decks, seven story, one main or lope, three close decks, one fore-castle, and a spare deck, of two floors each. She was in length from the beak head to the stern 165 feet; in breadth near 47 feet; the length of her keel 100 feet; of the main mast 121 feet; its circuit, at the partners, near 11 feet; and her main-yard 106 feet. Her lading consisted principally of spices, drugs, silks, calicoes, carpets, quilts, cloth of the rind of trees, ivory, porcelain, and ebony; besides pearl, musk, civet, ambergris, and other stores of inferior estimation. The cargo freighted ten ships for London: it was originally valued, by the captors, at above £. 400,000 sterling, though by plunder and a reduced computation this sum became diminished to £. 150,000, at which it sold.

The casual secessions of great men from public-life, in whatever causes they originate, whether voluntary or otherwise, have not seldom produced something of more consequence to the state than might have accrued from their ordinary labours. Thus it was in this retirement that sir Walter Raleigh had leisure to indulge and digest a plan for the discovery of Guiana, in South America. Here he collected all the necessary information, while he employed captain Whiddon to reconnoitre that extensive coast; and, having done this, he presented the outlines of his project to government, of whom he obtained those powers which were requisite to its execution.

On the 6th of February, 1595, Raleigh sailed from Plymouth. He arrived at Trinidada on the 22d of March, where he with ease mastered the city of St. Joseph, and took the governor, Antonio Boreo, prisoner. From this Spaniard he gained such intelligence relative to Guiana as induced him to proceed immediately up the river Oronoque. Many of the petty princes of Guiana resigned their sovereignties into the hands of Raleigh, on behalf of Elizabeth; and he returned home both with glory and riches*.

This voyage ought to have decided speculation; the value of Guiana remained no longer a matter of conjecture: yet, the account even of Raleigh himself did not succeed in satisfying the party who had incessantly opposed his ideas, and whose clamour had created him but too

* Sir Walter Raleigh has left a very pleasing and satisfactory account of this voyage, entitled, "The Discovery of the large, rich, and beautiful Empire of Guiana, with a relation of the great and golden city Manao, called by the Spaniards El Dorado, and performed in the year 1595 by sir Walter Raleigh." Imprinted at London by Robert Robinfon, 4to. 1596.

many opponents. The contest became so earnest, that Raleigh found himself compelled to substantiate his narrative by evidence. Having, to this end, fitted out two ships, the *Delight* and the *Discovery*, he sent them under the command of captain Kemeys to Guiana. Kemeys performed his mission successfully; he returned with such a description of Guiana, such a corroboration of Raleigh's account, as might have converted any impartial person to the belief of Raleigh's statement: but there are men who listen to arguments only that they may not be convinced.

During the greater part of 1596 he was employed in the expedition to Cadiz, under Howard and Essex. Whatever advantages resulted from this attack seem to have been peculiarly effected by the bravery and judgment of Raleigh, as all its mistakes were on the other hand as certainly owing to the impetuosity and inexperience of Essex. On his return he reverted to his favourite scheme, the conquest and settlement of Guiana.

While, however, he perceived himself as yet unqualified to execute the great features of his design, he was solicitous not to lose the benefits of an uninterrupted communication with Guiana. Indeed, this was a line of conduct which he could not consistently avoid. He had pledged himself to the natives, beyond the power of retraction, speedily to return among them, and assume, in the name of his sovereign, their proffered empire. This he could not at present fulfil; and it was therefore incumbent on him, at least, to visit Guiana, and revive his promises. Captain Leonard Bertie was accordingly sent out by sir Walter, in a stout pinnace, to Guiana, where he arrived in the month of March 1597. Bertie executed

cuted his office with much ability. Meantime, Raleigh was conjoined with Essex in a new expedition to the West-Indies, from which he returned with considerable credit, though that favourite laboured hard to fix on Raleigh his own miscarriages and demerits.

In 1599 Sir Walter Raleigh was made vice-admiral of the fleet then equipped on the alarm of a second armada. In 1600 he was sent, with lord Cobham, on an embassy to the states general; and, as a reward for recent services, towards the close of the same year, he was made governor of Jersey.

Among the number who interested themselves to suppress the insurrection of Essex, in the following February, was sir Walter Raleigh. He took a very conspicuous part on this occasion*; advised the death, and afterwards

* The following letter to sir Robert Cecil, while it supplies the reader with a short specimen of Raleigh's literary talents, will also best illustrate the sentiments which he entertained of Essex:

SIR,

I AM not wise enough to give you advice; but, if you take it for a good counsel to relent towards this tyrant, you will repent it when it shall be too late. His malice is fixt, and will not evaporate by any of your mild courses; for he will ascribe the alteration to her majesty's pusillanimity, and not to your good nature, knowing that you work but upon her humour, and not out of any love towards him. The less you make of him, the less he shall be able to harm you and yours. And, if her majesty's favour faile him, he will againe decline to a common person. For after-revenges fear them not: for your own father, that was esteemed to be the contriver of Norfolk's ruin, yet his son followeth your father's son, and loveth him. Humours of men succeed not, but grow by occasions and accidents of time and power. Somers set made no revenge on the duke of Northumberland's heirs. Northumberland that now is thinks not of Hatton's issue. Kello-

wards attended the execution, of that rebellious earl. His own life had, in fact, been endangered by the practices of Essex, whose partisans, instigated by their employer, had too often succeeded in inflaming the populace against him.

Sir Walter Raleigh attended the queen in her progress in 1601, during which he was selected to confer with the Duc de Biron, who arrived on an embassy from France. In 1603 Elizabeth died, and in her Sir Walter lost his best and steadiest patron, his only sincere friend.

way lives that murdered the brother of Horsey, and Horsey let him go by all his life-time. I could name you a thousand of those, and therefore after-fears are but prophecies, or rather conjectures from causes remote. Look to the present, and you do wisely. His son shall be the youngest earl of England but one, and (if his father be now kept down) Will Cecil shall be able to keep as many men at his heels as he, and more too. He may also matche in a better house than his, and so that fear is not worth the fearing. But, if the father continue, he will be able to break the branches, and pull up the tree root and all. Lose not your advantage; if you do, I note your destiny.

Let the queen hold *Botbwell* while she hath him. He will ever be the canker of her estate and faulty. Princes are lost by security, and preserved by prevention. I have seen the last of her good dayes, and all ours, after his libertye.

Yours, &c.

Sir W. R. to Sir R. C. 1601.

W. R.

There could have been nothing more expressively devised than this assimilation of *Essex* with *Botbwell*—a conspirator whose very name could not fail to conjure up a thousand phantoms of horror in the breasts of Cecil and the queen. He was, like Essex, a favourite; Essex, like him, had turned rebel, and there was no saying where his rebellion might end. It is worthy of remark, that Cecil was afterwards one of the chief instruments in bringing Raleigh to the scaffold.

Unless

Unless his misplaced confidence in Cecil might entitle him to hope, there was nothing to which Raleigh could look forward with pleasure in the prospect of a new reign. He had not intrigued for the favour of James; and if he had, it is highly probable that his quarrels with Essex, to whom this monarch was attached, and the secret representations of Cecil, would have counteracted his supplications and his talents. Not that Raleigh neglected every proper degree of attention to the presumptive successor of Elizabeth: he was not so lost in the contemplation of the descending, as to forget the rising sun. But then his approaches were open, and his language was manly. He had at first little occasion to complain of the want of apparent good-will in his sovereign, but this unsatisfactory sort of kindness was not long maintained. The king's complaisance visibly decreased, and Raleigh and Cecil* came to decided hostilities.

Just

* Sir Robert Cecil, who had been his friend and associate so long as they were both in danger from Essex, foreseeing that if ever Raleigh came into King James's confidence, his administration would not last long, drew such a character of him to that prince as he thought most likely to disgust him; and dwelt particularly upon this, that Raleigh was a martial man, and would be continually forming projects to embarrass him with his neighbours. Sir Walter in return for this good office did him another; for he drew up a memorial, wherein he shewed plainly that the affection of the Cecils for his majesty was not the effect of choice, but of force; that, in reality, it was chiefly through the intrigues of one of that family his mother lost her head, and that they never thought of promoting his succession till they saw it would take place in spite of them. This memorial was far from having the effects he expected; nor indeed would he have expected them, if he had known King James thoroughly. That timorous prince saw the power of Cecil at that time, and thought he had need of it, for-

Just at this time, while the king's mind was full of suspicion and Cecil active in his ruin, Raleigh was imprudent enough to enter into an intimacy with Lord Cobham, a nobleman greatly suspected of improper attachment to the cause of Spain, and of consequent disaffection to the person and government of king James. Cobham appears to have been a weak man, who suffered himself to be drawn into treasons in which he had in reality no share; and in which, by mere implication, Raleigh was also unfortunately involved. In that hurry and disquietude which always characterise the timorous in moments of exigency, Cobham disclosed enough to ruin his friend. Raleigh was arrested; tried November 17, 1603, at Winchester, and, by "the bawling and Billingsgate eloquence of the attorney-general Coke," who prevailed upon the jury to believe what the evidence did not go to establish, found guilty of high-treason*! But James, who was probably ashamed of the farce, did not think proper to order the execution of his

getting that it was the effect of his own favour, and so became dependent upon him, as he afterwards was upon Buckingham, whom for many years he trusted but did not love. This, with his aversion to all martial enterprises, engaged him to turn a deaf ear to sir Walter's proposals, and perhaps to do more than this, if we are so favourable to Cecil as to suppose that he did not afterwards persecute Raleigh without a cause, I mean without personal offence given to him.

* The only imputation (if imputation it may be called) that ever attached to Raleigh, was a vague account of Cobham's having proposed to him a good sum of money if, instead of opposing (as he had hitherto done), he would, in parliament, do his best to forward a peace with Spain. Raleigh never hesitated to own the existence of such a proposition; but remarked that "it was rather hard to die for having once heard a vain man say a few idle things."

delinquent;

delinquent; though, as events proved, he only reserved him to a more convenient season. At present things took a more agreeable turn: he was allowed, in the first instance, the society of his wife, who had long petitioned to be permitted to soften the rigour of her husband's fate; the restitution of his goods, &c. for the benefit of his family, and soon after that of his estates followed the restoration of his wife—but of the estates he was almost as instantly deprived, on discovery of a flaw on the original conveyance, and they were granted to Robert Carr, afterwards earl of Somerset.

In 1617, after a confinement of thirteen years, he was at length released from the tower. Though a great part of this period had been dedicated by him to the prosecution of his studies, and to the composition of his great work, *The History of the World*, and other valuable publications; it may be reasonably concluded, that no mean portion of those years was occupied in the formation of important enterprizes, and tinged with the melancholy reflection, that to him was denied the privilege of exerting himself in that sphere in which he might best subserve the interests and advance the glory of his country.

That he had been engrossed by such reflections was sufficiently evidenced by his present proceedings. He was released, but he did not repose; he did not exchange the solitude of a prison for the seclusion of inactive life: the elasticity of his mind was undepressed, and the concern uppermost in his conduct was his old project for settling Guiana. He obtained a commission from the crown, empowering him to discover and take possession

of any countries in South America which were inhabited by heathens: and happy had it been for him and the country could he have suppressed the undue influence of Spain in the English councils; an interposition that obliged him to reveal the objects of his voyage, the nature of his force, &c. and by which the enemy were enabled to frustrate the effects of his invaluable designs. The commission is dated August the 26th, in the fourteenth year of the king's reign over England, and the fiftieth over Scotland. He obtained, however, no more than his commission from the king, for the expence was entirely defrayed by the joint stock of Raleigh and his friends.

This fleet must have been collected with much cost, for it consisted of nine good ships ably officered and well manned, besides a number of gentlemen who formed a species of volunteers. It left the Thames on the 28th of March 1617; but it was detained at Plymouth, and again at Cork, by unfavourable weather, so that it did not reach Guiana till November. Here, however, Raleigh's illness, which had gained upon him during the latter part of the voyage, increased to such a height, that he was obliged to delegate Captain Keymis to the discovery of the mine. Nothing but disappointment ensued. Keymis was himself discovered and attacked by the Spaniards, and in the contest Sir Walter's son fell. All this time Raleigh remained at Trinidad, nearer death than life, alternately torn by fear and hope. He was not in a condition to bear the news of a defeat: he told Keymis that "he had undone him, and wounded his credit with the king past recovery." Nor was Keymis, more unfortunate than culpable, calculated to sustain

tain this reproach : he immediately retired to his cabin, where, finding the discharge of his pistol not decisive of his end, he thrust a knife into the aperture which the ball had made, and thereby terminated his existence.

Raleigh returned to Plymouth in July 1668, where he found a royal proclamation extant, dated June the 11th, publicly disapproving his conduct, and requiring such as were acquainted with any relative particulars to give information thereof to the council. As Raleigh was proceeding towards London, intending to surrender himself, he was met by his kinsman sir Lewis Stucley, who had undertaken to perform the Judas of this tragedy. He incited Raleigh to effect his escape into France, then secured him, and accused him of that design ; upon which he was committed to the Tower.

His fate was determined : James, enraged at the failure of an expedition from which he had promised himself incalculable wealth, and bent to gratify Spain, with whom he sought a matrimonial alliance for his son Charles, had consented to Raleigh's death : but it was still more difficult than ever to effect his destruction with any appearance of justice. After the strictest examination nothing worthy of legal judgment could be drawn from his conduct in Guiana : it was therefore resolved to call down that judgment upon his former sentence ! But here was manifest impropriety and injustice together. By that commission which had superseded his sentence he became a pardoned man, or he was nothing. One clause of the commission constitutes him general and commander in chief of the enterprize ; another gives him almost unlimited authority, as governor, over the new country ; a third empowers him to exercise

martial-law as the king's lieutenant-general:—could such powers be vested in a condemned man? Sir Francis, afterwards the great lord, Bacon thought not. “Sir,” said that able lawyer to Raleigh, who consulted him whether it would not be adviseable to give a good round sum for a pardon in common form, “the knee-timber of your voyage is money; spare your purse in this particular; for upon my life you have a sufficient pardon already, the king having, under his broad seal, made you admiral of your fleet, and given you power of the martial law over your officers and soldiers.” Sir Walter, notwithstanding, was taken out of his bed in a hot fit of the ague, and brought to the bar of the king's bench, where his commission was overruled, no attention paid to his defence of the affair of Guiana, but the king's warrant for execution, which had been signed and sealed beforehand, precipitately produced*.

On

* This transaction is of such importance as to warrant the introduction of the following judicious observations from Campbell.—“It is a maxim in our law, that the king can do no wrong: and most certain it is, that no king can do legal wrong, that is to say, can employ the law to unjust purposes. Sir Walter Raleigh after his conviction was dead in law, and, therefore, if king James's commission had not the virtue of a pardon, what was it? Did it empower a dead man to act, and not only to act, but to have a power over the lives and estates of the living? It either conveyed authority, or it did not: if it did convey authority, then sir Walter was capable of receiving it; that is, he was no longer dead in law, or, in other words, he was pardoned; if it conveyed no authority, then this was an act of legal wrong.—I cannot help the blunder; the absurdity is in the thing, and not in my expression. A commission under the privy-seal, granted by the king, with the advice of his council, to a dead man; or, to put it otherwise, a lawful commission given to a man dead in law, is nonsense not to be endured; and, therefore, to avoid this, we must conceive, as Bacon and every other lawyer did, that the commission included or rather conveyed a pardon. Indeed the same thing may be made out in much fewer words.

—Grace

On Thursday the 29th of October, 1618, the very day following his condemnation, sir Walter Raleigh was brought out for execution on a scaffold which had been erected in Old Palace Yard. Sir Walter, though it was the last morning of his life, had made a hearty breakfast, and smoked his pipe with great cheerfulness. Upon the scaffold he conversed easily with several of the attending nobility, clearing himself from all treasonable imputations, and particularly vindicating his late expedition to Guiana. His contempt of death was so evident, as to induce Dr. Tounson, at that time dean of Westminster, and afterwards bishop of Salisbury, who conducted the devotional part of the scene, to expostulate with him upon this disposition of mind. But sir Walter soon impressed the good dean with a very different opinion of his feelings. He told him that "he never feared death, and much less then, for which he blessed God! that as to the manner of it, though to others it might seem grievous, yet, for himself, he had rather die so than in a burning fever." That this was the effect of christian fortitude, Dr. Tounson became perfectly convinced; "and I think (says the doctor, in his letter to sir John Isham) all the spectators at his death." Baker, in his Chronicle, says, "A scaffold was erected in the Old Palace Yard, upon which, after fourteen years reprieve-ment, sir Walter Raleigh's head was cut off. At which time such abundance of blood issued from the veins as

—Grace is not so strong a mark of royal favour as trust; and, therefore, where the latter appears, the law ought, and in fact does, presume the former. This judgment, therefore, did not only murder sir Walter Raleigh, but, in this instance, subverted the constitution; and ought to be looked upon, not only as an act of the basest legal prostitution, but as the most flagrant violation of justice that ever was committed."

shewed

shewed he had a stock of nature enough left to have continued him many years in life (though now above three-score years old), if it had not been taken away by the hand of violence. He had many things to be commended in his life, but none more than his constancy at his death, which he took with so undaunted a resolution, that one might perceive he had a certain expectation of a better life after it*.”

Such was the end of sir Walter Raleigh, a man who certainly merited the best rewards which it was in the power of his country to bestow. His services were of the highest kind. He was an able soldier; a vigilant, skilful, and intrepid sailor; and, in both capacities, an excellent disciplinarian. As a statesman he greatly excelled; for he was a sound and practical philosopher, and a clear and impressive orator. When soliciting his release from the tower, “To die for the king, and not by the king,” he said, “is all the ambition I have in the world:” and such was the loyalty of Raleigh, that, at length, after obtaining his release, and performing his meritorious, though unfortunate voyage to Guiana, when unjustly subjected to all the contumely of criminal death, he still gloried in asserting his attachment to a prince who had not scrupled to sacrifice him to his enemies, and the enemies of his country!

He was not less an ornament to domestic than to public life. Here, the urbanity of his manners and the

* As to the infamous sir Lewis Stucley, who had betrayed Raleigh, he was taken soon after in Whitehall, clipping the very gold which was the produce of his infamy, and tried and condemned for it; and having stripped himself to his shirt, to raise money to purchase his pardon, he banished himself to the island of Lundy, where he died, both mad and a beggar, in less than two years after sir Walter Raleigh.

suavity of his temper spread around a continual charm. He was constitutionally cheerful; and, in his relaxed hours, rather addicted to the use of tobacco*. But he filled the nobler relations of home with dignity and love. He was an affectionate husband, an excellent and amiable parent, a warm and steady friend, and a beneficent master.

* A pleasant anecdote is related of Raleigh concerning his use of tobacco. He was enjoying his pipe in solitude, forgetful that he had ordered his servant to attend him with a goblet of ale. The faithful domestic suddenly entering the study, and finding, as he thought, his master's brains on fire, and evaporating in smoke and flame through his nostrils, did his utmost to extinguish the conflagration, by emptying his goblet on sir Walter's head; and, rushing out of the room, alarmed the family with an account of the frightful scene he had witnessed.

GEORGE CLIFFORD,
EARL OF CUMBERLAND.

THIS able and enterprising nobleman was the elder son of Henry earl of Cumberland by his second wife, Anne, daughter to William lord Dacres. He was born about the year 1559. Under the guardianship of his uncle Francis, the second earl of Bedford, he was sent to the university of Cambridge, where he highly distinguished himself by his progress in mathematical studies; a proficiency which reflected considerable honour on the abilities and assiduity of his tutor Dr. Whitgift, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury. By his gaiety and speculations, he materially dilapidated the worth of his paternal revenues: he was fond of tilting and tournaments, and his attachment to the practice of voyaging furnished him with ample employment for the remains of his great family property. He is celebrated as the first English subject who built a ship of eight hundred tons burden.

In 1586 the earl fitted out a little fleet, which sailing to the coasts of Spain, committed several depredations on the enemy, against whom he also acted, with merited success, in 1588. The queen was so sensible of his services in the affair of the armada, that, towards the close of the same year, she granted him a patent for the prosecution of a voyage to the south. It is, however,

to be regretted that this his second undertaking ended less favourably than might have been expected from the talents of its projector.

But the earl of Cumberland was intent on realizing views from which he could not be easily diverted. During the summer of 1589 he sailed with a good squadron* to the Tercera islands; reduced Fayal, from whence he took forty-five pieces of cannon, and compelled Graciosa to treat. He added to these advantages the capture of a prize valued at upwards of 100,000*l.* but this was unfortunately lost in Mount's Bay, on the Cornish coast, together with captain Lister, who preceded the rest of the fleet, charged with the custody of their treasure. After experiencing many hardships and encountering many dangers, the earl arrived in England, in the commencement of 1590. Though deprived of his booty, he returned home covered with laurels; for the action at Fayal was one of the sharpest and best-conducted engagements to be found in the naval history of England. He employed the year 1592 in another expedition into those parts, which was attended but with indifferent prosperity; and in the same way, though with fewer disadvantages, he passed the whole of 1593. The years 1594-5-6 were successively occupied by the earl of Cumberland in similar adventures, with little variation of circumstances.

It was 1598 before he entered upon the most import-

* He procured one of the royal ships, the *Victory*, to which were added, at his lordship's expence, the *Megg*, captain (afterwards sir W.) Monson; the *Margaret*, captain Careless; and the *Caravel*, captain Pigeon: these were manned with four hundred soldiers and mariners. The earl commanded the *Victory*, assisted by captain Lister.

ant of his enterprizes. Whether we consider the proposed effect of this expedition; or the spirit of that individual, who could, at his own cost, prepare a fleet of such magnitude and importance*; the subject becomes equally worthy our attention, and fully entitled to our applause.

They left Plymouth March 6, 1598, purposing to intercept the Lisbon fleet in its passage to the East Indies. In this, however, they were disappointed by the vigilance of the Spaniards, who discovered and evaded the design. They now sailed to the Canaries, and afterwards to America. Disease was at length added to disappointment, and the fleet compelled to return; the great objects of its destination unaccomplished. He had, indeed, prevented the sailing of the carracks, the return of the plate fleet from America, and considerably harassed the Spaniards; but his recompence was wholly inadequate to his toils, his booty short of his expences.

He was knighted in 1592; and, in 1600, made governor of the East India company, which became that year incorporate, and consisted of 215 proprietors.

The earl of Cumberland died early in the reign of

* It is but mere justice to the memory of George Clifford, earl of Cumberland, to particularize the extent of this equipment. There were, the Scourge of Malice, admiral, the earl, assisted by captain Watts; the Merchant Royal, vice-admiral, captain Flicke; the Samson, captain Clifford; the Alcedo, captain Ley; the Consent, captain Slingsby; the Prosperous, captain Langton; the Centurion, captain Palmer; the galleon Constance, captain Foljambe; the Affection, captain Fleming; the Guiana, captain Colthurst; the Scout, captain Joliffe; the Anthony, captain Caveles; the Pegasus, captain Goodwin; the Royal Defence, captain Bromley; the Margaret and John, captain Dixon; the Barkley Bay, captain Cotch; the old Frigat, captain Harper.

James, by whom he was much respected. This event took place at his house in the Savoy, on October the 30th, 1605; when he left issue by his wife Margaret, daughter of Francis earl of Bedford, a daughter and heir called Anne.

DISCOVERIES.

To that extension of commerce and navigation which forms the most interesting part of the reign of James the First, a few pages of this work may be not improperly devoted: for, during this period, colonization was prosecuted with vigour and success, and many sources of trade were effectually ascertained and beneficially established.

As the expedition of Levison and Monson will be treated of in the life of Monson, Captain PRING's voyage to Virginia in 1603, standing foremost in chronological succession, is the first adventure for discovery which occurs under the reign of James. The chief object of this equipment appears to have been in quest of sassafras, with which they were so fortunate as to return well laden. But sassafras did not wholly engross their pursuit. Among other curiosities they brought home one of the boats which were used by the wild inhabitants of Virginia. This, which was made of the bark of the birch-tree, was sewed together with twigs, the seams being covered or secured with rosin and turpentine; and, though it was seventeen feet long, four feet broad, and calculated to contain nine persons, the weight of the boat did not amount to quite sixty pounds. In the course of this year, 1603, Captain BENNET, at
 about

about 74 degrees and 30 minutes to the northward, discovered a place which he called Cherie Island, in honour of the gentleman, a Mr. Francis Cherie, at whose adventure the voyage had been made.

DURING the year 1604, Captain LEIGH made a resolute attempt to form a settlement on the coast of Guiana. He obtained of the natives some ground on the banks of the Guiapoee, to which he gave the name of Mount Howard; and but for the flux, which soon after began its ravages among the English, he would probably have effected a design of evident utility to his country.

ANOTHER voyage was undertaken to Virginia in 1605. Captain WEYMOUTH, the officer to whom this business was entrusted by the earl of Southampton and lord Arundel, arrived first at Long Island, and afterwards discovered Connecticut River; he traded with the savages, was particularly delighted with the place, and returned.

The first attempt towards a regular colonization of New England occurs in the year 1606. It will easily be recollected, that this part of the American continent was first distinguished by the captains Barlow and Amidas; that sir Francis Drake, when he touched here on his return from the West Indies in 1586, was the first Englishman who landed in these parts, and to whom one of the Indian kings submitted his territory; and that cap-

tain Gosnoll, who made a little stay in the same place, gave such a report of New England as to attract the attention of his adventurous countrymen, some of whom immediately procured a charter* to colonize in any part of that country lying between 38 and 45 degrees of north latitude. The present voyage was placed under the conduct of CHALLONS, who proved very unfortunate. Captain POPHAM endeavoured to prosecute the scheme, but with no better success.

Virginia still secured the attention of the mercantile world, by whom † at length a settlement was begun in the southern district of this state. The circumstances attending the formation of the settlement resemble more the phantasies of romance, than the regular progress of events. Under the conduct of captain SMITH, who is represented to have been as able a seaman, as the course of the narrative will prove him an intrepid leader, the

* This charter was made to Thomas Hanham, Rawleigh Gilbert, William Parker, and George Popham, esqrs.; and other gentlemen of Plymouth.

† Some merchants of London, Bristol, Exeter, and Plymouth, joined in a petition to the Throne, setting forth—"That it was too much for any single person to attempt the settling of Colonies, &c.: they, therefore, prayed his Majesty to incorporate them, enable them to raise a joint stock for the purpose, and countenance their undertaking." Accordingly by Letters Patent, dated April 10th, 1606, the petitioners were incorporated, in one charter, into two distinct colonies, and to make two distinct companies, for the colonization of Virginia. This patent included Maryland, Virginia, and Carolina, for the London adventurers; and New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, for the Plymouth adventurers: but the whole was then called Virginia. The adventurers specified are—Sir Thomas Gates, sir George Sommers, Mr. Richard Hackluyt, and Edward Maria Wingfield, Esq.; Thomas Hanham, Rawleigh Gilbert, William Parker, and George Popham, esquires.

little fleet destined for Virginia, after many delays and mistakes, arrived at the mouth of Chesapeak Bay, on the 26th of April 1607. Landing on the southern cape of this bay, they built fort Henry; and, soon after, on the northern, fort Charles: they now discovered a river, at that time called Powhatan, to which they gave the name of James River, in honour of their sovereign. They then proceeded to erect a town; and to this they gave the same appellation as to the river. It was now that Smith began to feel the effects of that malice which great ability and beneficial exertion seem fated to experience. His enemies, accusing him of mutinous and tyrannical designs, did not scruple to impeach, and for a time imprisoned the very man to whom they were indebted for their success. But Wingfield, his arch-adversary, was at length detected, deposed from his authority, and Smith restored to his friends. These tumults once calmed, all things seemed easily progressive: they built, traded, cultivated the land, and dispatched two ships homeward. A state of things so propitious to the young colony was, however, suddenly interrupted by a circumstance that had nearly proved fatal to the settlers. In a neck of land, at the back of James-town, there was found a fresh stream of water, springing from a small bank, which washed down in its course a yellow kind of dust-ifinglass; and this, as it lay glittering at the bottom of the water, was mistaken by our adventurers for gold. All business became immediately neglected, all defence discontinued; and in the height of childish exultation, Peru and Mexico were despised, as inferior to this invaluable stream. Great, however, as might be

the worth of this discovery ; their town burnt by the Indians, while themselves were filtering the stream, and agriculture and economy discarded, soon convinced them of the inefficacy of their recent pursuits. They were, indeed, reduced to such distress, by the enmities of the natives and the want of provisions, that, had not their two ships returned from England with the necessary supplies, they must have inevitably perished. Yet unconvinced of their delusion, they loaded these ships with the yellow dirt, and dispatched them in triumph home. The accounts returned by the ships, in a short time, effectually cooled the avarice of the adventurers, who now redoubled their colonial labours, and in 1608 gathered Indian corn of their own planting. Thus settled into industry and perseverance, their numbers augmented, their prosperity was confirmed, and Virginia gradually rose into that importance which it afterwards assumed.

IN 1607, Mr. HENRY HUDSON, having made the coast of America, sailed next to that of Greenland, where he discovered the Bay which bears his name. Early in 1608, Hudson set sail in search of a north-east passage to the East Indies. The only remarkable circumstance incident to this expedition was the discovery of a mermaid, which is thus related.—“ On the 15th of June (says the journal) one of our company, looking overboard, saw a mermaid; and calling up some of the company to see her, one more came up, and she was then close to the ship's side, looking earnestly on
the

the men. Soon after, a sea came and overturned her. From the navel upwards her back and breasts were like a woman's, her body as big as one of us, her skin very white, and long black hair hanging down behind: in her going down, they saw her tail—like the tail of a porpoise, and speckled like a mackarel." A third voyage towards Nova Zembla was attempted by Hudson in 1609. In 1610, Hudson made another voyage, in search of the north-west passage, and in this he perished.

Mr. GUY, merchant, and afterwards mayor of Bristol, made a strenuous effort, in 1609, to found an English settlement at Conception Harbour in Newfoundland: it had a partial and temporary success, but his countrymen found it yet impracticable to establish themselves on a shore that had proved so inhospitable to Cabot, Gilbert, and Bernard Drake,

By the desire of prince Henry, sir THOMAS BUTTON undertook a voyage for ascertaining the north-west passage, in 1611. This gentleman, having passed the strait, and left Hudson's bay to the South, sailed above two hundred leagues S. W. through a sea more than eighty fathom deep, and discovered the continent which he denominated New Wales. After wintering at port Nelson, in fifty-seven degrees and ten minutes north latitude, he likewise discovered the great land called Swan's Nest. In the course of this year, the English made their first adventure to Greenland in pursuit of the

whale fishery: they killed a small whale, about June the 12th, which yielded twelve tons of oil, the first they had obtained in these parts.

THE BERMUDAS, which had been discovered by sir George Somers, were settled during the year 1612, by a company erected for that purpose, and who deputed one Mr. Moor their governor. Under the superintendance of this worthy man was begun the present St. George's Town of those islands*.

DURING the years 1614 and 1615, captain FOTHERBY made two voyages of discovery to the northward. Fotherby was fitted out by the Muscovy Company, and gives the following account of his adventures. —“ In the month of June, 1614, I went with the shallop into Maudlin Sound, there to set up the king's arms. I caused a cross to be set up, and the king's arms to be nailed on it; and under it a piece of sheet-lead, with the Muscovy Company's mark, the day of the month, and the year. Then, cutting up a piece of

* The following circumstances seem to merit attention. A few rats, which had issued from on board the ship, multiplied to such a degree as to threaten the entire destruction of the first plantations in the Bermudas. Having continued their devastations for the space of four years, they at length, however, suddenly and completely disappeared, as strangely as they had recently increased. It is as singular, that a number of ravens, who had hovered about the islands during the prevalence of the rats, disappeared with them, and were never seen afterwards.

earth,

earth, I carried it aboard, and, in the presence of the men, said to this effect:

“ I take this piece of earth as a sign of lawful possession of king James’s new land, and of this particular place (which I name Trinity Harbour), taken on behalf of the company of merchants called *The Merchants of New Trades and Discoveries*, for the use of our sovereign lord James, &c. &c.; whose royal arms are here set up, to the end that all people, who shall here arrive, may take notice of his majesty’s right and title to this country, and to every part thereof. God save King James.”

THE year 1616 furnishes us with a memorable engagement, which took place near the Spanish coasts, between the DOLPHIN of London and five Turkish men of war, assisted by a Sattie. The first encounter lasted upwards of two hours, after which the Dolphin was twice assailed by the Turks. During the whole of this severe contest, her crew performed acts of the most astonishing valour, and the enemy at length desisted. “ The losses we received in the aforesaid fights (says the relater of these transactions) were six men and one boy, which were killed outright; and there were hurt eight men and one boy more: but the Lord knows what damage we put them to, and what number we slew in their ships.” — “ The master of the ship (continues the narrator) being at the helm, was shot twice betwixt the legs; and the surgeon, dressing the wounds of one of our men, a ball of wildfire fell into his basin, which

he suddenly cast into the sea, otherwise it had greatly endangered us. The Turks were aboard, and sounded their trumpets; notwithstanding which, our men assaulted them so fiercely, that they forced them off, and the boatswain, seeing them fly, most undauntedly, with a whistle, dared them to the skirmish, if so they durst."

Not less worthy of preservation is the speech with which Mr. Edward Nicholls, the master of the Dolphin, exhorted his men to this noble resistance. Speaking of the enemy's approach, the author thus proceeds: "They seemed prepared for any desperate assault, whereupon we immediately made ready our ordnance and small shot, and with no little resolution prepared ourselves to withstand them. This being done, we went to prayers, and then to dinner, where our master gave us such noble encouragement that our hearts even thirsted to prove the success; and, being in readiness for the fight, our master went upon the poop, and spake to us in the following manner:

"Countrymen and fellows! You see into what an exigency it has pleased God to suffer us to fall. Let us remember that we are but men, and must of necessity die; when, where, and how, is alone in God's knowledge and appointment; but if it be his pleasure that this must be the last of our days, his will be done; and let us, for his glory, our soul's welfare, our country's honour, and the credit of ourselves, fight it valiantly to the last gasp. Let us prefer a noble death before a slavish life; and if we die, let us die to gain a better life. For my part, I will see, if we escape this danger, that, if any be hurt and maimed in the fight, they shall be carefully provided for, for their health and maintenance, as long

as they live. Be, therefore, resolute ; stand to it ; here is no shrinking, We must be either men or slaves. Die with me ; or, if you will not, by God's grace I will die with you."

IN this year, 1620, Mr. Robinson's friends settled themselves at New Plymouth, in NEW ENGLAND ; and this was the first establishment of the English in that extensive colony.

ONE Sir William Curtein having previously explored the country, the English were incited to commence a settlement at BARBADOES in the year 1624. In the same year they also effected a settlement at ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.

THE EAST INDIA COMPANY rose fast into importance during the reign of James, and fitted out a number of voyages from their joint stock.

JAMES THE FIRST died in March 1625, in the 59th year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign over England. The praise to which a few acts of James are entitled will be certainly diminished by a collective view of his proceedings. Though he issued a spirited proclamation prohibiting foreigners to fish on the British coasts, it was never seconded by a conduct worthy of its language. His indifference towards the execrable proceedings

proceedings of the Dutch at Amboyna must for ever stigmatize his character as an independent monarch. He was, however, not inattentive to his navy*; though this care for the interests of his people was rendered almost useless by the shameful inactivity of his reign. That commerce increased, and colonisation was pursued with success by the English, at this era, was rather owing to the enterprising temper of the subject, than to any particular virtue in the monarch. In fact, it is impossible to revert contentedly to the history of a prince who was invariably the dupe of his enemies, and who taught them to ridicule that country which they had hitherto feared.

* In 1610 James built "a most goodly ship for war, the keel whereof was one hundred and fourteen feet long, and the cross beam forty-four feet in length; she would carry sixty-four pieces of great ordnance, and was of the burden of fourteen hundred tons. This royal ship was double built, and was most sumptuously adorned, within and without, with all manner of curious carving, painting, and rich gilding; being, in all respects, the greatest and goodliest ship that ever was built in England: and this glorious ship the king gave unto his son Henry, prince of Wales. On the 24th of September, the king, the queen, the prince of Wales, the duke of York, and the lady Elizabeth, with many great lords, went unto Woolwich to see it launched; but, because of the narrowness of the dock, it could not then be launched; whereupon the prince came the next morning by three o'clock, and then, at the launching thereof, the prince named it after his own dignity, and called it the Prince. The great workmaster in building this ship was Phineas Pet, gent. some time M. A. of Emanuel College, Cambridge."

James went also on board the great East Indian of twelve hundred tons, which was built at Woolwich, and was the first ship of this magnitude launched in England. He called it the Trade's Increase; and a pinnace of two hundred and fifty tons, built at the same time, he called the Peppercorn. Elizabeth's ships of war, at the time of her death, contained about sixteen thousand tons: those in the days of James amounted to twenty thousand tons.

SIR ROBERT MANSEL.

THIS officer, who is allowed, even by his enemies, to have been one of the ablest seamen of the times in which he flourished, was descended of a very ancient and splendid family in Glamorganshire, being the third son of sir Edward Mansel, knt. by Jane, daughter to Henry earl of Worcester. He was early patronised by Howard, afterwards the great earl of Nottingham, who advanced him in the sea-service, and recommended him to the notice of the earl of Essex, from whom he received the honour of knighthood while on the Cadiz expedition, and by whom, during the island voyage, he was made captain of the admiral-ship. On his return from this service, Mansel again applied himself to the favour of his old friend Nottingham, under whose auspices he found continual opportunities of evincing his abilities and courage. It was on one of these occasions, in 1602, that Mansel, meeting with six of the Spanish gallies destined for Flanders, sunk three, and dispersed the others.

Through the interest of Nottingham, sir Robert had been raised to the rank of vice-admiral; a situation that he was fortunate enough to retain under the government of James. Indeed, he was indebted to his first patron

patron for every thing ; and, it must be recorded to his honour, that he was neither insensible nor ungrateful. When the fortunes of Nottingham declined, Mansel for a long time resisted the opponents of that nobleman ; though, when at length he became convinced of his friend's incapacity, he was among the first and most earnest of those who advised the old admiral to decline a post to which he appeared no longer adequate. He was now as importunate with Buckingham to accept, as he had been with Nottingham to decline the station of high admiral * ; and accordingly, when the duke rose to that dignity, he made Mansel vice-admiral for life. Whatever were his subsequent courses, in the first steps of his new career Buckingham submitted himself to the direction of sir Robert Mansel : by his advice, he procured that commission for the management of the navy, without which our naval affairs must have fallen into confusion and ruin.

In 1620 Mansel was made commander of the only memorable expedition that occurs in the annals of James : it was directed against Algiers. The fleet, which consisted of six men of war, and twelve good merchant-ships, came to an anchor in the road of Algiers

* Buckingham, it seems, did not think himself so competent to the trust, but objected his youth and want of experience. To this Mansel replied, that in time of peace the best service that could be done was to look well to the constant repair of the navy, and to rebuild occasionally such ships as wanted it ; and that by applying himself assiduously to the duty of his office, he might acquire all the requisite knowledge before any war should call him into action. Hence it is evident that the duke either had, or affected, a juster opinion of himself, than that which he imbibed from Mansel.

on the 27th of November. It is not difficult to relate the progress of an armament, which just glanced at the enemy and then retired. The Turks conducted themselves with so much politeness that the English could have no excuse for attacking them.

But an enterprize which had excited such great expectations was not to be thus tamely relinquished. In the spring of 1621 another fleet was prepared, and directed to burn the ships in the mole. This second expedition anchored before Algiers on the 21st of May; and, proving ultimately of as little avail as its predecessor, through the unpropitiousness of the wind, returned to England in the month of June. Though the nation was much embittered at the result of these ill-judged enterprizes, it does not appear that any share of culpability was attached by the people to sir Robert Mansel; who, considering the limited nature of his commission, the inexperience of his officers, and the existing circumstances of the case, did as much as it was possible for him to do.

Whether the neglect originated in this unfortunate business, or in the declension of Buckingham's favour, sir Robert, though he retained his professional dignity, was never employed by Charles the First. He died soon after the commencement of the civil wars, without issue, at Greenwich.

SIR WILLIAM MONSON.

SIR William Monson was the fourth son of John Monson, esq. of Lincolnshire, by Mary, daughter to sir Robert Hufsey. He was born about the year 1569.

Though Monson's predilection for sea must have been early discernible, it seems that his father did not encourage his inclination, as young Monson effected his first voyage without the consent, or even the knowledge, of his parents. He was therefore exposed to the hardships usually experienced by those who have the resolution to venture unpatronized into public life. His wages did not exceed ten shillings a month; and in the course of this voyage, which he made during the year 1585, he saw the severest service that ever befel him as a naval character. In the space of two years he acquired, however, such a degree of reputation as to be raised to the command of a ship; and he was afterwards successfully employed throughout the long reign of Elizabeth. From 1589 to 1593 Monson was repeatedly engaged in the expeditions of the earl of Cumberland.

In 1596 he received the honour of knighthood from the earl of Essex, whom he accompanied in the affair of Cadiz; and he afterwards commanded the Rainbow, under the same nobleman, in his island-voyage. He also

also commanded the *Defiance* in the Downs, in 1599; and in 1602, in the capacity of vice-admiral, captured a very valuable carrack. Towards the middle of the latter year, sir William Monson held a distinguished post in the fleet that was appointed to guard the coasts in that critical period which comprised the decease of the queen and the accession of James.

He does not, however, appear to have derived any extraordinary benefit from the performance of this important trust; if we except the command of a small fleet in the narrow seas, which he held from 1604 to 1616, and with which he effectually cleared both the English and Scotch coasts from the depredations of the pirates. Notwithstanding the extent and the duration of his services, sir William Monson had at last the infelicity to incur the displeasure of the great and the reproaches of the multitude. Powerful men were irritated by the spirit with which he pursued an inquiry into the abuses of the navy; and the people were not less displeased that he overtook the lady Arabella, who was at this time the popular favourite, and thereby rendered her flight abortive: though in the first instance he essentially benefited his country, and in the second had merely acted in obedience to the commands of his prince*. To these causes,
operating

* Of a production so much redounding to the fame of sir William Monson, and from which posterity has derived such interesting information, the reader may not be displeased with the following analysis, as it is drawn up with candour and discrimination.—“ This work (the *Naval Tracts*) is divided into six books, all on different subjects, and yet all equally curious and instructive. The first book is, for the most part, a collection of every year's actions, in the war against Spain, on our own, upon the Spanish coast, and

operating against Monson, the Dutch, incensed at his conduct while stationed in the narrow seas, added a variety of complaints; and, in 1616, on some trivial pre-

and in the West Indies: a brief narrative; for no more is said, but the force they were undertaken with, and the success of the enterprize: yet the design is to shew the reasons, either why they miscarried, or why so little advantage was made where they succeeded. In some he is more particular than in others; and, what perhaps may be still of use, he at last sets down the abuses in the fleet, and the methods for redressing them.—His second book continues somewhat of the method of the first, beginning with fatherly instructions to his son; whence he proceeds to the peace with Spain, which puts an end to the warlike naval actions, yet not to his command, being afterwards employed against pirates. He inveighs against the Dutch, shews the ill-management of a design against Algiers, and makes very curious remarks on the attempt upon Cadiz by king Charles I. Disclosing methods how Spain might have been much more endangered; with other particulars about the shipping of England, and sovereignty of the seas.—The third book only treats of the admiralty, that is, of all things relating to the royal navy, from the lord high-admiral to the meanest person employed ashore, and to the cabin boys at sea; and from a complete fleet to the smallest vessel, and the part of it; with instructions for all officers, the size of all sorts of guns, all kinds of allowances on board the king's ships, and excellent directions for fighting at sea; an account of all the harbours in these three kingdoms, with many others, and those important matters, for those times, accurately handled. The fourth book is of a very different nature from any of the rest; being a brief collection of Spanish and Portuguese discoveries and conquests in Africa, Asia and America, with some voyages round the world, and somewhat of the first settling both of English and French plantations. The fifth book is full of projects and schemes for managing affairs at sea to the best advantage for the nation.—The sixth treats of fishing, and is intended to shew the infinite addition of wealth and strength it would bring to England; with such instructions as are necessary for putting such a design in execution."

These Tracts are printed in the third volume of Churchill's Collection of Voyages. It is evident, from the prefaces and dedications, that the author designed them for the press: but he did not live to publish them.

texts, he was committed to the Tower. He was, however, almost immediately released; for nothing worthy of imprisonment could be found against him.

Sir William Monson remained for some time unemployed by Charles the First; but he was at length entrusted, as vice admiral, in 1635, with the command of the James. The fleet in which Monson was thus appointed effectually vindicated the honour of the nation; it established, once more, the superiority of the English flag.

The last years of Sir William Monson were occupied in the composition of his great work, called Naval Tracts. He died in February 1642, at Kynnersley in Surrey, in his 73d year. He left a numerous offspring.

SIR JOHN PENNINGTON.

WHEN we recollect how few were the naval operations that distinguished the distracted reign of Charles the First, sir John Pennington will be found to have enjoyed a multiplicity of employments. Like most of those characters who have made any considerable figure in the maritime history of their country, he early addicted himself to the study of navigation, and sought every occasion in which to strengthen and improve his talents.

Just before his decease, James had engaged to supply the French king with a certain number of ships, to be employed either against Spain or Italy, with which countries the Gallic monarch was then in a state of hostility. As Charles, when he ascended the throne, thought proper to fulfil the engagement entered into by his father, captain Pennington was sent, with the Vanguard and six merchant ships, to the coast of France, and directed to employ his force in the service of that country. Pennington, on his arrival among the French, was therefore exceedingly alarmed when he perceived that the fleet which had been solicited by the French king to act against his foreign adversaries, was in reality meant for the destruction of his protestant subjects of Rochelle.



SIR JOHN PENNINGTON



It is clear that the captain had been himself blinded as to the final designation of his little squadron; since, on remonstrating with the duke of Buckingham against the purposes of our Gallic ally, he received positive orders from that minister to submit the whole of the fleet to the entire direction of the king of France. Pennington was so shocked at this duplicity, that he refused obedience to the order; and returned to the Downs. Had he indeed wished to comply with the mandate, such compliance would, notwithstanding, have been impracticable; for his crews no sooner learnt the purposes for which they had unconsciously sailed, than they instantly weighed anchor and set sail, exclaiming "they would rather be hanged at home, than be slaves to the French and fight against their own religion." Yet Pennington no sooner reached the Downs, but he received a positive order, under the king's sign-manual, to return and deliver himself up to the French. He repaired accordingly to Dieppe, where he resigned the merchant-vessels into the hands of a French officer; but returned, with his crews, in the admiral-ship to England. This conduct does not appear to have injured Pennington in the estimation of his sovereign, since we find him, in 1635, with the rank of rear-admiral, on board the fleet then cruising in the narrow seas. About this time he was raised to the honour of knighthood.

In 1636 sir John Pennington was made vice-admiral of the fleet commissioned to restrict the Dutch from fishing on the British coasts. This fleet had all the success it so justly merited; the Dutch were compelled to take out licences for the fishery, and in every respect to ac-

knowledge the superiority of the English navy. Shortly after, in 1639, he was constituted admiral of the channel fleet, where he conducted himself with credit to his own fame, and advantageously as it respected the country; for he chanced on a very critical situation, in which he was obliged to witness and permit an engagement between the Spaniards and the Dutch.

On the breaking out of the civil wars Pennington remained a faithful subject and sincere friend to his unfortunate monarch. Among his counsels to Charles he earnestly advised, that sir Robert Mansel might be empowered to wrest the English fleet from the hands of Warwick, the rebel-admiral: but the prince was apprehensive that the infirmities of Mansel had rendered him incapable of such a service.





Engr. April 1602 by J. Harding sc. P. Hill scull.

DUKE of BUCKINGHAM

VILLIERS DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM,
LORD HIGH-ADMIRAL.

GEORGE VILLIERS, afterwards duke of Buckingham, was the second son of sir George Villiers of Brokesby, by Mary, daughter to Anthony Beaumont, esq. He was born at Brokesby, August 22d, 1592, and acquired the rudiments of his education in the neighbourhood of his native place. At the age of eighteen, he went for improvement into France, where he remained the three following years. Villiers was about twenty-three years old, when James, in his progress, happened to see him at Althorpe, in Northamptonshire; and from this time his rise into fortune became rapid and decisive. The favourite is described to have been “ of stature tall and comely, his comportment graceful, and of a most sweet disposition.” His predecessor in royal favour was so much in the wane, that the court nobles thought this a favourable opportunity (in the homely metaphor of Dugdale) “ to drive out one nail with another.”

Introduced to the particular notice of the monarch at so favourable a conjuncture, he was almost immediately elevated to the pinnacle of honour and emolument. On the 23d of April, 1615, he was knighted, and had an

annual pension of one thousand pounds, granted to him from the Court of Wards: in 1616 he was made master of the horse, knight of the garter, chief justice of the forests North of Trent, lord whaddon, first viscount Villiers, and afterwards earl of Buckingham: he was also advanced, in January, 1617, to be marquis of Buckingham; and, on the 30th of January that year, he was appointed to the trust of lord high-admiral, sworn of the privy council, and shortly after made chief justice of all the parks and forests South of Trent, master of the king's bench office, high steward of Westminster, and constable of Windsor Castle. In 1623, he was sent on an embassy to Spain, in the execution of which he quarrelled with the Spanish minister, and thereby laid the foundation of the war that afterwards broke out between the two nations. While in Spain, he, however, received the patent by which he was created duke of Buckingham; and, on his return, he was likewise made warden of the Cinque Ports, and steward of Hampton Court. Whether his failure in the design of his mission, which was the marriage of the prince, who had accompanied him, with the Infanta; or the aspersions with which the Spanish minister endeavoured to stain his fidelity, would have succeeded in diminishing the partiality of James for Buckingham, was never decided; as the king died soon after Buckingham's return to England.

The accession of Charles to the throne augmented Buckingham's splendour, and a circumstance that seemed to ensure the stability of his success. He who was cherished by the father may be said to have been loved by
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the son : Buckingham was appointed lord high steward, for the coronation of the young king ; and, in 1625, he was commissioned to convey Henrietta of France, to whom Charles was just united by proxy, into England. He was now employed in embassies to the States General, and still retained the entire countenance of his sovereign, although the parliament repeatedly exerted themselves to impeach and criminate his administration.

The life of Buckingham is not only important to the civil department of history, he is particularly a subject of moment in this place, if his extensive influence over the naval affairs of England be attentively considered. He planned, and in a high degree directed the principal movements of our navy for several years ; and in 1627 commanded in person the greatest fleet that for a long time had proceeded from these coasts.

This fleet, which was destined to relieve the protestants of Rochelle, numbered one hundred sail, and had on board upwards of seven thousand troops. It left Portsmouth on the 27th of June, 1627, and reached the isle of Rhee July the 10th, where the troops disembarked on the last day of the month. The landing was easily effected, and but for the duke's incapacity the whole expedition might have been as successful as the commencement. But his whole conduct formed a series of blunders. He began his approaches with the neglect of La Pré, which covered his landing, which might have instantly come into the possession of his forces, and which, in the hands of the English, would have prevented the French from introducing any supplies. In the beginning of the siege he gained many advantages, in

spite of his folly; but lost them all by listening to a sham treaty, under which the enemy was relieved and succoured. On the sixth of November, when proceeding to a general assault, he at last discovered that the place was inaccessible, and therefore resolved to retreat. The execution of this resolve was of the nature of his preceding conduct. He was compelled to retire over a narrow causeway, with salt pits on each side, and in sight of an enemy, equal in foot and superior in horse; yet no fort was erected, nor an entrenchment thrown up to cover the entrance of the passage. The consequences of such generalship were soon proved by the loss of thirty-five volunteers of rank, fifty officers, and two thousand men. The nation became universally discontented, and the king disgraced in the opinion of foreigners.

Buckingham felt the misery of his situation, and determined by another expedition to recover his recent disasters. All things being in readiness, he repaired to Portsmouth, in order to assume the command of the new expedition. He had just breakfasted with his general officers, when, as he was passing through an entry with sir Thomas Frier, closely engaged in conversation, one John Felton, with a back-blow, stabbed him through the left side, leaving the knife in his body: the duke drew the knife, and then, falling, exclaimed, "the villain hath killed me!" In the confusion that ensued, Felton might have escaped, had he not chosen to declare himself the murderer, and could he have refrained from enjoying the gloomy glory of having killed a man whom he considered the greatest enemy of his country: but
Felton

Felton had read some book "which made it lawful to kill an enemy to the Republic;" and Buckingham had unfortunately roused this resolution in his assassin, by denying him the post of captain in a regiment wherein he had long solicited preferment. Felton's heroism did not, however, outlast his trial, where he begged "that his right hand might be cut off, as a true testimony of his hearty sorrow for destroying so noble and loyal a subject."

Buckingham fell on the 23d of August 1628: his duchess, Catherine, daughter to Francis earl of Rutland, was in the same house, in an upper room, and but just risen; and the court no more than six miles distant. He left issue by this lady three sons and a daughter.

DISCOVERIES AND DETACHED ADVENTURES.

IN the year 1626, SIR THOMAS HERBERT equipped a fleet of five ships, with which he sailed to the East Indies.

CAPTAIN WARRINER, 1628, began a settlement at Mavis, now more commonly called Nevis.

MARYLAND, in Virginia, was settled in 1634, by a colony of Roman catholics, at the head of whom stood the honourable Leonard Calvert, esq. brother to lord Baltimore, the proprietor.

CAPTAIN JAMES, who was fitted out by the merchants of Bristol, made a voyage for the discovery of a north-west passage into the south sea, in the course of 1631. He endured many hardships, which were but poorly counterbalanced by the honour of having named several places at which he touched while at sea.

IN 1636, a settlement was begun at Connecticut, in New England. And, in 1637, a similar establishment took

took place at Newhaven. Thus, the spirit for voyages of discovery began at length to decline; and the countries already discovered seem to have afforded sufficient materials to engage the attention of the mercantile world, the greater portion of which, either as proprietors or traders, were now employed in continual excursions to the foreign settlements of Britain.

AMONG the defects of Charles the First cannot be numbered a neglect of the royal navy, or of the maritime interests of Englishmen. It happened, fortunately for the character of this monarch, that the insolence of the Dutch, which had risen to an unprecedented height during the inglorious period of the late reign, presented him with decided opportunities of asserting the naval superiority of England. Encouraged by the success which they had recently experienced in their attacks on that fundamental prerogative of our island, the Dutch began openly to contest our right to what has been called the dominion of the seas. Hugo Grotius was their spokesman; and his *mare liberum* became the textbook of the Hollanders; till the incontrovertible arguments of the *mare clausum* of Selden, and the spirited language of our ambassador at the Hague*; but, above

* It is not possible for an Englishman to peruse the following extracts from secretary Coke's letter to sir William Boswell, our ambassador at the Hague, without emotions of grateful exultation.——“ We hold it as a principle not to be denied, that the king of Great Britain is a monarch at land and sea, to the full extent of his dominions; and that it concerneth him as much to maintain his sovereignty in all the British seas, as within his three kingdoms; because without that, these cannot
all,

all, Charles's naval preparations soon taught the enemy to respect that power which he had presumed to arraign.

Such indeed was this prince's anxiety to retrieve our naval reputation, that his first unwarranted imposition, the tax called ship-money, was devised in order to enable the crown to prepare a fleet adequate to the exigencies of the times.

Under his reign the commerce of the country experienced also a considerable increase.

be kept safe, nor he preserve his honour and due respect with other nations.—And this cannot be doubted, that whosoever will encroach upon him by sea, will do it by land also, when they see their time. To such presumption, *mare liberum* gave the first warning-piece; which must be answered with a defence of *mare clausum*, not so much by discourses, as by the louder language of a powerful navy, to be better understood, when overstrained patience seeth no hope of preserving her right by other means."

His majesty, some time after, made an order in council, that a copy of Selden's *mare clausum* should be kept in the council-chest, that another should be deposited in the court of exchequer, and a third in the court of admiralty, there to remain as perpetual evidence of our just claim to the dominion of the seas.





Harding sc

ROB^T. BLAKE

Pub^d. December 1799. by Edw^d. Harding 98 Pall Mall.

ADMIRAL BLAKE.

PERHAPS war supplies the only means by which, in general, an usurped government can be prolonged and maintained. While their attention is directed to external enemies, the people have little leisure to attend to the internal proceedings of their rulers, and thus their minds become effectually diverted from the conduct of domestic foes. These observations arise in the history of all regicides and revolutionists, to whose triumphs, and to whose alone, they are strictly applicable; nor is there any thing that more clearly demonstrates the unnatural character of such a power, than the consideration that it can only subsist by those measures which would annihilate regular authority. The commonwealth of England did not in this respect deviate from the usual routine of revolutionary factions. As soon as the men who composed this cabal had succeeded in wresting the fleet from the hands of Charles the First, they consigned it to persons devoted to their cause, and who, they knew, would essentially contribute to render that great instrument of national safety and honour subservient to the consolidation of the new government. They did not permit the English navy to remain under the command of a rebel peer, though he had acquired it to their interest; but immediately

immediately placed it under the direction of officers in whom they could confide : so true is the remark, that a traitor will never be accredited even by those for whom he has forfeited his honour.

Blake was the man to whom the long parliament confided the superintendance of their naval power. This gentleman was descended from a very respectable family, which had been long established in Somersetshire; and was the eldest son of Mr. Humphry Blake, a Spanish merchant, who had several children. Robert Blake, the subject of this biography, was born at Bridgwater, in August 1598, and received the first parts of his education in the free-school of that place. He was afterwards removed to Oxford, where he became successively a member of St. Alban's Hall and Wadham College. He remained at the university seven years, and took a degree; but, meeting with no preferment in the seat of the muses, he left Oxford for more active scenes.

The gravity and probity of young Blake soon attracted the attention of the puritans, by whom, in 1640, he was elected a member for Bridgwater. The speedy dissolution of the parliament into which he had been chosen, prevented Blake from giving the world any proof of his senatorial capacity: but, as he had declared for the parliament, and taken arms on their side, he was early promoted to the command of a dragoon company; a station in which he is said to have displayed great boldness and dexterity. In 1643 he had at Bristol an opportunity of evincing the character of his genius. On the 26th of July, when prince Rupert attacked that important place, Blake, who commanded a little fort on the line, persisted to retain his post, though the governor had

had agreed to surrender upon articles, and actually killed several of the king's forces. This bravado so exasperated the royal general, that he threatened to hang Blake, and would probably have executed the threat but for the entreaty of several gentlemen who pleaded the inexperience of Blake in excuse of his rashness and folly.

In 1644 Blake was constituted governor of Taunton, which he had recently taken for the parliament. Though neither the works could be considered as strong, nor the garrison numerous, he contrived to keep Goring at bay, who appeared before that place with ten thousand men, till the garrison was relieved. Before, however, relief arrived, Goring had carried the out-works, and actually taken a part of the town; circumstances that were not overlooked by the parliament, who voted the garrison a bounty of 2000*l.* and to Blake a present of 500*l.* for his gallant defence. During April, 1646, Blake reduced Dunster Castle; and this was his last military service in the rebel war.

The year 1649 saw Blake appointed to his first command on that element where he afterwards so eminently excelled*. This sea-service commenced against prince

* It is not easy to guess, Campbell observes, what induced the parliament to make choice of him, who had always served as a horse-officer, to have the supreme command of the fleet. Perhaps, as the parliament had lately taken upon themselves the rank, though not the title, of States-General, they might therefore be inclined to make use of deputies for the direction both of fleets and armies—who were to judge in great points, and to be obeyed by such as were skilful in their profession, either as seamen or soldiers; for, in their judgment, to command was one thing, and to act another. Such appears to have been the origin of those who, from mere land officers, quickly acquired the love of sailors, and became in a short time such able seamen themselves.

Rupert, whom he pursued from the Irish coast into the Mediterranean, highly to the satisfaction of the parliament. In the course of this exploit he not only ended that piratical warfare which had been so long carried on against our merchants, but also awed both the Spaniards and Portuguese into a perfect submission to the new-created claims of the English commonwealth. On his return from these services, he had a singular engagement with a French man of war of forty guns. Blake ordered the captain on board, and inquired if he was willing to lay down his sword; the Frenchman replying in the negative, Blake desired him to return to his ship, and fight it out as long as he could. They fought nearly two hours, when the enemy submitting, repaired immediately to Blake's ship, saluted, and then presented his sword to the admiral upon his knees. He soon after reached Plymouth with this prize, and four others, where he received the thanks of his masters, who had made him one of the wardens of the cinque ports.

In March, 1651, he was appointed one of the admirals and generals of the fleet for the year. During that period he was principally engaged in the reduction of Scilly, Guernsey, and Jersey. Towards the close of this year he was elected a member of the council of state. In March, 1652, when the prospect of a Dutch war * became

* The first blood that was shed in this dreadful and memorable war, was occasioned by commodore Young having fired upon a Dutch man of war, on the 14th of May, 1652, who had refused the accustomed honour of the flag. That Young did not, however, invite a battle is evinced by his having sent his boat on board the Dutchman to persuade him to strike. The Dutch captain very honestly replied, that the States had threatened to take off his head if he struck; a proof that the Hollanders were determined

became certain, Blake experienced an unequivocal sign of the confidence of the parliament, who then constituted him generalissimo of the fleet for nine months.

The Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, who was at sea with a fleet exceeding forty sail, rode into the Downs on the 18th of May 1652, where he met with a small squadron under the command of major Bourne. He talked to Bourne of stress of weather, as a plea for his meeting the English in that situation: to this Bourne roundly answered, that the veracity of his excuse would best appear by the shortness of his stay. Nor did Bourne, who soon discerned the real intent of the Dutchman, neglect to give timely intimation to Blake of Van Tromp's appearance. The next day fully verified the suspicions of Bourne. About noon, on the 19th of May, Van Tromp, with his fleet, bore down upon Blake in Dover Road. Blake now fired twice at the Dutch flag, when the enemy instantly returned a broadside. Near the close of the conflict, which lasted from 4 P. M. till 9, Bourne came in with his eight ships; for Blake had been engaged nearly four hours alone, before the weather permitted the whole of the fleet to act. But the English now made so decided a resistance as obliged Van Tromp to bear away. The Dutch do not deny that this victory was entirely on the side of the English, who, at first with fifteen, and at last with no

terminated on war. Upon this the fight began, and the enemy were soon compelled to submit. There were two other ships of war, and about twelve merchantmen, none of which interfered; nor, after the Dutch ships had taken in their flags, did Young even attempt to make any prizes. It is plain, in every circumstance of this action, that the English were far from being the aggressors.

more than twenty-three sail, bravely contended against a fleet of forty-two ships, which they vanquished, obliging them to retire with the loss of two taken and one disabled. Blake acquired much reputation from this action, in which, indeed, he had conducted himself with great ability. When he at first perceived that Van Tromp approached nearer to him than the occasion demanded, he saluted him with two guns without ball, to remind him of striking sail; the enemy, in contempt, then fired on the contrary side. To Blake's second and third gun Van Tromp replied with his broadsides. Still desirous to prevent the effusion of human blood, Blake singled out his own ship from the fleet, in which, as he was approaching Van Tromp in hopes of adjusting their differences by parley, he received such broadsides from the Dutch fleet as broke all the windows of his ship, and shattered the stern. Blake was at this moment in his cabin, drinking with some of his officers, and could not repress the strongest bursts of resentment at a proceeding in such direct hostility to the law of nations: he commanded his men to answer the Dutch in their own language, observing, when his passion abated, "he took it very ill of Van Tromp, that he should take his ship for a bawdy-house and break his windows." He lay in the Downs for a long time after this engagement, during which he employed himself in the repairs and increase of his fleet, occasionally detaching small squadrons to cruize upon the enemy.

Having recruited his strength, instituted a solemn fast on board his fleet for success on their enterprises, and finding Ayscue returned from Barbadoes with a force competent

competent to defend the Downs, Blake sailed on the 2d of July, 1652, in pursuit of a plan which he had devised to abate the insolence of the Dutch. Bearing northwards, he soon fell in with the Dutch fishers, which were in great numbers, under the protection of twelve men of war. These defended the convoy with great determination; but the whole were at length necessitated to submit to the superiority of the English commander. Blake on this occasion exacted that for which the unfortunate Charles I. had in vain essayed, though he acted, at the same time, with the clearest honour and beneficence. After intimating the utter destruction of their buffes, if, for the future, they were found in that situation without licence of his government, he collected the tenth herring, and then permitted them to complete their loadings and depart. Truly sensible of the importance of this fishery to the essential interests of their country, the Dutch writers do not hesitate to applaud the conduct of Blake, as an Englishman, in terms honourable to themselves, and not unworthy of this eminent seaman. Some hostilities having been committed on the coasts of Newfoundland by France, Blake, about this time, attacked a strong detachment of the French fleet which were sailing to the relief of Dunkirk. He either took or destroyed the whole of this squadron.

On the 28th of September this year, 1652, Blake again engaged with the Dutch fleet, under De Wit and Ruyter. This contest, though in the approach courted, was, at the moment of engaging, evidently evaded by the enemy, who covered themselves behind a sand-bank. Blake, notwithstanding, having disposed his ships into

three divisions, the first commanded by himself, the second by his vice-admiral Pen, and the third by rear-admiral Bourne, resolved to attack the foe. The opening of this battle was entirely to the disadvantage of the English, till De Wit came freely from his shelter into a fair engagement. A Dutch man of war, who now tried to board the Sovereign, a fine new ship that had been but just liberated from the sands, was sunk by her first discharge. This was speedily followed up with the capture of the Dutch rear-admiral, by captain Mildmay; while, before the termination of the affair, two more Dutchmen were sunk, and a third blown up. De Wit began his retreat, and was chased by the English till night, who, resuming the chase with morning, did not cease to pursue the flying enemy till they were within twelve leagues of their own shores, and seen entering the Goree. The English had three hundred killed, and about the same number wounded. For the wounded, the parliament made ample provision; and transmitted their thanks to Blake and his officers, who had by this time returned in triumph to the Downs.

It was the 29th of November when Blake, who thought the season for action over, and had accordingly dispersed the greater part of his fleet, found himself suddenly faced by Van Tromp, who, learning the situation of the English admiral, had sailed with a fleet of eighty ships to attack him in the Downs. Notwithstanding Van Tromp's superiority, the wind only deterred the English from engaging him till eleven in the morning of the 30th, by which time both fleets were plying westward, and Blake had the weather-gage. Small as was the force of Blake, consisting of no more than

thirty-seven ships, when contrasted with that of his opponent, his situation was rendered yet more critical from the circumstance of the half of his fleet only being able to share in the conflict. Van Tromp had therefore little justice in exulting so foolishly as to place a broom at his topmast head, intending by this to intimate that he would sweep the narrow seas of English ships. Happily for Blake, that, unlike the people of Holland, the parliament did not always estimate the merit by the result of an undertaking: they could see worth in a defeated as well as in a successful commander; they applauded their admiral, immediately augmented his naval force, and named him, in conjunction with Monk and Deane, general at sea for another year. By the 11th of February, 1653, they had a fleet of sixty ships ready for war; and with these Blake sailed over against Portland, in order to welcome Tromp on his return.

Tromp had almost three hundred merchantmen under convoy, when, to his great surprise, he fell in with Blake, assisted by Deane, on board the *Triumph*, and followed by twelve stout ships, about eight in the morning of the 18th of February, 1653. Though the force of the adverse fleets was nearly poised, yet, as considerable time elapsed before Blake could bring the whole of his ships to bear, his situation became extremely alarming. He was wounded in the thigh with a piece of iron which had been driven into the direction by a shot, and which also damaged Deane's clothes. Captain Ball, who commanded the *Triumph*, was shot dead, and fell at the admiral's feet; his secretary, Mr. Sparrow, was slain while receiving his orders; a hundred of his crew were killed, most of the others wounded; and his ship

was so thoroughly shattered that it made but a pitiful figure in the succeeding contests. The Fairfax had an hundred men killed, and was wretchedly disabled; the Vanguard lost her captain, the brave Mildmay, and many of her men. As to the Proserpine, of forty-four guns, she was boarded by De Ruyter, and on the eve of being taken, when De Ruyter was himself boarded by an English man of war, and the Proserpine rescued. Two ships were disabled, and retired into Portsmouth. Tromp, who was most engaged with Blake, lost the greater part of his officers, and had his ship disabled. De Ruyter lost his main and fore-top-mast, and narrowly escaped being captured. One Dutch man of war was blown up; and one of another six, that were either sunk or taken, had its rigging so clotted with blood and brains, that it was impossible to look upon it but with emotions of indescribable horror.

The night of Friday was passed in dispositions for the engagement of Saturday. On the afternoon of that day, the English came up with the enemy about three leagues N. W. of the Isle of Wight. The engagement that ensued was but partial, though it continued through the night of Saturday, as Tromp chose to make a kind of retreating fight. During this period the merchantmen, finding they must shift for themselves, threw part of their cargoes overboard, and began to make off. In this way, sixteen merchant ships, and eight men of war, were at length secured by the English.

Every effort made by the English to renew the fight on Sunday was ineffectual. Tromp had slipped away, in the dark, with some of his convoy, to Calais sands; whence, with these, and near forty sail, the wind fa-

vouring him, he tided it home. Blake could follow him but slowly; for, though he cared not for Dutchmen, he entertained a just dread of their shallow coasts. Three men of war were, however, taken in this pursuit, and many of their merchantmen picked up. The Dutch lost, in these engagements, eleven men of war; thirty merchantmen; fifteen hundred killed, and as many wounded. In ships, the English lost only the Sampson, which was sunk by her captain, because disabled; in men, it is probable that their loss was not less than that of the enemy. It was in the course of this affair that Blake made excellent use of a body of soldiers on board the fleet.

As Blake was known to be a man zealously devoted to the glory of his country, and one who would serve it under any modification of government, Cromwell did not hesitate to give him that consideration in his protectorate which he had acquired from the gratitude of the long parliament. In the summer of 1654 Cromwell ordered the equipment of two powerful fleets, one of which was immediately committed to the direction of admiral Blake. With this Blake sailed first to Leghorn, where he demanded 150,000*l.* of the grand duke for his behaviour to a former English fleet under Appleton, and obtained 60,000*l.* From Leghorn he proceeded to Algiers, where he anchored without the Mole on the 10th of March, 1655; and from thence sent an officer to demand satisfaction for the piracies committed on the English, and requiring the release of all captives belonging to his nation, The dey gave the best satisfaction in his power to the resolute requisitions

of Blake; and promised a very different system towards the English in future, on the part of the Algerines.

Blake now directed his course to Tunis, where he speedily arrived, and dispatched to the governor of that place a message not dissimilar to that on which he had last insisted at Algiers. To the present demands he, however, received an answer that had more of temerity than valour: "Here are our castles of Guletta and Porto Ferino (said the governor of Tunis); you may do your worst: we do not fear you." Blake, entering the bay of Porto Ferino, soon reduced the castle and line to a defenceless condition; and immediately resolved to burn nine ships which were then in the road. This resolution was executed with a boldness and celerity worthy of him who had conceived it. Each of his ships sent out her long-boat, manned with the choicest of his men, who entered the harbour and fired the enemy's ships; while he and the remainder of the fleet completely covered their brave comrades from the castle, by playing upon it incessantly with cannon. The vessels of the pirates were entirely destroyed, with the loss of twenty-five men killed, and eight wounded. He now made an excursion to Tripoli, and, having made a peace with that government, returned again to Tunis, where he at last compelled the inhabitants to conclude a treaty on terms glorious and profitable to his country.

It is pleasing to reflect upon those attentions which were invariably paid to the valour of this extraordinary man. A Dutch admiral would not wear his flag while Blake was in the harbour of Cadiz. One of the victuallers attending his fleet, being separated, fell in with the

the French admiral and seven men of war, near the mouth of the Straits: the captain of the victualler was ordered on board the admiral, who inquired where Blake was—drank his health with five guns, and wished his captain a good voyage. Even the daring audacity of the Algerines was so humbled before Blake, that they were accustomed to stop the sally rovers, from which they took out every English prisoner, and sent them to him, in hopes of obtaining his favour*.

Blake was cruising before the haven of Cadiz, in the month of April 1657, when he gained intelligence of a Plate-fleet that had put into Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe. He arrived before the town of Santa Cruz on the 20th of April, where he discovered

* The following circumstance cannot fail even to heighten the reader's respect for the memory of Blake. Some of his seamen going ashore, while he lay in the road of Malaga, they met the host as it was carrying to some sick person, and highly ridiculed the procession. The priest, resenting this procedure incited the populace to revenge the indignity; who hereupon beat the sailors severely. These men, when they returned on board, complained to the admiral of their usage, who instantly dismissed a trumpet to the viceroy, demanding the priest who was the author of the insult. The viceroy answered, he had no power over a priest, and could not therefore comply with the trumpet. Blake replied, he would not discuss who had power to transmit the priest; but that, if he were not sent within three hours, he would burn the town about their ears. Alarmed at this intimation, the inhabitants brought the viceroy to a compliance with Blake's demand. When the priest appeared, he excused himself to the admiral on account of the misbehaviour of the sailors. Blake said: "If you had complained to me, I would have punished them severely; for I would not suffer any of my men to affront the established religion of the place whereat I touched: but you were to blame in setting the Spaniards to beat them; for, I would have you and the world to know, that none but an Englishman should chastise an Englishman."

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the flota, consisting of six galleons richly laden, and ten other vessels; the vessels were secured within the port by a strong barricado, and the galleons were stationed without the boom. Nor was the port in a neglected condition: but, on the contrary, strongly defended; having on the north a good castle well stored with artillery, and seven forts united by a line of communication and manned with musqueteers. When the master of a Dutchman, who heard of Blake's approach, requested permission of the Spanish governor to sail; so secure did that gentleman consider himself as to reply, "Get you gone, if you will; and let Blake come, if he dare!"

Having called a council of war, wherein it was determined to destroy the enemy's ships, as it was impossible to bring them off, Captain Stayner was sent with a squadron to effect that purpose: he forced his passage into the bay; while other frigates played upon the forts and line, and hindered these from disturbing Stayner's operations. Supported by Blake, Stayner boarded the galleons; and, in two hours, the whole Spanish fleet was destroyed. The wind now veering to S. W. Blake passed in safety out of the port, with the small loss of 48 killed and 120 wounded. This dreadful exploit so confounded the Spaniards, that they began to persuade themselves its perpetrators must be devils rather than mere men, and never afterwards conceived themselves safe, however superior in numbers, situation, or fortifications.

Cromwell received the news of this success with evident exultation. He lost no time in communicating it to his parliament, who were then sitting, and who, after ordering

ordering a day of public thanksgiving, voted a ring worth five hundred pounds to Blake, as a testimony of his country's gratitude; the sum of one hundred pounds to the captain who brought the intelligence; and their thanks to all the officers and soldiers concerned in the action.

Blake hovered about Cadiz for some time after his expedition to Teneriffe; when finding that his ships were become foul, and feeling his health on the decline, he sailed for England. But his complaint, a combination of dropsy and scurvy, having been neglected during the last three years, rose to such a pitch, in proportion as he drew nearer home, as for ever to deny him the gratification of again setting foot on his native shore. He expired while his ship, the *St. George*, was entering Plymouth Sound, on the 17th of August 1657, having frequently inquired for land, during the latter moments of the voyage. His bowels being taken out and deposited in the great church at Plymouth, his body was then embalmed, and wrapped in lead, in order that it might be removed to London, pursuant to the directions of the Protector.

After the corpse had lain during several days in state at Greenwich, it was carried from thence in a superb barge, on the fourth of September, to be interred in Westminster Abbey. This procession was accompanied by the relations and servants of the deceased Admiral; by Cromwell's council, the commissioners of the navy, &c. the lord mayor and aldermen of the metropolis, the field officers of the army, and numerous persons of distinction, in different barges and wherries, covered with mourning, marshalled and superintended by the heralds
at

at arms. When arrived at Westminster bridge, where they landed, the procession continued through a guard of several regiments of foot, at the head of whom Blake's intimate friend, general Lambert, though at that time disgusted with Oliver, was allowed to appear on horseback. The body of Blake was at length committed to a vault purposely erected in Henry the Seventh's chapel. Some time after the restoration of Charles the Second, an order was, however, transmitted—enjoining the dean and chapter of Westminster to cause such bodies as had been interred in their church during the late rebellion to be removed; and, in consequence of this injunction, Blake's remains, among those of many others, were ejected from the Abbey. On the twelfth of September, 1661, after it had lain in the Abbey four years, the admiral's coffin was removed from the chapel of Henry the Seventh to the church-yard, where it was at last suffered to repose.

When young, Blake was remarked for the sedateness of his manners, and the inflexible integrity of his character; though, among his college intimates, he could relax into evening mirth, and was by them considered a cheerful fellow. His religion was probably sincere, and, from the circumstance that occurred to him while at Malaga, it appears to have been blended with greater liberality than was generally evinced by the sectarists with whom he sided. That his character possessed no inconsiderable portion of vehemence, was demonstrated at his meeting with Tromp, on the 19th of May 1651, when the unmerited broadsides of the Dutchman so irritated Blake, that even his whiskers curled with indignation,

dignation, as (observes the narrator) they were used to do when he was angry.

Whoever shall attentively revolve in his mind the actions of Blake, cannot hesitate to pronounce him a republican. While at college, he was in the constant habit of declaiming against the pride of the nobles and the power of the church. Once, indeed, he was heard to say, that "he would as freely venture his life to save the king, as ever he did to serve the parliament;" but this was a proposition which he never illustrated by his conduct. His political principles, if they could not be accused of any pointed severity towards kings, were certainly such as tended equally to serve the cause of the vicious, or the good, as circumstances should render either predominant. He always instructed his men, "that it was his and their business to act faithfully in their respective stations, and to do their duty to their country, whatever irregularities there might be in the councils at home."

He had shewn himself an able military leader, when the discrimination of the parliament directed his genius to the study of maritime affairs. After having so amply detailed the naval history of this eminent character, it would be superfluous to dwell long on his excellency in that department of life. He was so strict a disciplinarian, as to submit his brother, captain Benjamin Blake, for whom he is known to have felt the highest regard, to the rigours of a court-martial, for some misdemeanour in the action of Santa Cruz. Of this misconduct, being pronounced guilty, he was, by Blake's sentence, removed from his ship, and the command of it was given to another. "He was the first man" (says lord Clarendon)

don) “ that declined the old track, and made it manifest that the science might be attained in less time than was imagined ; and despised those rules which had been long in practice, to keep his ship and men out of danger, which had been held in former times a point of great ability and circumspection, as if the principal art requisite in a captain of a ship had been to come home safe again. He was the first man who brought the ships to contemn castles on shore, which had been thought ever very formidable, but were discovered by him to make a noise only, and to fright those who could be rarely hurt by them. He was the first that infused that proportion of courage into the seamen, by making them see, by experience, what mighty things they could do, if they were resolved ; and taught them to fight in fire, as well as upon water : and though he hath been very well imitated and followed, he was the first that gave the example of that kind of naval courage, and bold and resolute achievements.

DETACHED ADVENTURES.

DISCOVERY forms no part of the history of the English Commonwealth; but this era of our country is not destitute of those circumstances, which, though they occupy but a small space on the general map, yet deserve to be particularized and celebrated.

IN October, 1653, captain HAYTON, in the Saphire, fell in with eight French men of war. He shot twice at the enemy's admiral, and, receiving a broadside in return, he then endeavoured to board her, but she escaped. Hayton, however, at length finding himself between the admiral and vice-admiral of the French, fired both sides at them; when the vice-admiral called immediately for quarter, while the admiral ran. He took the vice-admiral, and another of the hostile ships, and, soon after, secured also their rear-admiral. The French lost several men in this action: Hayton had only four of his crew killed, and but a few wounded. Captain Hayton followed up this successful gallantry with the capture of several Dutch and French prizes.

ABOUT this time captain WELCH, the commander of a privateer, took a Dutch packet-boat, and the next morning

morning three Dutchmen of three hundred tons each, and a buss laden with herrings. One of the Dutchmen was laden with iron, shot, guns, and copper.

CAPTAIN DARCY, who, with a small vessel and but twelve men, attempted also a Dutch frigate called the *Hart*, of fifty men, experienced not that fortune which had fallen to Hayton and Welch; but this was entirely owing to the baseness of half his little crew. After he had, with six of his men, destroyed sixteen of the enemy, and driven their captain overboard, he was at last compelled to submit. Darcy had received quarter several hours, when the Dutch captain, who had regained his ship, most infamously shot him in cold blood, ran his sword repeatedly through his body, and then cut him into pieces and pulled out his heart!

It cannot be denied that the naval power of this country was directed with unprecedented success by those who assumed the helm of government after the deposition of the unfortunate Charles the First. This was their chief praise, that they made England terrible to her enemies, and invaluable to her friends. But in this, after we have allowed them every impartial commendation, it will appear that they merely trod in the steps of their murdered monarch, who would have equally asserted and diffused the glory of the English character, had he enjoyed the support of his subjects, and could he have availed himself of the same resources which were so readily opened to the projects of his domestic enemies!

Some

Some attention was given to our colonial settlements during the interregnum; and, considering the embarrassed state of our foreign connexions, commerce cannot be said to have been altogether unprosperous.

GEORGE MONK,
 DUKE OF ALBEMARLE,
 AND KNIGHT OF THE GARTER.

THIS illustrious man was descended from an ancient and honourable family, established from the time of Henry III. at Potheridge, in Devonshire; by the female line he was even nearly related to Henry IV. His father, sir Thomas Monk, being considerably embarrassed in pecuniary concerns, and having therefore no fortune to give independence to his offspring, always designed George for the profession of arms. George Monk was born on the 6th of December 1608, and received afterwards such an education as was calculated to prepare him for the field. So early as his seventeenth year we find him at sea, as a volunteer, in the fleet that then sailed for Cadiz, under the command of lord Wimbledon; and two years after, again on the same element in Burroughs's expedition to the isle of Rhé.

The circumstance, which is known to have obliged young Monk, contrary to his education, to embrace the sea-service, reflects considerable honour on his character. When Charles I. in the beginning of his reign, repaired to Plymouth, in order to inspect the naval preparations, which were in forwardness, with the view of a Spanish war, sir Thomas Monk, who was extremely desirous of

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GEORGE MONK DUKE of ALBEMARLE

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tendering his respects to the king, took this opportunity of performing his loyal intentions. As, however, the old gentleman laboured under no small apprehension of the law, he first dispatched a considerable present to the under sheriff of Devonshire, who, upon this, engaged that sir Thomas should be unmolested on the occasion of his visit to the king. But the creditors of sir Thomas, informed of these proceedings, sent a larger bribe to the under sheriff, who accordingly took old Monk in execution before the whole county. The filial impetuosity of George induced him immediately to repair to Exeter, where, after having vainly expostulated with the pettyfogger, he gave him a most hearty beating, and left him. The consequences of this adventure had proved, as might be expected, very disagreeable to George, but for his timely escape to sea.

Monk did not quit the navy till 1628, when he repaired to Holland. Here his valour and skill were abundantly displayed under the earl of Oxford, and were afterwards rewarded by lord Goring, from whom he received the command of his lordship's company before he had attained his thirtieth year. Disagreeing with the Dutch, he returned to England. In 1641 he was employed wholly in Ireland. During the year 1643, when the disputes between Charles I. and the parliament were at their height, Monk was arrested by Fairfax, and brought up to the tower of London. While he was a prisoner in that place, Charles sent him one hundred pounds in gold, which, says the historian, was a large sum out of so poor an exchequer. The king transmitted him this money from Oxford, and it was certainly a

flattering evidence of his majesty's generosity and esteem.

Early in 1647, Monk, perceiving the total ruin of the royal cause, consented to accept a commission under the lord Lisle, in Ireland, and by this measure obtained his liberty. That Monk, notwithstanding, retained his attachment to royalty, and a disposition to avail himself of a favourable opportunity, if it occurred, for restoring the house of Stuart, will not be doubted by any candid person who shall peruse the following anecdote.—Before Monk quitted the tower, he turned into the apartment of the venerable Wren, bishop of Ely, and having received his blessing, took his leave of him with these remarkable words, “ My lord, I am now going to serve the king, the best I may, against his bloody rebels in Ireland; and I hope I shall one day live to do further service to the royal cause in England.” This fact was recorded in bishop Wren's diary, which was some time in the possession of Dr. More, bishop of Ely. Monk was often employed in Ireland by the parliament, but did not, for some time, consider it prudent to declare for the king.

In the year 1650, when Cromwell was about to march against the Scots, he engaged Monk to accept a commission. It cannot be concealed, by the warmest advocate of Monk, that he on this occasion, at least, appeared to contradict, if not to desert, his former principles; for he entered so fully into the wishes of Cromwell, as to become the instrument of that victory which gained Oliver his highest reputation. At the very moment when Cromwell had begun his retreat towards Dunbar, and the Scots were pressing hard upon his rear,

at the most critical instant of the enterprize, this was the language of Monk—"Sir, the Scots have numbers and the hills; those are their advantages: we have discipline and despair; two things that will make soldiers fight, and these are ours. My advice, therefore, is to attack them immediately, which if you follow, I am ready to command the van." Cromwell no longer hesitated upon the part he was to act, but gladly acquiesced in Monk's proposal, and gained advantages of which he had despaired. Nor did Monk stop here; he passed the following summer in reducing the greater part of Scotland to the parliament; a progress in which he committed many severities, and perfectly depressed the royalists. If any one should imagine Monk to have been all this while attached to royalty, and solicitous to serve it, he can find the opinion upon this hypothesis only; that the general aimed at the supreme power, in order to secure such power for him to whom he wished it restored.

His fatigues in the reduction of Scotland, together with the continual agitation of his mind, had thrown Monk into a dangerous sickness, from which he slowly recovered at Bath. On coming to London, he had the satisfaction to learn that he was named a commissioner for the prosecution of the plan then in project of an union between Scotland and England.

Like Blake, Monk now found himself destined to a part for which he had not been originally designed. The death of colonel Popham rendered it necessary that the parliament should appoint another officer to his station in the fleet. Monk was in his forty-fifth year, rather an advanced æra of human life, when he was thus entrusted with no inferior command in the navy; but

the recollection that he had been at sea in his boyish days, and the instances in which they had experienced the successful nomination of land officers to naval appointments, gave the parliament full confidence in the maritime abilities of Monk.

Being joined with admiral Deane in the command of the fleet destined against the Dutch, Monk repaired on board the ship *Resolution*, in May 1653. On the 2d of June, the enemy were discovered by the English, near the Goyer, and were immediately attacked off the south point of that place, with determined vigour. In the commencement of the action, Deane was almost cut in two by a chain-shot; a new engine of destruction, the invention of which was ascribed to De Wit. Monk, who first saw the accident, immediately threw his cloak over Deane's body, and by this admirable presence of mind probably prevented such confusion in the fleet as might have produced very serious disadvantages. After taking a few turns, and exhorting the men to the performance of their duty, he caused the corpse to be removed to his cabin: as no flag was taken in, and therefore the other ships had no intimation of Deane's death, the engagement continued with unabated ardour and undisturbed regularity. The Dutch fell into disorder about three P. M. and continued a kind of running fight till nine in the evening, when a fine ship, commanded by Cornelius Van Velsen, blew up. In the course of the night Blake came in to the assistance of the English, with eighteen ships.

Though Tromp had done all within his power to secure the success of the first day, he would gladly have avoided the fight of the 3d of June: but as he was a

brave man, worthy of better captains than those he commanded, and disdained absolutely to fly, the English, who were bent on a second attack, came up with him in the morning by eight o'clock, and instantly engaged with the utmost fury. Tromp was twice boarded, and must have been taken, but for the seasonable relief of de Wit and de Ruyter. At last, after a desperate conflict of four hours, the Dutch unequivocally fled, seeking shelter on the coast of Newport, from whence, with great difficulty, they escaped to Zealand. The enemy were now blocked up, and mortified by the sight of a foreign fleet riding off their own ports.

In this affair, the English had ninety-five men of war, and five fireships; the Dutch ninety-eight men of war, and six fireships. The loss of the enemy consisted in six of their best ships sunk, two blown up, and eleven captured; six of their best captains made prisoners, and fifteen hundred men. Our greatest loss was the brave Deane, besides whom but one captain perished: we lost few privates, and not a ship was missing. Monk's naval reputation was established.

But the Dutch were at this time a high spirited nation; not easily susceptible of depression, or, if for a moment obscured, soon seen to emerge from the gloom with redoubled splendour. By the latter end of July the States General had recovered their late defeat, and were at sea with a force of upwards of ninety sail, victualled for five months, and completely manned. Van Tromp, who commanded this fleet, was directed to proceed to the mouth of the Texel, to draw the English from their station, who had long detained de Ruyter in that port with twenty-five sail. On the 29th of July, 1653,

Tromp, in pursuance of his orders, came in sight of the English fleet. The latter were eager to advance; but as the Dutch admiral, whose chief injunction ran upon the release of de Ruyter, evaded a battle, it was about seven in the evening before Monk, in the *Resolution*, followed by thirty of his ships, could charge through the adverse fleet. Night prevented a repetition of the charge; Monk veered southward, while Tromp, unobserved by the English, steering north, gained the weather gage, and joined de Ruyter. These circumstances were of no consequence during the 30th, when the wind was so tempestuous, and the sea ran so high, that neither side could proceed to arms.

Sunday, July the 31st, both fleets came at length to an engagement. The Dutch conducted their fireships with such effect as actually to fire the *Triumph*, and to endanger the greater part of our shipping. Lawson contended with de Ruyter, killed and wounded above half his men, and so disabled his ship, that she was towed out of the line, and her admiral obliged to shift his standard. The fight was indeed dreadful, and lost nothing of its fury till about noon; Van Tromp was shot through the body with a musket ball as he was giving his orders. The death of Tromp decided in favour of the English, for his countrymen immediately fled; though it was night before the scattered enemy recovered the *Texel*, from whence they saw the English, who here ceased the pursuit on account of the flats, riding at six leagues distance. The Dutch suffered in these engagements, to the amount of twenty-six ships, which were either burnt or sunk; had five captains taken prisoners, and between four and five thousand men destroyed.

destroyed. On the side of the English is to be reckoned the loss of the Oak, and the Hunter frigate; of captains, six killed and six wounded; about five hundred men killed and eight hundred wounded.

This was in many respects a memorable conflict. The victory was achieved over an enemy superior in force, and who added to this superiority the advantage of fire-ships: of five Dutch flags that were flying at the onset, those of Tromp, Evertson, and de Ruyter, were all lowered before the termination of this contest. As to Monk individually, there are some circumstances in the business which place his talents in a very high point of view. Finding occasion to employ several merchantmen that were in the English fleet, he previously sent to the captains of those ships to remove their concern for the property of their owners; a scheme that fully answered its purpose, as no ships in the fleet behaved better. Having often observed that much time and many opportunities were lost in most naval battles, by taking ships and sending them into harbour, and considering that still greater inconvenience must arise from such a practice in the present instance, when they were distant from their own coasts, and near those of the enemy; he issued orders in the beginning of the fight, that they should neither give nor take quarter. A restriction so dreadful in itself, and which seems to have been rendered inevitable by the peculiarity of Monk's situation, was not, however, obeyed so strictly but that twelve hundred Dutch were rescued from destruction as their ships went down; still the carnage was excessive. "In a few hours, (says secretary Burchett, alluding to Monk's injunction) the air was filled with the fragments of
ships

ships blown up, and human bodies, and the sea dyed with the blood of the slain and wounded." Monk continued so long in the heat of the battle, that his ship was at last towed out of the line. De Wit, in his letter to the States, confesses that he had made a very precipitate retreat, for which he assigns two reasons; that the best of his ships were miserably shattered, and that many of his officers had behaved like poltroons.

Cromwell's parliament, on August the 8th, 1653, ordered gold chains to be presented to Monk, Blake, Pen, Lawson, and other flag officers; also medals to the captains; and then appointed August the 25th a thanksgiving day. When Monk arrived in town, Cromwell at a festival in the city put the gold chain about his neck, and studiously shewed his respect for him throughout the entertainment.

The care of three kingdoms becoming too much for the protector, in the spring of 1654 he deputed Monk to the government of Scotland. All that the general had formerly done to forward the interest of Cromwell among the Scotch was little when contrasted with the proceedings which he at this time instituted. He reduced the royal cause to the lowest ebb, setting a price upon the heads of the principal royalists in the north; he erected magazines and garrisons for maintaining the protectorate in every part of Scotland; and governed that kingdom with absolute authority. His government was, however, characterized by great wisdom, and its effects were highly conducive to the welfare of the Scottish nation. Whether his loyalty to the exiled king remained unshaken, and he merely acted with severity towards the friends of monarchy in order to obtain the entire confidence of the republicans, and so throw these
off

off their guard as to his real purposes, while he was in truth preparing things for the restoration of his sovereign, cannot be fully ascertained; though it is certain that the protector was not without suspicions on this subject*, and the designs which were framed against Monk's life by colonels Overton and Sindercome, two vehement republicans, are testimony enough that the general was by no means held true to their cause. On the death of Oliver, Monk proclaimed Richard Cromwell; uncertain as yet what turn the public mind would take, he thought it prudent to affect his usual attachment to the protectorate, while he contented himself with securing the power that he had acquired in Scotland.

Monk, having with infinite genius and circumspection long directed the course of public affairs to this issue, the English fleet, conducted by loyal officers, repaired cheerfully to the coast of Holland, where, on the 23d of May, 1660, after giving new names to the ships, they received on board his majesty Charles II. the duke of York, &c. and landed them shortly after in Kent. Charles arrived at his palace in Whitehall on the 29th of May, a day memorable in the life of that monarch; on the 29th of May he was born, on the 29th of May he evaded the pursuit of his enemies, and on the 29th of May he returned from exile to a crown. Monk was immediately created duke of Albemarle, invested with

* Cromwell wrote a long epistle to Monk, a short time antecedent to his death, which is singularly characteristic of that extraordinary usurper, and expresses his doubts of Monk's intentions. "There be that tell me (Cromwell writes) that there is a certain cunning fellow in Scotland, called George Monk, who is said to be in wait there, to introduce Charles Stuart. I pray use your diligence to apprehend him, and send him up to me."

the order of the garter, and constituted vice-admiral of England, under James duke of York. On his being called up to the lords, almost the whole of the commons attended him to the door of the upper house.

Such a man as the duke of Albemarle could not but form a prominent character in the government of Charles II. Accordingly he was early entrusted with the effective superintendance of the navy; and during the plague that soon after broke out in London, to him were confided the arduous cares of the metropolis, the king and ministry having retired to Oxford. Before he had entirely discharged the duties which devolved to him from his situation in London, he was appointed, in conjunction with prince Rupert, to the command of the fleet which was then equipping against the Dutch.

If the duke had listened to the partial suggestions of his friends, rather than to the general voice of the community, he would, at least, have hesitated to accept the present nomination. Regardless, however, of the risks to which he might expose a justly established reputation, and intent only on promoting the desires of his prince, and the expectations of his country, Albemarle, having taken leave of Charles, joined the fleet towards the close of April 1666.

Prince Rupert had been unfortunately detached with the white squadron in quest of the French, who, as it was then rumoured, were hastening to the assistance of the Dutch, though no such assistance ever appeared, when the duke, with about sixty sail, descried the enemy on the first of June. Though their force amounted to ninety-one sail, they were immediately attacked, and the blue squadron, under sir William Berkley, performed
actions

actions worthy of Englishmen; sir John Harman was equally distinguished. Evertz, the Dutch admiral, seeing Harman's ship disabled, offered him quarter; "No, sir, it is not come to that yet," replied our countryman, and instantly discharged a broadside by which Evertz fell, with a number of his crew. This conduct so irritated the Dutch that they commissioned three fireships to destroy sir John's vessel. The first grappling her starboard quarters, raised so thick a smoke that some time elapsed before the boatswain of the Henry could discover the grappling irons. Scarcely had he effected the removal of the irons, when another fireship was fixed on the larboard, fired the sails, and terrified a part of the crew into the sea. Harman now drew his sword and declared that he would kill any other who should attempt to leave the Henry. When, at last, they had nearly extinguished the fire the cross beam fell on sir John's leg, and a third fireship bore down. But the latter ship was quickly disabled; Harman brought the Henry into Harwich, and notwithstanding his broken leg, having repaired, returned to the scene of engagement. The conflict was renewed with the ensuing day, but produced nothing important.

On the 3d of June, the duke finding it prudent to retreat, burnt three of his disabled ships, caused such as were shattered to sail before, and with the remainder of his force brought up the rear. The most interesting occurrence of this day was the accession of prince Rupert. Thus strengthened, Albemarle on the 4th of June again came up with the enemy at eight in the morning. The English charged five times through; and an arduous conflict was reciprocally sustained till seven P. M. when

when each party appeared willing to desist. In the first of these actions the English were deprived of the brave Berkley, and in the last fell Minnes, a Dutch admiral of uncommon spirit: having received a shot in the neck, he yet remained upon the deck upwards of an hour, giving orders, and preventing with his fingers the efflux of blood from his wound, till a second shot penetrated his throat and terminated his existence. The loss of the British fleet was by no means unimportant, and the Dutch claimed the honours of success, though de Wit owns "If the English were beat, their defeat did them more honour than all their former victories; our own fleet, he says, could never have been brought on after the first day's fight, and I believe none but theirs could: all the Dutch discovered was, that Englishmen might be killed, and English ships burnt, but that the English courage was invincible."

Albemarle has by some been censured as rash, in these contests with the enemy; but his valour entitles him to a sufficient share of applause to counteract censure, and his first engagement with the Dutch was undertaken by the advice of a council of war. This council resolved, after mature deliberation, that, "In regard several good ships, besides the Royal Sovereign, then at anchor in the Gun Flat, neither fully manned nor ready, would, upon our retreat, be in danger of a surprisal by the enemy, and that such a course might make some impression upon the spirit and courage of the seamen, who had not been accustomed to decline fighting with the Dutch; it was at last *unanimously* resolved to abide them, and that the fleet should presently be put in readiness to fall into a line." During the engagement that followed this decision,

decision, the duke engaged de Ruyter, and though for a while towed out of the line, bore into the center of the hostile fleet. At the second council he was remarkably explicit. "If," said Albemarle, "we had feared the number of our enemies, we should have fled yesterday; but though we are inferior to them in ships, we are in all things else superior. Force gives them courage; let us, if we need it, borrow resolution from the thoughts of what we have formerly performed. Let the enemy feel, that though our fleet be divided, our spirit is entire. At the worst, it will be more honourable to die bravely here, upon our own element, than to be made spectacles to the Dutch. To be overcome is the fortune of war; but to fly is the fashion of cowards. Let us teach the world that Englishmen had rather be acquainted with death than with fear." A council of war resolved afterwards upon the retreat; and at another of these councils, held on the re-union with prince Rupert, the subsequent engagement was voted.

On the 25th of July, 1666, the Dutch having re-fitted, both nations entered again on the scene of action. Sir Thomas Allen began the attack, about noon, upon Evertz, and was effectually seconded by prince Rupert and Albemarle, who furiously assailed de Ruyter. This battle, which continued with great obstinacy till night, ended in the total discomfiture of the Dutch. In the course of the chace, which commenced with the ensuing day, de Ruyter found himself so beset as to exclaim with earnestness, "My God, what a wretch am I amongst so many thousand bullets, is not there one to put me out of my pain?" De Ruyter at length reached
his

his native shores, but only to experience the rage of a disappointed people, and to reflect that the English were then lying at Schonevelt, the accustomed rendezvous of the Dutch fleet.

The duke of Albemarle exerted himself with his usual energy, to ward off the effects of a Dutch invasion in 1667; and this appears to have been among the last of his public services. His health began visibly to decline, so that he dedicated his remaining months to the regulation of his domestic affairs. On the 3d of January, 1669, while sitting in his chair, he departed this life, at the age of threescore and two years. By desire of the king, the duke's body lay for some time in state at Somerset house, and on the 4th of April was interred in Westminster abbey.

His valour was unquestionably great. While opposing the landing of the Dutch at Chatham, he stood in the thickest of the shot; being importuned to retire, he replied, "Sir, if I had been afraid of bullets, I should have quitted this trade of a soldier long ago." He was likewise a strict disciplinarian; though at the same time a decided enemy to all naval or military oppression in officers: these (he would say) should have power to command and to protect, but not to terrify or pillage the men." What adds greatly to this nobleman's character is, that he was not ambitious: he would gladly have retired upon seeing the completion of the Restoration, and was with difficulty restrained from retirement by the earnest entreaties of the king, and the desires of the people. "Independently of his merit in the restoration," secretary Nicholas observes, "the duke of Albemarle,

Albemarle, by his indefatigable zeal and successful services afterwards, had merited more than his prince could do for him."

He inherited from nature a robust and healthful constitution, and a commanding person. An early riser, and a temperate liver, he did not impair by his conduct the felicity of his natural advantages. He was an excellent husband and father, always attentive to the duties of his station, and uniformly affectionate. The duke of Albemarle survived his second son George; but left a son called Christopher, who succeeded to his title.

EDWARD MONTAGUE,

AFTERWARDS

EARL OF SANDWICH, AND KNIGHT OF THE GARTER,

ADMIRAL.

THIS illustrious man was born on the 27th of July 1625. He was the only surviving son of sir Sidney Montague, the youngest of six sons of Edward lord Montague, of Boughton; and married, before he had completed his eighteenth year, Jemima, daughter of John lord Crew, of Stene.

Considering the temper of the times in which he lived, Montague was an uncommon instance of premature honour; thirty years of age was not then thought too late a period of human life to commence a public career, but young Edward received a commission, dated August 1643, not long after his marriage, and actually raised a regiment upon this commission, which he commanded under the earl of Essex, in the service of the parliament. He assisted at the storming of Lincoln, on the 6th of May 1644, and was present at the battle of Marston Moor, in July in the same year.

In 1645 he saw a variety of service; in July he was in the battle of Naseby, and afterwards stormed the

town



J. Peter del. Pinx.

W. D. G. ar d'avis sculp.

EARL of SANDWICH.



town of Bridgwater; he forwarded the storming of Bristol in September; and, on the surrender of that place, it was he who subscribed the articles of capitulation, and who, in conjunction with colonel Hammond, was deputed to London with the news of this important success. Though not yet of age, he was also in parliament for Huntingdonshire; but neither his military reputation, nor the advantage of being at this time a representative, could allure him to deviate from his own ideas of rectitude, and take part in the cabals of the army, or the commotions of the senate.

Colonel Montague was at length transferred to that element on which he afterwards exhibited so much ability and courage: he had just attained his thirtieth year, when he found himself appointed, in conjunction with Blake, to the command of the Mediterranean fleet; and as this was the first of those scenes which have conveyed his glory to posterity, it may be fairly remarked, that Montague, after all, did not effectually enter upon his career of immortality till he had arrived at those years, before the completion of which it was not supposed, in this age, that men were calculated to render any essential service to the state. The result of the Mediterranean expedition, which took effect 1656, was extremely propitious to the views and wishes of the commonwealth: Montague accordingly found himself, on his return from that expedition, caressed by the protector, and praised by his parliament.

In 1657 he was entrusted with a fleet in the Downs. This station does not appear to have communicated any gratification to Montague, who, though honoured with

Cromwell's entire confidence and approbation *, and accompanied with success in his own sphere, was several times upon the point of resigning. It is imagined, by those who have endeavoured to investigate the causes of Montague's discontent, that the orders which he received to assist the French, together with that kind of piratical war which the protector found it convenient to wage against the trading property of most European nations, but particularly his depredations on the Dutch, had disgusted this able seaman; whose information could not but lead him to perceive the injurious consequences of such a war, even to his own country, and whose integrity would not suffer him to assist in schemes so iniquitous and pernicious.

During the few days of Richard Cromwell's elevation, he tried to tread as much as possible in the path which had been marked out by Oliver: he reposed a particular degree of confidence in admiral Montague. Under him was sent into the Baltic one of the ablest fleets that had yet sailed from the English coasts †. But this force, capable of such mighty effects, was not entirely

* Campbell says—"Cromwell desired that the admiral should rather regulate things by his discretion, than justify himself by attending strictly to the letter of his orders: and this particularly appears in the business of the flag, upon which the protector wrote him an epistle with his own hand, commanding in express terms, that he should insist upon the honour of the flag from all nations, within the limits of the British Seas, and yet telling him as expressly, that *he knew not what those limits were*; adding, at the same time, that he was to execute these orders with caution, since peace and war depended on them."

† The Naseby, admiral, carried seventy guns and six hundred men; the Resolution, with eighty guns, contained also six hundred men: there were fourteen

tirely confided to Montague, for Algernon Sidney, Honeywood, and Boon, were nominated to assist, but were in reality designed to controul the admiral. The parliament appear, indeed, to have no longer reposed their wonted confidence in the character of Montague, and were evidently not very studious of his favour. Besides creating this board of controul over the admiral's actions, they did not scruple, just at this time, to give away his regiment of horse; and he may therefore be reasonably supposed to have left England with a disposition rather unfavourable to his masters.

Charles II. who wanted not good intelligence on such occasions, applied himself with such success to the admiral, as heartily to dispose him for the scenes which afterwards followed. Though narrowly watched, and almost detected by Sidney, Montague had yet skill enough to obtain the return of the fleet to England; and this was the greatest service he could at present achieve, as the plan of the Restoration could at that instant be prosecuted no further. By the activity of Monk, Montague, who had gone a while into retirement, was again restored to his command. He found every thing favourably reversed; Lawson, lately an anabaptist republican, was become a staunch royalist, and the general disposition of the crews was equal to his most sanguine hopes. In this state of things, having received his majesty's commands, Monk and Montague sailed immediately for Holland, and had soon the satisfaction of

fourteen ships carrying from fifty guns upwards each; about twenty-eight of forty guns each; four of thirty guns each; and twelve bearing from eight to twenty-two pieces of cannon. The aggregate was sixty ships, on board of which were eleven thousand eight hundred and twenty men.

devoting to their prince and country a fleet which had been equipped to promote the designs of men whose prosperity must have proved inimical to both.

Fully impressed with the value of such services, Charles, two days after his landing at Dover, sent Garter king at arms to deliver his declaratory letters, accompanied by the garter and George of the most noble order of the garter, to admiral Montague. These honours were delivered to the admiral in his own ship, on the morning of the 28th of May, while riding in the Downs.

Honourable as these tokens of the king's respect were to Montague, yet they were not the highest which his attachment and fidelity had deserved, nor which the liberality and esteem of the monarch designed to bestow. On the 12th of July, 1660, he was created baron Montague of St. Neot's in the county of Huntingdon, viscount Hinchinbrooke in the same county, and earl of Sandwich in Kent; he was the same day sworn one of the privy council, made master of the king's wardrobe, admiral of the narrow seas, and lieutenant admiral to the duke of York as lord high admiral of England; he carried St. Edward's staff at the coronation, attended afterwards constantly at the council, and was invariably considered as one of the king's ablest ministers.

A large fleet under the earl of Sandwich sailed from the Downs on the 19th of June 1661. This fleet had two great objects proposed; the punishment of the Algerines, and the care of bringing over the infant of Portugal: his lordship did every thing in his power to humble the enemy, and then, taking her majesty on
board

board at Lisbon, he landed her safely in England on May 14th, 1662.

The earl entered heartily into the war of 1664-5; and to him must be attributed the successes of the duke of York, especially in that memorable conflict with the Dutch which ended in the loss of their admiral, Opdam. That such was the merit of the earl of Sandwich is clearly demonstrated in the decision of the king, who, ordering the English fleet to be immediately put in readiness for a visit to the coast of Holland, retained his brother, the duke, at home, and submitted to Sandwich the entire direction of the squadron. When this force was repaired, it put to sea; but met with no fortune worthy of its respectability and exertions. The earl returned to England towards the latter end of September 1665.

It now became necessary to depute a particular embassy to Madrid. The earl of Sandwich, who had been frequently employed in negotiations during the interregnum, and often consulted in the deliberations of the cabinet, was selected as a person who, while eminent in war, was no less calculated to support the great character of an ambassador of peace. His nomination was peculiarly acceptable to the Spaniards. When he landed at the Groyne, on the 28th of April 1666, he was welcomed in the most expressive manner; many unusual honours were lavished upon this great man, and were continued by every town through which he passed in his way to the capital. His reception at Madrid was beyond precedent splendid and flattering; he was for several days magnificently entertained by the queen, at the expenditure of eighty-seven pounds sterling per diem. He had his first public audience on the 30th of June, after

which he fully entered into his diplomatic business, and conducted it with such happy dexterity as to carry every important point in a long and arduous treaty. With equal success he now turned to the second object of his mission, and composed the long-existing differences between Spain and Portugal. The earl returned to Portsmouth on September 19th, 1668.

Never, perhaps, had embassy been fulfilled more honourably or more advantageously. Charles was so impressed with the merits of his ambassador, that, on the conclusion of the treaties, he acknowledged, in the most emphatic terms, by letters under his own hand, his high sense of the conduct of the earl of Sandwich; and, on that nobleman's arrival, received him at court with marked partiality. Such was his deportment in Spain, that the Spaniards could not say any thing too high in praise of the abilities, the honour, the integrity, and the politeness of the English ambassador.

In 1672 the second Dutch war broke out, and lord Sandwich again put to sea. He commanded the blue squadron, and count d'Eltrées the white, under James duke of York. On the 28th of May, between two and three A. M. the English were informed of the approach of the Dutch fleet. The engagement was begun about eight by the earl, who, in the Royal James, attacked Van Ghent with the rear of the enemy. His lordship risked much by thus proceeding to engage before his own squadron were perfectly prepared to support him. This he ventured, however, that the rest of the fleet might have time to form. Van Ghent fell early in the conflict; but the earl had still to cope with Brackell, a Dutchman, in the Great Holland. Having at last dis-

engaged

engaged himself from this grappler, he even sunk three fireships who attempted to burn him, and disabled another assailant. But he could do little else; for by this time most of his men were killed, and the hull of the Royal James was so pierced with shot, that it was found impossible to carry her off. It was in this condition that, seeing his vice-admiral, sir Joseph Jordaine, pass by without noticing his situation, he exclaimed, "There is nothing left for us now but to defend the ship to the last man!" When a fourth fireship had grappled him, he entreated his captain, sir Richard Haddock, and all his servants, to get into the boat and save themselves; a request with which they at last complied. Some of the sailors, who nevertheless would not quit the ship, but ineffectually exerted themselves to extinguish the flames, and one of his own sons, perished together about noon, when the Royal James blew up*.

The body of the earl was not found till a fortnight after the melancholy event of his death: the circumstance is thus recorded in the Gazette of June 10th, 1672.—

* The author of the Life of de Ruyter gives another account of this event.—"The fight began between the earl of Sandwich and Van Ghent; it was terrible and bloody, especially between the blue squadron and Van Ghent, who, in the beginning of the battle, was shot to death. The brave earl of Sandwich, who was resolved to pawn his life for his honour, overpowered with a number of men of war and fireships, and a hardy Dutch captain, Adrian Brackell, having laid him aboard athwart the hawse, yet still continued the fight with such unshaken courage, that he sunk two or three of the fireships that had grappled with him, and forced the Dutch captain to call for quarter; but, at last, his ship being unhappily fired by another fireship, was burnt, and he himself, with many persons of quality, bravely, but unfortunately, perished."

“ This

“ This day the body of the right honourable the earl of Sandwich, being by the Order upon his coat discovered floating on the sea by one of his majesty’s ketches, was taken up and brought into this port (Harwich), where sir Charles Littleton, the governor, receiving it, took immediate care for its embalming and honourable disposing, till his majesty’s pleasure should be known concerning it. For the obtaining of which, his majesty was attended at Whitehall the next day, by the master of the aforesaid vessel, who, by sir Charles Littleton’s order, was sent to present his majesty with the George found about the body of the said earl, which remained, at the time of its taking up, in every part unblemished, saving some impressions made by the fire upon his face and breast.” It is most likely (observes Charnock), from the appearance of his body when taken up, that the earl did endeavour to save himself by swimming, and perished in the attempt; in support of which opinion this writer makes the following extract from the certificate of the earl’s funeral.—“ He (the earl of Sandwich) did, in the naval battle fought with the Dutch, upon Tuesday the 28th of May 1672, so heroically signalize his courage and conduct, that, being admiral of the blue squadron in the royal navy then engaged, he bore the first brunt of the battle; and, after long resistance, and sinking and disabling divers of the Dutch ships, the ship, the Royal James, which his lordship commanded, was fired, *wherein staying until the last, he was forced to put himself to the mercy of the seas, wherein he perished.*”

Of the king’s affection to the deceased earl, the Gazettes of June the 13th and July the 4th afford the

most ample and pleasing testimonies. "His majesty (says the first of those papers), out of his princely regard to the great deservings of the said earl, and his unexampled performances in this last act of his life, hath resolved to have his body brought up to London, there, at his charge, to receive the rights of funeral due to his great quality and merits." The Gazette of July the 4th informs us, accordingly, that "the earl of Sandwich's body being taken out of one of his majesty's yachts at Deptford, on the 3d of July 1672, and laid, in the most solemn manner, in a sumptuous barge, proceeded by water to Westminster bridge *, attended by the king's barge, his royal highness's the duke of York's; as also with the several barges of the nobility, lord mayor, and the several companies of the city of London, adorned suitably to the melancholy occasion; with trumpets and other music, that sounded the deepest notes. On passing by the Tower, the great guns there were discharged, as well as at Whitehall; and, about five o'clock in the evening, the body being taken out of the barge at Westminster bridge, there was a procession to the Abbey church, with the highest magnificence. Eight earls were assistant to his son, Edward earl of Sandwich, chief mourner; and most of the nobility, and other persons of quality in town, gave their assistance to his interment." In this order they proceeded, through a double line of the king's guards drawn up on each side the street, to the west end of the Abbey, where the dean, prebends, and choir, received them, and conducted them into Henry the Seventh's chapel, where the remains of

* A causeway, so called at that time.

the earl of Sandwich were most solemnly committed to the duke of Albemarle's vault, on the north side of the choir; which done, the officers broke their white staffs, and Garter proclaimed the titles of the most noble earl deceased. The great earl of Sandwich died in the forty-seventh year of his age, and was succeeded in his title by Edward, his eldest son.

Envy, which seems scarcely to have glanced at the earl of Sandwich while alive, hovered not about his tomb. He took no share, neither under the commonwealth nor the monarchy, in the intrigues which he was compelled to witness; and he appears, as the just award of such honesty, to have himself escaped the malice of the crafty and the turbulent. As his life was one uniform series of public service, so all have been unanimous in their commendation of a man who lived only for his country. That he was brave, and wise, and liberal, and independent, even his few enemies allow. High as are the eulogiums of his friends, these have never been arraigned for saying too much of him, of whom too much could not easily be said. All parties concur in the praise of one who was the advocate of no party; whose highest ambition was to be instrumental in the prosperity of that country, in the welfare of which the numbers of opinions the most dissonant were equally and individually concerned.

SIR RICHARD STAYNER, KNT.

STAYNER was commander of a ship of war, during the protectorate, in 1655; and has rendered his name permanent by the destruction of the Spanish flota, in the bay of Santa Cruz, which he effected under the orders of admiral Blake.

His career of naval glory began early, and continued happily. During the year 1655, in conjunction with a captain Smith, he captured a Dutch East-Indiaman of eight hundred tons, on board of which were four chests of silver. The next year, with three frigates*, he fell in with a Spanish flota of eight sail. He immediately commenced an attack, in which he was so successful, as, in a few hours, to sink one, burn a second, capture two, and drive two of the remainder on shore. The treasure which he thus acquired amounted to 600,000*l.* sterling; and he therefore returned to his native shores crowned with emolument and honour.

In the spring of 1657 he sailed with Blake, who was sent out, as in the preceding year, to intercept the Spanish West India fleet. Having received intelligence of a flota which lay at Santa Cruz, Blake hastened thither, and made the best dispositions for attacking it. As, on

* The Speaker, his own ship; the Bridgewater, and the Plymouth.

reconnoitring

reconnoitring the situation of the enemy, there appeared no chance of carrying off their galleons, it was resolved to burn them; and this resolution, the execution of which astonished even those who had achieved it, and extorted the admiration of the foe, Blake particularly committed to the intrepidity of captain Stayner. Proceeding to the accomplishment of his orders, that officer, having succeeded in forcing his passage into the bay, engaged the enemy with a determination that soon ended in their total defeat; their ships were set on fire, and burnt down to the water's edge.

This spirited action, as it was at the time very popular, proved peculiarly acceptable to Cromwell. He was, indeed, so sensible of its importance, as to cause the captured treasure to be drawn publicly through the streets of the city. The silver was carried in open carts and ammunition waggons through Southwark to the Tower; while this gratifying procession, to render it still more agreeable to the populace by a shew of confidence, was escorted by no more than ten soldiers. Stayner was deservedly knighted, and his commander Blake experienced from the protector every mark of consideration and respect.

Whatever might have been at one time the political convictions of Stayner, however ardent his zeal and his efforts on behalf of republicanism and protectorship, anarchy could not always allure; he became convinced of the necessity of a settled government, and anxious to promote its restoration; for there is a period when uncertainty and turbulence are no longer desirable. Wearied, therefore, and disgusted with the scenes through which he had passed, he entered sincerely and heartily
into

into the plan of the king's return, and assisted in conducting the fleet over to Holland. Charles rewarded this service with the honour of "legal knighthood," and also constituted Stayner rear-admiral of the royal fleet.

The remaining years of the life of sir Richard were few and tranquil. Soon after his late promotion, "he hoisted his flag, by appointment of the duke of York, on board the *Swiftsure*; and the following year served also in the same station, merely removing his flag to the *Mary*. The nation being now at peace, no opportunity was offered to this brave man of adding to those services he had already rendered his country. Although no notice is taken of such event by historians, which is somewhat singular, considering the eminence of his reputation, it is most probable that he died soon afterwards, as no mention is ever made of him subsequently to the year 1661."

PRINCE RUPERT.

PRINCE RUPERT was the third son of the elector Palatine, afterwards king of Bohemia, by Elizabeth, elder daughter to James I. Accompanied by his brother Maurice, he repaired to England at the commencement of the civil wars, and offered to his uncle, Charles I. the only treasure he possessed—a heart devoted to the cause, and a sword prompt and able to defend the interests of his unfortunate relative. He was thereupon created by the king baron of Kendal, earl of Holderneffe, and duke of Cumberland.

Rupert's first services were, however, by no means propitious to the royal cause. The battle of Marston Moor, and the surrender of Bristol, events in which the king's affairs underwent a material derangement, are supposed to have derived much of their ill-fortune from the inexperience of the prince. His highness returned shortly after to the continent, but was soon summoned from that retreat to assume the command of the little fleet that still adhered to the house of Stuart. Towards the close of 1648 the prince sailed for Ireland, designing to countenance the royalists of that nation. Here he was pursued by Blake and Popham, and, after bravely forcing



Birrell sc

PRINCE RUPERT

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forcing his way from Kinsale through the parliamentary ships, compelled to retire to the coast of France.

It would be neither gratifying to the reader, nor important to his stock of naval information, were we minutely to follow prince Rupert through the various conflicts and escapes which he now experienced. Upwards of two years he continued a piratical war against the republicans, and was as continually hunted by their admirals from one direction into another; till, having lost most of his ships, finding the rest miserably shattered and deficient in every requisite, and seeing his brother perish in the Reformation, he disposed of his remaining ships and prizes at Nantz, and with the money so produced discharged the remnant of his faithful crews.

The Restoration at length took place, and Rupert was again called from seclusion into the arduous avocations of public duty. On the 26th of April, 1662, he was sworn of the privy-council: in 1664 he was named admiral of the fleet then equipped to watch the movements of the Dutch, hoisted his flag on board the *Henrietta*, and afterwards on board the *Royal James*. He was, in 1665, on board the fleet that defeated *Opdam*, as admiral of the white. That impetuosity, so detrimental to his early fame, had now beneficially subsided, and in this action he rendered very important services to the English nation, and gave the most flattering hopes of future exertion. He was, conjointly with *Albemarle*, some time afterwards appointed to the supreme command; and shared with that eminent character those memorable naval engagements which characterised the year 1666. Between the years 1666 and 1672, an interval of peace, Rupert applied himself to scientific

discoveries and useful and elegant study. On the death of the great earl of Sandwich, in 1672, he was appointed to succeed him as vice-admiral of England; and when the duke of York, shortly after, retired from the command of the fleet, that trust was entirely deposited in the hands of Rupert.

The prince repaired to his charge in the April of 1673. His presence gave a new turn to the aspect of our maritime concerns; and the Dutch, who had lately diverted themselves with the idea of a descent on our coasts, were not a little surpris'd by the presence of an English fleet at their doors in the middle of the month of May. De Ruyter was discovered riding within the sands at Schonevelt, and very advantageously situated; it became then necessary to draw him from that position. About nine in the morning of the 28th a squadron, consisting of thirty-five frigates and thirteen fireships, were accordingly detached by the prince to lure the enemy from his retreat*. This deception succeeding, the action commenced about noon. The advanced detachment engaged Van Tromp, and the prince fell in with de Ruyter, almost two hours before our confederates, the French, thought proper to interfere. Even when engaged with d'Estrées, de Ruyter knew enough

* The principles of naval tactics, established during the last century, were totally different from those of the present day; they rather resembled the operations of an army than the manœuvres of a fleet; and, in consequence of this system, a detachment was made up of thirty-five frigates and thirteen fireships, as the advanced corps by which the intended attack was to be commenced.—These were to retire, as soon as they found de Ruyter got under way to meet them, and quitted the strong position he then lay in.

of Gallic friendship to justify him in dispatching the greater part of his squadron to the relief of Van Tromp. Here the contest was indeed obstinate. Tromp had shifted his flag four times; nor were Spragge and the earl of Ossory less distinguished, as the opponents of so intrepid a seaman. Rupert, on his side, performed all that could be expected of a wise and valiant commander. Towards the close of this battle, which lasted till night, the prince's ship took in such quantities of water at her ports, that she could not fire her lower tier.

Victory, however claimed by their adversaries, was clearly on the side of the English. The Dutch retired behind their sands, which alone saved them from indisputable defeat:—"Had it not been for fear of the shoals (says the prince, in his letter to the earl of Arlington), we had driven them into their harbours, and the king would have had a better account of them. But," he adds, "I hope his majesty will be satisfied, that, considering the place we engaged in, and the sands, there was as much done as could be expected. We lost, in this affair, the captains Fowls, Finch, Tempest, Worden; colonel Hamilton had his legs shot off; and two ships were disabled. Schram, the Dutch vice-admiral, Vlugh, their rear-admiral, and six captains, perished, and they lost one ship. Undoubtedly, had the French followed up our operations, our triumph had then been complete."

With the advantage of recruiting immediately, as they were left on their own shores, while the English were obliged to put back into port ere they could refit, the Dutch were again at sea by the beginning of June. Suspicious of the enemy's celerity, and knowing the

wind favourable to his wishes, prince Rupert went on board the Royal Sovereign on the evening of June the 3d, and watched during the whole of the night for his approach. On the morning of the 4th the Dutch were plainly descried, bearing down on our fleet, when the prince, eager to meet, ordered his cables to be cut. It was four P. M. before Spragge could engage with Tromp: but the fleets did not then close with each other, and, though the cannonading was continued briskly till dark, the whole affair did not exceed a skirmish. If at first courted, the contest was, however, at last, avoided by the Dutch, who, between ten and eleven at night, stood off to the S. E. The French, as in a former instance, would not mix actively in the engagement.

As the office of lord high-admiral had become vacant by the resignation of the duke of York, who vacated his post on the passing of the test act, prince Rupert was appointed first commissioner for the execution of that office, on the 9th of July.

The rival nations were by this time again prepared to encounter; and, on the 11th of August, prince Rupert and de Ruyter met for the third time. Some time was unavoidably lost by the English, during which the Dutch admiral had gained the wind, and now bore down upon the confederates, as though he designed to force them to a battle. This was no sooner understood by prince Rupert, than he immediately tacked, and put his force into good order; stationing the French in the van, himself in the middle, and Sir Edward Spragge in the rear: this was a wise disposition, and one in which d'Estrées might have gained the wind of the enemy, which,

which, in the usual style of Gallic friendship, he nevertheless neglected to acquire. Long since aware of the nature of French assistance *, the Dutch, from the beginning of the action, took scarcely any notice of our allies, but prudently directed their main efforts against Rupert and sir Edward Spragge. Against Rupert the contest became particularly violent. But, surrounded as he was by enemies, and deprived for a while of all assistance from friends, having beaten off the ships by which he was most pressed, he fully succeeded in his endeavours to rejoin Sir John Chichely, the rear-admiral of his own division, who had, early in the action, been dismembered by the enemy. With this reinforcement he sailed, about two o'clock, to the relief of Spragge, whom he found hard pressed by Van Tromp. Meantime de Ruyter, perceiving Rupert's design, made sail to the support of his colleague. " Seeing that Tromp had tacked, and was bearing down to fall upon the crippled ships, the prince ran between them and the enemy; and made a signal for such of Spragge's squadron as were in any condition for service, to fall into the line. He repeated such signal to the white, under d'Estrées, which

* Bankart contented himself with sending eight men of war and three fireships against rear-admiral de Martel, who seemed to be the only man that had any real design to fight.—De Martel, being left not only by the body of the French fleet, but even by the captains of his own division, was attacked by five Dutch ships at once. He fought them for two hours, and with such courage and success, that, having disabled one, the rest were glad to sheer off, and he rejoined the white squadron: where expostulating with the captains of his own division for deserting him so basely, they told him plainly, *They had orders from the admiral not to observe his motions.* On his return to France the brave de Martel was sent to the Bastille!

however, though it had sustained little or no damage, and might have completely extricated him from his distress, never shewed the smallest inclination of coming to his relief. Of the blue squadron the vice and rear-admirals alone were by this time, through the great activity of their commanders, so far refitted as to be capable of obeying the signal. About five o'clock de Ruyter, with the whole of his division, having joined Van Tromp, the contest was renewed, if possible, with greater spirit and obstinacy than in the earlier part of it; and although the prince had a force not exceeding thirteen ships to sustain this truly formidable attack, yet so successful were the valorous efforts of this naval phalanx, that, after having fought about two hours, the Dutch began to give way, and fall into confusion: this was very critically increased by the prince, who, at this instant, sent two fireships among the disordered squadrons of the enemy, and by that step completed his own deliverance and their overthrow. Upon the whole, this may be considered a drawn battle. The prince made easy sail towards the English coasts; and the main benefit which the Dutch derived from the engagement was, the opening of their ports, and the dispersion of all their fears of an invasion.

Though the prince did not relinquish his admiralty commission till February 1679, he must be considered as having retired from public life soon after his last engagement with the Dutch. The years of his retirement were passed chiefly at Windsor Castle, of which he was governor, and were exclusively devoted to the prosecution of the elegant and useful arts, and to literature in general. Thus it was he produced the mode of engraving

ing called mezzotinto, and the invention of an art long since lost, by which wadt, or black lead, was dissolved into a fluid as perfect as that of any other metal. Many other discoveries are attributed to prince Rupert. Dr. Birch, in his History of the Royal Society, records the following.—“ A particular kind of screw, applied to a quadrant at sea, by the aid of which it was secured from receiving any alteration, either from the unsteadiness of the observer’s hands, or the violence of the ship’s motion; a gun which discharged several bullets with the utmost safety and rapidity; a singular improvement in the art of manufacturing gunpowder, so that its force was augmented as twenty-one to two; a very curious engine for the purpose of raising water; an instrument for the more expeditious and accurate drawing of perspective, for which the society appointed a special committee of their members to return him thanks; a new and advantageous method of blasting rocks in mines.” To him Dr. Hook ascribes the invention of a mode of making hail shot, of different sizes. And he is acknowledged to have been the original contriver of that composition, called after him, prince’s metal. This excellent personage at length died at his house in Spring Gardens, on the 29th of November 1682, in the sixty-third year of his age: he was interred in Henry the seventh’s chapel, with that solemn respect which his actions had so justly merited.

Prince Rupert has descended to posterity with a character not to be impaired by the usual devastations of time. He was always a brave commander, and in the maturer years of life, whatever were the defects of his youth, he joined to that valour no inconsiderable por-

tion of judgment, wisdom, and prudence; perhaps his ideas of discipline were, however, too rigid, and his manners not perfectly conciliating to those whom he so successfully commanded. He meddled not in the concerns of the cabinet. In religion he was a steady protestant; to the state a zealous and faithful servant; to his king a loyal and a valuable subject. He was, in few words, an honest, a wise, and a brave man.

SIR JOHN LAWSON.



THE neglect of merit has been too frequently and too justly remarked; but that it always passes unnoticed and unrewarded is, among many other instances, abundantly disproved in the fate of sir John Lawson. This officer's origin was obscure, his parents living in circumstances extremely low, at Hull; and thus urged by necessity, or a choice impelled by necessity, he very early in life applied himself to the sea. They, who on this boisterous element would arrive at reputation and riches, must attain that eminence by many painful gradations; it was accordingly 1653 before Lawson, though an able and diligent seaman, attracted any particular attention. He now rose to the command of the *Fairfax*, in which station he had the fortune to rescue the *Triumph* from the very center of the hostile squadron, in our first action with the Dutch. This ship, on board of which were Blake and Deane, was so severely pressed as to be in imminent danger of destruction, or of speedily becoming the prey of the enemy; Blake himself being wounded, and her captain and nearly an hundred of her men killed. In a second engagement, Lawson boarded and carried off one Dutch man of war, and captured another in the course of the pursuit following the action. As a suitable acknowledgment of bravery so

so successfully exerted, the parliament at once promoted him to the rank of rear-admiral.

Lawson had now under his command a squadron of forty-four sail; and on the 1st of June, in a third action, attacked de Ruyter with so much vigour, that his division was nearly broken, and even the admiral himself had in all probability been made prisoner, but for the timely appearance of Tromp. Owing to the unexpected arrival of Tromp, Lawson was obliged to remain contented with having sunk a Dutchman of forty-two guns. On the 19th of July, the gallantry of Lawson was again displayed. The havoc made in the fleet during the progress of this fourth, and most tremendous struggle, was indeed dreadful; it was such as to compel the enemy immediately to sue for peace, almost on any terms. Lawson, who had by this time attained the rank of vice-admiral, was as much distinguished on this occasion as in any of the preceding conflicts; and being left to block up their ports, he in a few days captured no less than thirty-eight of the enemy's ships. For this, and his other eminent services, the parliament, who never withheld or delayed the recompence due to merit, voted him a gold chain.

In the year 1655 admiral Lawson was appointed to the command of the channel fleet. But the alteration that had taken place in the government at last affected his prosperity. Lawson was a man who really acted from the impulse of principle, and one who of course could not brook the usurpation of Cromwell. He was therefore by the protector's order arrested, and committed to the tower; and though shortly after released from confinement, he appeared no more on the public stage till the decease of Oliver,

Perhaps this specimen of republican freedom might first lead Lawson to reflect on the erroneousness of his political tenets; for he very maturely, very honestly, and very cordially, gave into those measures which were in agitation among the friends of the monarchy; being entrusted by the parliament with the command of a few frigates, and instructed to take charge of the whole of Montague's fleet, on that admiral's return from the Baltic, he evinced the sincerity of his political regeneration, by coalescing with Montague and Monk to effect the re-establishment of royalty.

Immediately on the arrival of Montague and Lawson in Holland, the latter received the honour of knighthood, and was afterwards, on the king's coming to England, appointed a commissioner of the navy. Not long after the Restoration Lawson accompanied the earl of Sandwich in the fleet that was equipped to awe the Algerines, and bring over the infanta of Portugal. While in this service, some circumstances happened between Lawson and de Ruyter which kindled the spirit of a new war. De Ruyter had fired a salute, to which Lawson making no return, the Dutch admiral thought proper to withdraw from our service. As Charles had but recently concluded his alliance with the States, he never forgave this dereliction of their commander. It is to be observed, in justification of sir John Lawson, that he had received a positive instruction from government *not to return the salute to the ships of any prince or state whatever*. Sir John was recalled from this scene, to act as rear admiral of the red under his royal highness the duke of York.

He was very grateful for this honour, and is said to have

have tendered his sovereign such advice * as would have effected a more speedy termination of hostilities than was likely to ensue from the proceedings which were really adopted. During the first year of the war nothing material occurred, the Dutch suffering themselves to be blocked up in their own ports by the English fleet. The year 1663 was more actively distinguished. On the 21st of April, the duke of York sailed with the grand fleet to Holland, and resolutely engaged the enemy. At the latter end of the engagement, which took place off Leostoff, on the third of June, fell the brave sir John Lawson, who was wounded in the knee by a musket-ball, after having exceeded every former effort of his valour. Though deprived of enjoying the reward which must have awaited his exertions, he had yet the gratification to know that those exertions were crowned with success. He was conveyed to Greenwich, where for some time great hopes were entertained of his recovery, but where he at length yielded up his mortal existence, in the service of his country, on June the 23d, 1663.

* He observed, that, in the former Dutch war, the enemy were more distressed by the captures he made after the last great battle, than they had been by all the operations of the war; from which circumstance he reasoned thus—That they were able, as a state, to fit out great fleets in less time and at a much less expence, than it was possible for his majesty to do; and their subjects willingly contributed to this, because they saw the necessity, and were sensible of the good effects of it. But if numbers of their merchant ships were taken, if their commerce was rendered precarious, and many of their traders became beggars; for this they had no remedy, and that therefore this was their tender part in which they might be hurt, and in which if they were hurt, they must make a peace on such terms as his majesty should think fit to prescribe. This advice was rejected at that time, but after sir John was dead, the king began to think upon the counsel he had given him, and wished to have pursued it.

Adverting

Adverting to the actions of sir John Lawson, it has been justly observed, that, “ a man of real integrity, who acts always from the dictates of his reason, will be sure to raise a high character, and to be justly esteemed even by those who differ from him ever so widely in sentiments.” The truth of this remark could not be more strikingly illustrated than by a reference to the life of Lawson. He was esteemed and honoured by the parliament, and not less so by the king than he had been by the commonwealth; for he served both from principle, and with that ardour which is never evinced but by those whose hearts are engaged in the cause they have undertaken to support.

SIR JOHN KEMPTHORNE.

SIR JOHN KEMPTHORNE was born at Widscombe in Devonshire, anno 1620. His father, ardently attached to the royal cause, having quitted the profession of the law to serve as a lieutenant of horse in the king's army, had thereby so much impaired his fortune as to be incapable of bestowing on his son that education and those advantages to which, as the brave descendant of a gallant and respectable family, John was peculiarly entitled. Young Kempthorne was bound apprentice to the master of a trading vessel belonging to Topsham. In a situation so adverse to those prospects which he must at one time have contemplated, instead of sinking under the pressure of disappointment, he seemed rather to collect strength from the conflict; and, blessed by nature with a clear and a strong understanding, he applied himself so earnestly to the study of his profession, as, at an early age, to secure the patronage and employment of the most wealthy merchants in Exeter, on whose account he made several trading voyages.

The commencement of the Spanish war afforded Kempthorne a very flattering occasion for the display of his courage and talents. He was, in his passage to the Mediterranean, attacked by a Spanish man of war, commanded

manded by a knight of Malta. Having at first successfully resisted the superior force of his assailant, he was now, through the failure of shot, in danger of immediate capture. In this trying moment he supplied himself with a singular relief. Recollecting that he had several bags of dollars on board, he substituted them in the place of the ordinary charge; and thus what might have been considered as the spoils, had nearly proved the destruction of the Spaniards. Kempthorne, notwithstanding this expedient, was at last compelled to surrender: but the knight, who, like a brave man, admired the conduct of his antagonist, after an interval, during which he could not be viewed as enduring the fate of a prisoner, freely discharged Kempthorne, and sent him home. But the adventure did not terminate here. A few years afterwards this very knight was himself captured by commodore Ven, and on being brought into England, sent prisoner to the tower. When Kempthorne was informed of this event, he hastened to repay that generosity which he had so fully experienced. He, in fine, rested not till he had procured the knight's enlargement; though this was with difficulty achieved, at considerable expence and inconvenience to himself. An action so honourable to captain Kempthorne was not overlooked; it acquired him the esteem and affection of every wise and generous mind, and considerably contributed to the advancement of his reputation and fortune.

Shortly after the Restoration Kempthorne entered into the royal navy, and was made captain of the Kent; in the course of the same year, 1664, he was removed, first into the Dunkirk, and again into the Royal James.

He

He commanded the *Old James*, in the first action between the English and Dutch. Early in 1666 he was promoted to the *Royal Charles*, the ship on board which the duke of Albermarle had hoisted the standard. His merit in the latter station raised him, on the termination of the duke's first engagement with the Dutch, to act as rear admiral of the blue, in which rank he commanded the *Defiance* during the second action, and eminently distinguished himself. He was entrusted, in 1667, with a convoy to the Straits, and returned with a numerous fleet of merchantmen in May the same year. In his second expedition to the Straits, during the year 1669, he fell in, on the 29th of December, with seven Algerine men of war. These, after a brisk action of four hours continuance, and having preserved his convoy entire, he compelled to fly*. Having refitted at Cadiz, he sailed from thence on the 8th of March 1670, with a convoy of sixty-four sail; and immediately after his arrival in England received the honour of knighthood. In 1671 he was appointed commander of the *Victory*.

On the commencement of the second Dutch war, Sir John Kempthorne hoisted his flag on board the *St. Andrew*, as rear admiral of the blue; he exerted himself

* This gallant action was some years afterwards out-done, though with infinite satisfaction to Kempthorne; for his son, when twenty-three years of age, in the *King's Fisher*, a frigate carrying forty-six guns and two hundred and twenty men, engaged seven Algerines, three of which Algerines carried as many guns as the whole squadron with which the father contended. After many hours fight, during which young Kempthorne was frequently boarded, the enemy were obliged to desist, and the king's ship was carried safe into a Spanish port, where, however, her brave young captain died of his wounds.

so nobly in the Solebay fight, that he was shortly after promoted to be rear admiral of the red, and in the following spring, to be vice admiral of the blue; still continuing in his old ship, the St. Andrew. In the two actions of 1673 sir John Kempthorne was eminently distinguished, and here his naval services ended; for, on the 25th of November, 1675, he was appointed a commissioner of the navy at Portsmouth, and never after had an opportunity of exerting himself at sea. Sir John Kempthorne died at Portsmouth on the 19th of October 1679—"a most zealous protestant, a gallant officer, and an honest man."

SIR GEORGE AYSCOUGH.

THE family of Ayscough possesses considerable claim to antiquity, and was originally seated in Lincolnshire. William Ayscough, esq. father of sir George, was gentleman of the privy chamber to Charles I. from whom George received the honour of knighthood. When sir George Ayscough first gave himself to the pursuit of maritime affairs, we are not informed: as little do we know of those reasons, which, in the beginning of the rebellion, induced him to side with the parliament; we are only informed that “ he was treated very respectfully by the parliament, which bound him effectually to their service.” That, however, he was sincerely attached to his new masters, he fully proved when, in 1648, on the general revolt of the fleet in favour of the prince of Wales, he brought off his ship, the *Lion*, into the Thames. Grateful for this evidence of his fidelity, and willing to encourage a disposition so propitious to their interests, the parliament immediately sent him to watch the proceedings of his former colleagues, and soon afterwards promoted him to a greater trust on the Irish coasts. In March 1649 he was constituted admiral of the Irish seas; a station in which he effectually served the cause of protestantism, by promoting the objects of his employment.

ment. As a further mark of their gratitude and esteem, the parliament made due provision for sir George's arrears, and extended his command to the close of 1650.

Other scenes now claimed the attention of his employers; and Ayscough was dispatched early in 1651 to the reduction of the Scilly islands. In this enterprize he was associated with Blake. The islands were at this time garrisoned for Charles II. by a stout force, under sir George Grenville, and the Dutch were also tampering with the governor. But the vigilance of Blake and Ayscough dissipated every difficulty; a treaty was set on foot, by which the effusion of blood was spared, the intrigues of the Dutch were baffled, and the isles were honourably and peacefully surrendered to the English republic; though much against the temper of that government, the members of which were not a little displeased that Grenville had not been driven to extremes. From this scene Ayscough proceeded to Barbadoes, his main destination. He reached that island on the 26th of October 1651, where he soon became acquainted with the difficulties that opposed his progress, and resolved to surmount them. His force, when compared with that of the island, was inconsiderable; and the governor, lord Willoughby, a wise and spirited man, and entirely beloved by the islanders, had already assembled a body of five thousand troops. These circumstances, so formidable in the onset, were at length overcome by the conduct of the republican commander, and his lordship was brought to a capitulation.

General Ludlow gives the following sketch of the transaction.—“ Sir George opened a passage into the

harbour by firing some great shot, and then seized upon twelve of their ships without opposition. The next morning he sent a summons to the lord Willoughby, to submit to the authority of the parliament of England; but he, not acknowledging any such power, declared his resolution of keeping the island for the king's service. But the news of the defeat of the Scots, and their king, at Worcester, being brought to sir George Ayscough, together with an intercepted letter from the lady Willoughby containing the same account; he summoned him a second time, and accompanied his summons with the lady's letter, to assure him of the truth of that report. But the lord Willoughby relying upon his numbers, and the fewness of those that were sent to reduce him, being in all but fifteen sail, returned an answer of the like substance with the former. Whereupon sir George Ayscough sent two hundred men on shore, commanded by captain Morrice, to attack a quarter of the enemy's that lay by the harbour, which they executed successfully by taking the fort, and about forty prisoners, with four pieces of cannon, which they nailed up, and returned on board again. At this time the Virginia fleet arriving at Barbadoes, it was thought fit to send a third summons to the lord Willoughby; but finding that neither this, nor the declaration sent by the commissioners of parliament to the same purpose, produced any effect, sir George landed seven hundred men, giving the command of them to Morrice, who fell upon thirteen hundred of the enemy's foot, and three troops of their horse, and beat them from their works, killing many of their men, and taking about one hundred prisoners,

soners, with all their guns. The loss on our side was inconsiderable, few of ours being killed upon the place, and not above thirty wounded. In this conjuncture, colonel Muddiford, who commanded a regiment in the island, by the means of a friend that he had in our fleet, made his terms, and declared for the parliament. Many of his friends following his example, did the like, and in conjunction with him encamped under the protection of our fleet. Upon this, the most part of the island were inclined to join us; but the lord Willoughby prevented them, by placing guards on all the avenues to our camp; he even designed to charge our men with his body of horse, had not a cannon ball that was fired at random beat open the door of a room where he and his council of war were sitting, and which, taking off the head of the centinel who was placed at the door, so alarmed them all, that he changed his design, and retreated to a place two miles distant from the harbour. Our party, consisting of two hundred foot and one hundred horse, advancing towards him, he desired to treat.—The treaty ran, “that the islands of Nevis, Antigua, and St. Christopher, should be surrendered to the parliament of England; that the lord Willoughby, and several others, should be restored to their estates; and that the inhabitants of the said isles should be maintained in the quiet enjoyment of what they possessed, on condition to do nothing to the prejudice of the commonwealth.” Sir George found, however, that he had again erred in liberality to the foe, again displeased his rigid and unrelenting masters.

Unfitted as sir George was, by such a series of service,

for new adventures, he yet learnt, on his return to Europe, that his ships were immediately to engage in the prosecution of a Dutch war. He was attended with his usual success; he had not been long at sea, when he fell in with the St. Ube's fleet, consisting of forty sail, and took, burnt, or destroyed, thirty of them. Nor was he less happy in baffling Van Tromp, who, with a stout squadron, endeavoured to intercept his return. Sir George, refitted and reinforced, shortly after, off Plymouth, fell in with de Ruyter and a convoy. An action ensued. Lediard says, that sir George having charged the enemy with the utmost gallantry, broke through their line and weathered them; and that, after this advantage, not being properly supported by some of his ships, he thought proper, as night put an end to the contest, to retire to Plymouth. If de Ruyter at last carried his point, the protection of his convoy, it was with a force much superior to that of Ayscough, and at a cost not inadequate to the object protected. After all, as our advantages were not decisive, the parliament took this opportunity of excepting to their usual praises of sir George; "they thought proper to dismiss him from his command, under the pretence, *that he had not been so victorious as he ought to have been.*" But discerning men could easily see, that sir George's generosity to royalist governors was the real, and his partial fortune in the engagement with de Ruyter merely the ostensible reason for his dismissal. Yet, though they had discarded, they could not venture wholly to offend a favourite commander; and the parliament therefore voted a pension of 300*l.* a year on Ireland, and the present sum of

300*l.* in cash, in acknowledgment of Ayscough's services.

The scene of sir George's activity was now completely altered. He led a retired life, never intermeddling, and scarcely mingling with state transactions. His seclusion is thus described by Whitlock, who saw him at his seat in Surrey in 1656. "The house stands environed with ponds, moats, and water, like a ship at sea; a fancy the fitter for the master's humour, who is himself so great a seaman. *There, he said, he had cast anchor, and intended to spend the rest of his life in private retirement.*" From that retirement he was, nevertheless, afterwards drawn by Cromwell, and prevailed upon to enter into the service of Sweden, where he staid till the beginning of 1660.

Returning to England soon after the Restoration, sir George was appointed commissioner of the navy, and, on the breaking out of the Dutch war in 1664, rear admiral of the blue. On the memorable 3d of June he hoisted his flag on board the *Henry*; and on the duke of York's resignation, was promoted vice admiral of the red, under the earl of Sandwich, who carried the standard as admiral of the fleet. Being further promoted to be admiral of the blue, he acted in this capacity against the Dutch, on the 1st of June 1666. It was on the third day of this famous action, that sir George, who had previously performed prodigies of valour, while endeavouring to form a junction with prince Rupert, struck on a sand called the Galloper, where, after having for a considerable time defended his ship with the utmost bravery, he was at last com-

pelled to surrender. His ship was burnt by the enemy, who found it impracticable to carry her off.

As to sir George, he was paraded with the accustomed insult, from one end of Holland to the other, and then shut up in the castle of Louvestein. He was afterwards released, and returned to his retirement, where he lived and died in the utmost privacy.





SIR, EDWARD SPRAGGE

From a rare print

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SIR EDWARD SPRAGGE.

THERE is but too much occasion for the complaint which has been so generally repeated, of the paucity of biographical incidents. It may not, however, be impossible to investigate those causes which have too successfully operated in obscuring the memorial of good and illustrious men. Before the art of printing was perfectly cultivated, or the taste for literature became extensively diffused, it is certain that the memory of great characters was by no means preserved with a solicitude proportioned to their merits; but as information extended, curiosity admitted of a readier gratification, and accordingly imperiously demanded some account of those, who, in their day and generation, had eminently contributed either to the amusement, the instruction, or the more active service of the public. Hence has arisen that fidelity to departed merit which is now so anxious to preserve a worthy record of the great, the wise, and the good.

Sir Edward Spragge lived not in times so auspicious to the reputation of exalted characters, and has therefore unfortunately experienced no inconsiderable portion of biographical neglect. Where, and when he was born,
of

of whom descended, and what were his parents, are questions which we in vain ask relative to sir Edward Spragge: though, notwithstanding the uncertainty in which those particulars are involved, his ancestry and parentage were in all probability highly respectable, and such as introduced him into life under circumstances very favourable and flattering. The first account to be met with of Spragge, is that in 1661 he commanded the *Portland*; and that in 1664, he was successively promoted to the *Dover* and the *Lion*. He was afterwards removed to the *Royal James*, and from thence into the *Triumph*, where his conduct, during the engagement with *Opdam* in 1665, has been highly extolled; it procured him the honour of knighthood, on the 24th of June in that year.

In the spring of 1666 sir Edward Spragge was made commander of the *Dreadnought*, and rear admiral of the white: he rose from the last appointment to be vice admiral of the blue, during the engagement between *Albemarle* and *Ruyter*, and invariably evinced a courage and skill not inferior to his advancement in honour. His exertions during the following year, when he hoisted his flag on board the *Revenge* at *Sheerness*, are circumstantially recorded by *Charnock*. "The place itself was almost incapable of resistance, its whole defence consisting of a platform on which were mounted fifteen iron guns, yet he continued for a considerable time to oppose near thirty men of war. And when, at last, the superiority of their force was such as to render all further contest fruitless, he made good his retreat with the few brave men under his command, to oppose the enemy a second time, and with greater success than before.

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He retreated up the river; and taking post at the battery at Gillingham, opposite Upnor castle, received the Dutch so warmly when they attempted to force their way up the river, on the 13th of June 1667, that they were glad to retreat, with the loss of a considerable number of their men, the destruction of many of their long boats, and an infinite mischief done to their shipping, two of which, after running on shore, were burnt, to prevent their falling into our hands. Not yet sufficiently chastised for their rashness, on the 23d of July they returned to the mouth of the Thames, and from thence sailed up to the Hope, where lay a small squadron that had just before been put under the orders of sir Edward. When they first made their appearance, he unfortunately had not arrived to take the command. As an incontrovertible proof how much the absence of a single person may injure the nation whose battles he has undertaken to conduct, the only success the Dutch could, with any proper justice, claim during this expedition, which was not counterbalanced by their loss in acquiring it, was owing to this unlucky cause. On the following day the enemy began to retire; and sir Edward, who had now taken upon him the command, prepared to pursue with the utmost expedition. On the 25th, at day-light, it was discovered the enemy had dropped down as low as the buoy of the Nore. Sir Edward having resolved to take every advantage of the tide, and drive down with the ebb, though it was then almost low water, was compelled, in consequence of the tide making up, to come to an anchor, about three o'clock, a little below Lee. At one o'clock, the flood being spent, the Dutch fleet again got under way; our squadron doing the same, and
plying

plying up to them with all the expedition in their power, a distant, and consequently indecisive action commenced, which continued with little intermission till sun set. On the 26th the Dutch wisely persevered in retiring whenever the tide permitted them; and sir J. Jordan, who arrived from Harwich with a reinforcement of twenty small frigates and fireships, having contrived, though with some difficulty, to pass the Dutch fleet, which lay between him and Spragge, the pursuit was continued with redoubled alacrity, but the wind suddenly rising, both parties were obliged to come to anchor. On the 27th the Dutch got clear of the banks, sir Edward not having it in his power to close with them." Spragge continued to exert himself in his usual line of service till 1668, towards the close of which year he was appointed envoy to the constable of Castile, who had been recently made governor of the Spanish Netherlands.

He returned to England in January 1669, and was soon nominated vice admiral of the Mediterranean fleet under sir Thomas Allen, hoisting his flag on board the *Revenge*; in this station he rendered such essential benefit to the state, that when Allen returned from the Straits, in November 1670, he was left commander in chief in the Mediterranean.

Towards the latter end of April, 1671, Spragge having received intelligence of a number of Algerine corsairs then lying in Bugia bay, resolved to attack them. After some uncontrollable delays, the attack was begun on the night of May the 2d, but with indifferent success. At length, finding himself considerably weakened, and the enemy, on the contrary, strengthened, on the 8th of
May

May he determined on another assault. The utmost precaution and gallantry were, however, become necessary to insure success. Ever since the first attack, the Algerines had laboured incessantly to secure their vessels, which they purposely unrigged, by a strong boom made of their yards and top-masts and cables, buoyed up by casks; and the long continuance of tempestuous weather had afforded them all the leisure necessary to defence. About two P. M. a fine easterly breeze having sprung up, the attack was at last seriously commenced, and sir Edward brought to close under the walls of the castle, where he sustained, for the space of two hours, a warm and incessant fire. During this time the boats of the fleet were employed in cutting the boom, and clearing a passage for the fireship. That once effected, she was sent in, and, being admirably conducted, realized every hope:—the whole Algerine fleet, consisting of seven men of war and three captures, were burnt. The destruction of these vessels so terrified and irritated the Turks, that they struck off the head of their Dey, and set up another more agreeable to pacific wishes. Peace was accordingly concluded, in December following, and Spragge returned in triumph to England.

In the subsequent Dutch wars sir Edward Spragge bore an arduous share: he acted as vice-admiral of the red in the battle of Solebay, and was afterwards appointed to succeed the earl of Sandwich as admiral of the blue. Between this and the war conducted by prince Rupert, Spragge was sent on an embassy into France. He conducted his mission with great prudence, and much to the satisfaction of the court.

Called again into naval warfare, he highly distinguish-
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ed himself on the 28th of May, 1673, in his memorable contest with Tromp, which lasted seven hours, and in the course of which he compelled that brave enemy to shift from the Golden Lion into the Prince, from thence into the Amsterdam, and again into the Comet; and here Tromp had perished, but for the timely relief afforded him by de Ruyter. Prince Rupert, though at this time at variance with Spragge, acknowledged his merit in suitable terms. "Sir Edward Spragge," says his highness, in the official letter, "did on his side maintain the fight with so much courage and resolution, that their whole body gave way to such a degree, that had it not been for fear of the shoals, we had driven them, &c. &c." On the 4th of June, Spragge again encountered the Dutch, with his usual character, though the engagement was extremely partial. The unimportance of the 4th of June was, however, quickly forgotten in that struggle which ensued on the 11th of August following. Sir Edward was again opposed to Van Tromp. "These two competitors for fame were so intent on terminating each, by the destruction of his antagonist, their private animosity*, that, intent only on action, they had fallen several leagues to leeward of their own fleets. In vain was one ship disabled, while another remained in a condition to supply her place. The Royal Prince and the St. George, ships on board of which Sir Edward successively hoisted his flag, remained, on the side of the English, melancholy examples of the

* It is understood that Spragge, when he received his appointment from the king, promised he would either bring him Van Tromp dead or alive, or lose his own life in the attempt.

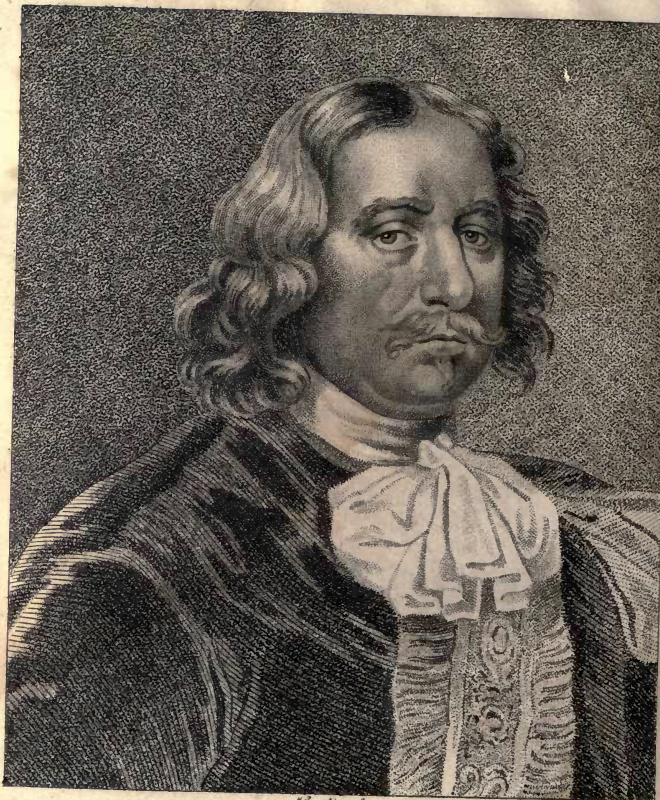
horrors of war, and incontestable proofs of the spirit of their seamen, when headed by a commander they adored. On the part of the Dutch, the Golden Lion and the Comet, Tromp's ships, exhibited the same misery. The St. George being rendered almost a wreck, sir Edward found it expedient to remove on board a third ship, the Royal Charles; a necessary perhaps, but a fatal resolution. His boat had not rowed ten times its own length from the St. George before it was pierced by a cannon shot; and, notwithstanding every exertion made by the crew, sir Edward was drowned before they could regain their own ship. He took so strong a hold of the boat, that when it came to float, his head and shoulders were above water*."

Those who have most attentively contemplated the life of sir Edward Spragge, trace in him no inconsider-

* Bishop Parker, in his History of his Own Times, thus records the loss of sir Edward Spragge. "There was a remarkable fight between Spragge and Tromp; for these having mutually agreed to attack each other, not out of hatred, but a thirst of glory, they engaged with all the rage, or, as it were, with all the sport of war. They came so close to one another, that, like an army of foot, they fought at once with their guns and swords. Almost at every turn, both their ships, though not sunk, were yet bored through, their cannon being discharged within common gun-shot: Neither did our ball fall in vain into the sea; but each ship pierced the other, as if they had fought with spears. But at length, three or four ships being shattered, as Spragge was passing in a long boat from one ship to another, the boat was overturned by a chance shot, and that great man, not being skilled in swimming, was drowned, to the great grief of his generous enemy, who, after the death of Spragge, could hardly hope to find an enemy equal to himself." The author of the Life of de Ruyter says, describing this last conflict between Tromp and Spragge, "the Dutch avow the like never to have been seen; their own two ships (*i. e.* the ships of Tromp and Spragge) having, without touching a sail, strangely endured the fury of full three hours incessant battery."

able resemblance to the great earl of Sandwich. They both fought with uncommon success the naval battles of their country, and were both at last overwhelmed by that element on which they had so often conquered. They both concealed, under the most finished urbanity and gentlemanly exterior, a firm and a daring mind. Each was eminently beloved by his men, each idolized by his friends, each feared and esteemed by his enemies; and both excited by their fate universal praises and regret.





Harding sc

S^r. JOS^{PH}. JORDAN

Pub^d. 7. Dec. 1799. by Edw^d. Harding 38 Pall Mall

SIR JOSEPH JORDAN.

SIR JOSEPH JORDAN was appointed commander of the *George*, a second rate, in 1664, and must have early displayed those talents which entitled him to promotion, since he was soon after made rear-admiral of the white, and received the honour of knighthood. In the long action between the duke of Albemarle and the Dutch, sir Joseph held the station of rear-admiral of the red, and on the fleet's return into port was raised to the vice-admiralship of the same squadron. The next signal service performed by sir Joseph Jordan consisted in his repulse of the Dutch, in 1667, at Chatham. He was at this time commander of the ships of war at Harwich, and went out, at the greatest personal risk, in a small galliot, attended but by two fireships, on the very important design of reconnoitring the hostile fleet: nor did he render a less essential benefit by those skilful manœuvres in which he gained the wind, and eminently contributed to accelerate the retreat of the enemy, on the second attack.

Nothing material occurs in the life of Jordan till 1672, when, on the breaking out of the second Dutch war, he hoisted his flag on board the *Sovereign*, as rear-admiral of the red; but was almost as immediately promoted to be vice admiral of the blue, under Sandwich.

Much censure has unfortunately been attached to his conduct, while vice-admiral of the blue, at the battle of Solebay; to him has been imputed, though rashly, the sad fate of the gallant earl of Sandwich, who fell a sort of sacrifice to sir Joseph's sollicitude for the safety of the duke of York. "It is, however, the decided opinion of all historians, that sir Joseph, by keeping the wind (in doing which he was necessitated to neglect the immediate distress of lord Sandwich) was the principal cause of the victory that followed; and much as we may feel ourselves impelled to lament a conduct which, in any, the most distant, degree contributed to deprive the world of so great and so good a man, yet posterity would have been more apt to have condemned him who had purchased the safety of his admiral at the expence of victory." Though, on the return of the English into port, sir Joseph was appointed vice admiral of the red, he was never afterwards employed. The reason of such neglect is not known; as uncertain also are the time, place, and manner of sir Joseph's decease.





Harding sc.

S^r. CHRISTOPHER MINGH

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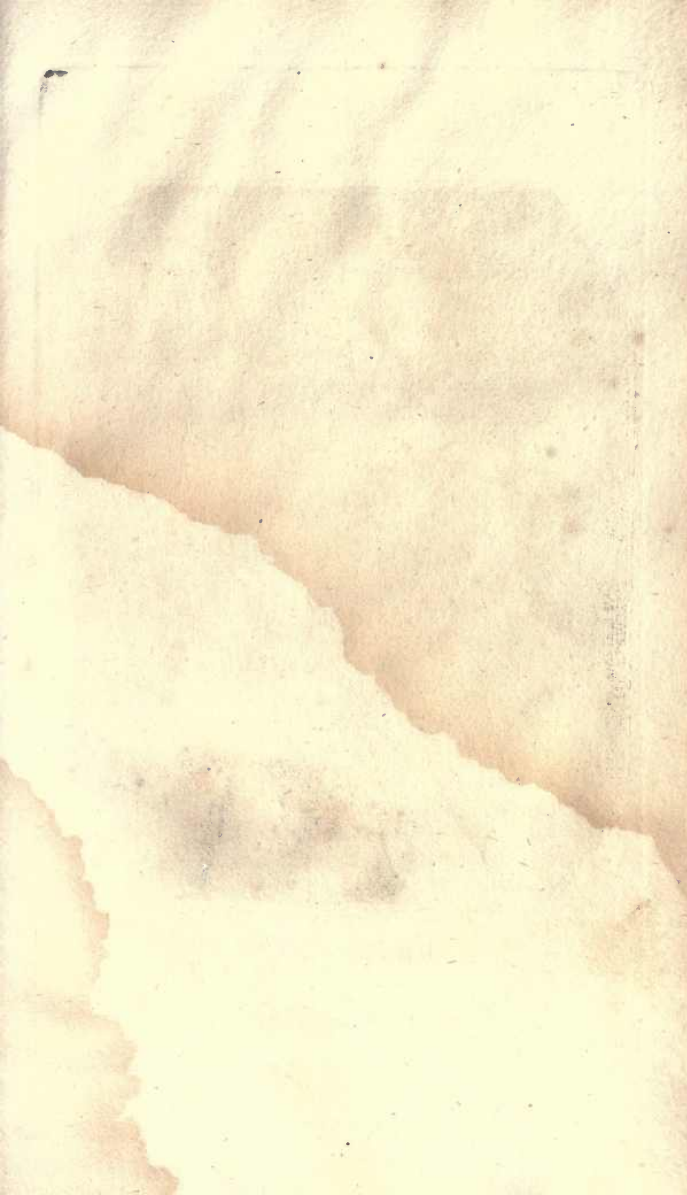
SIR CHRISTOPHER MINGH.

MINGH was made captain of the Centurion in 1662; in 1664 he became successively captain of the Gloucester, the Portland, and the Royal Oak, and was appointed vice-admiral of the channel fleet under Rupert. In the engagement between the Dutch and Opdam, he hoisted his flag on board the Triumph, as vice-admiral of the white. He was shortly after advanced to be vice-admiral of the blue, and entrusted with the command of a stout squadron destined for the protection of our commerce. He sailed first to the Downs, and then to the Elbe, fully affording to trade that support which is only to be expected, and is only given, by a wise, a brave, and a vigilant commander.

His abilities were at length again summoned into scenes of greater exertion and peril. When the fleet was assembled under Rupert and Albemarle, he was appointed vice-admiral of the white. In that capacity he had no share in the three memorable engagements which took place between the Dutch and the duke of Albemarle, as his division, under the orders of Rupert, had been detached, on a false alarm, to meet the confederate French. He came, however, into the fourth day's conflict; and, as if concerned to compensate even

for unavoidable inactivity, he how exerted himself beyond all that the most rigid duty or most exalted honour could require. We are assured by the author of *De Ruyter's Life*, that "Mingh having received a musket ball in his throat, would not be persuaded to be bound, or to leave the quarter deck, but held his fingers in the wound, to stop the flowing blood, for about half an hour, till another ball taking him in the neck, he died, after having given the most signal proofs of his courage to the very last gasp." So perished a man, whose exertions had created the most flattering hopes of a long series of exploits at once honourable to himself and beneficial to his country. He died on the 4th of June 1666, in the hour of victory, and in the prime of life.

CAPTAIN





Harding sc

HENRY TERNE

Pub. Apr 1.1800. by Edw^d Harding 98 Pall Mall.

SIR THOMAS BURNETT'S
 CAPTAIN HENRY TERNE.

LITTLE can be learnt of the life of Terne, and that little, it must be confessed, by no means satisfactory or important. He was appointed commander of the Hampshire in 1661, and from thence successively removed to the Milford and Portsmouth. In that great action with the Dutch, which was fought in 1665, captain Terne commanded the Dreadnought, a ship of fifty-eight guns, and was, on account of the gallantry he then displayed, promoted, in the course of the following year, to the Triumph, a second rate, of seventy-two guns. And here terminated his line of promotion; for he was killed, on board the Triumph, during the first action with the Dutch, in June 1666. Here also terminates the only account we have been enabled to ascertain relative to captain Henry Terne. He was doubtless a valiant and an able commander.

SIR TRETSWELL HOLLES.

THE family of Holles, or Hollis, were anciently seated in Warwickshire, and are traced up to John de Holles, who flourished in the reign of Edward III. Tretswell was the eldest son of Gervase Holles, esq. one of the masters of requests to Charles I.

Of the first years of the life of Tretswell Holles we have no information: he was appointed to the *Antelope* in 1666. As his promotion occurred only a few days antecedent to a long and desperate action with the Dutch, his courage and skill were immediately brought to the test. It was in the display of those qualities, on this occasion, that he had the misfortune to lose an arm; but, as some recompence for such loss, he was advanced to the command of the *Henrietta*, a third rate, and obtained the honour of knighthood. If his honours were augmented, his anxiety to merit distinction was also increased. Though his recent accident might have justified his retiring from service during the remainder of the summer, far from availing himself of so obvious an excuse for inaction, he repaired with eagerness to his new appointment, and considerably contributed to the victory acquired over the Dutch on the 25th of July following.

The peace of Breda for a while interrupted the progress of the naval heroism; and sir Tretswell Holles appears



Harding sc

SIR TRETSWELL HOLLES

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pears to have retired from public life till the second rupture with Holland, in 1672. He was at this time appointed to the Cambridge, and is reported, in the account of the action with the Smyrna fleet, rear-admiral* of the squadron commanded by Holmes. This war ended the exertions of the brave Holles, as it did those of many eminent men; he fell in the battle of Solebay, universally and deservedly lamented. Sir Tretswell died in the prime of life, leaving behind him Jane, fourth daughter of Richard Lewis, of Mar, in the county of York, esq. his widow.

* To confer temporary rank of this nature has long been disused; but no practice was more frequent during the reign of Charles II.

SIR WILLIAM BERKELEY.

SIR WILLIAM BERKELEY descended from a family who are lineally deduced from Robert Fitzharding, a personage of great eminence at the time of the conquest. He was the third son of sir Charles Berkeley of Bruton, created lord Fitzharding, and treasurer of the household to Charles II. by Penelope, daughter of sir William Godolphin, knt.

Berkeley entered early into the navy. In 1661 he was made lieutenant of the *Swiftsure*, in 1662 of the *Affistance*; and, shortly after, promoted to the command of the *Bonadventure*: in 1663 he was appointed to the *Bristol*, and in 1664 to the *Resolution*. At length, in 1665, he rose to the command of his first ship, the *Swiftsure*. He was now about twenty-six years of age, when, although he had as yet found no instance in which he could fully have displayed the extent of his abilities, he was at once raised to be rear-admiral of the red, under the duke of York: on the return of the fleet into port, he was advanced to the vice-admiralship of the white, under sir William Penn. There was no second action in 1665; but sir William Berkeley's conduct in this first engagement with the enemy was such as to have justified his former honours, and even to warrant a new accession of trust.

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The year 1666 is distinguished by those memorable conflicts between the duke of Albemarle, prince Rupert, and the Dutch. In this year sir William Berkeley's abilities were particularly called forth; as vice-admiral of the blue, he led the van of the fleet. The separation of the English fleets rendered the commencement of the battle perilous in the extreme; and towards the conclusion of the second day's action, the *Swiftsure*, with two others, being cut off from our line, was disabled and taken. "Highly to be admired," exclaims the author of *Van Tromp's Life*, "was the resolution of vice-admiral Berkeley, who, though cut off from the line, surrounded by his enemies, great numbers of his men killed, his ship disabled and boarded on all sides, yet continued fighting almost alone, killed several with his own hand, and would accept of no quarter till, at length, being shot in the throat with a musket-ball, he retired into the captain's cabin, where he was found dead, extended at his full length on the table, and almost covered with his own blood." The States-General paid every possible respect to the memory of so gallant an adversary; by their order, his body was embalmed and deposited in the chapel of the Great Church at the Hague, having meantime dispatched a special messenger to Charles II. to inquire his pleasure concerning the final disposal of the remains of sir William Berkeley.

SIR ROBERT HOLMES.

OUR first information relative to Holmes is, that he commanded the *Bramble* at the era of the Restoration. Not long after that event, he was successively appointed to the *Truelove* and *Henrietta*. After being promoted to the *Charles* in 1661, Holmes was sent with a small squadron on the coast of Africa, to chastise the Dutch, who had possessed themselves of Cape Corse castle, and perpetrated various enormities, in opposition to the existing treaties, and in direct violation of the common law of nations. He drove the enemy from their forts, and successfully achieved the leading objects of his designation. Returning home, he was nominated to the command of the *Reserve*, and then to that of the *Jersey*. Towards the close of January 1663, he arrived a second time on the African coast, reduced Goree in a few hours, and proceeded from thence to the attack of St. George del Mina. But he failed in that attempt; though he afterwards succeeded in the reduction of Cape Corse castle, and in reducing the island of New York, on the coast of North America, whither he had sailed from Africa. In 1665 he was appointed to the *Revenge*, and in 1666 to the *Defiance*: on launching
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the *Defiance*, a new ship of sixty-four guns, his majesty, who was present at the ceremony, conferred the honour of knighthood on her intended commander. Sir Robert, in the two great naval fights of 1666, displayed so high a degree of valour, as to be promoted to the rank of rear admiral of the red, and sent soon afterwards on a very important expedition against a large fleet of merchantment lying between the islands of Ulie and Schelling*. He executed this commission with the highest ability: the two men of war, and the greater part of the merchantmen, for ten or twelve only are excepted, were burnt. Sir Robert immediately followed up his success, by landing his troops and destroying the town of Bandaris. With the loss of about twelve men, killed and wounded, he destroyed of the enemy's property to the amount of twelve thousand pounds, and carried off an immense booty. The gazette account of the affair must not to be suppressed. "On our side (*Gazette*, No. 79) we can only observe in it a wise and prudent counsel, seasonably taken, and most vigorously executed; the whole, by the blessing of God, attended with admirable success, without any considerable loss in the attempt; the several officers and commanders on the occasion, bringing home a just reward of glory and reputation, and the common seamen and soldiers their pockets well filled with ducats and other rich spoil, which was found in great plenty."

There is not any thing remarkable in the life of

* The force allotted to Holmes was five fourth rates, four fifth rates, five fireships, and seven bomb ketches. The merchantmen amounted to one hundred and seventy sail, the smallest of which was two hundred tons burden, and they were guarded by two men of war.

fir Robert till 1672, when he was appointed commander of a squadron destined to intercept the Dutch Smyrna fleet: if we except his promotion to be governor of the Isle of Wight, and the magnificent entertainment which he there gave to Charles II. and his court in the July of 1671. Holmes having hoisted his flag on board the St. Michael, fell in with the Dutch convoy, consisting of seventy-two merchantmen, guarded by six men of war, on the 13th of March. Though decidedly inferior in force, he hesitated not to attack the enemy on their refusing to strike. It can excite no wonder that he barely repulsed the Dutch; but on the following day, finding himself reinforced by a few frigates and smaller vessels, he renewed the contest. Still combating with a superior foe, he was still far from attaining the completion of his wishes; yet, after a desperate action, the rear admiral of the enemy was captured, and the remainder of their fleet obliged to retire, with the loss of four merchantmen. Success, however, would in all probability have been complete, had Holmes permitted Spragge to share in the toils and the honours of these attacks: the latter commander was in sight, and would have gladly concurred in the destruction of the Dutch; but, it seems, Holmes could bear no rival in glory. A sad diffension ensued between those great men; and owing, as it is thought, to cabinet cabals, Holmes was no further employed: both the time and place of his decease are uncertain*.

* His brother, fir John Holmes, also served in the navy with considerable reputation.

SIR THOMAS ALLEN.

THE family of Allen was resident at Lowestoffe in Suffolk; and being uniformly and zealously loyal, Thomas Allen went over to the royal cause with that portion of the fleet which, early in the civil wars, revolted to the prince of Wales. On the completion of the Restoration, Allen met with the recompence his conduct had so eminently merited; he was appointed by the duke of York to the command of the Dover on the 24th of June 1660. He afterwards experienced a succession of beneficial appointments, till on the 11th of August, 1664, he was made commander in chief in the Mediterranean. Early in the ensuing spring, being then on a cruise with his squadron, off the mouth of the Straits, he fortunately fell in with the Dutch Smyrna fleet, consisting of forty sail, under convoy of four men of war. His own squadron comprised eight or nine ships; and having just received the intelligence of war being declared against Holland, he determined to attack the foe. The contest was obstinate; for the Dutch, as usual, had drawn the stoutest of their merchant ships into the line; yet in the end, Brackel, the enemy's commodore, was killed, their line broken, several of their

ships

ships were sunk, four of the richest taken, and the remainder blocked up in Cadiz.

Allen returning to England, he was in June 1665 made admiral of the blue, having besides a special commission to act as vice admiral of the fleet then under the earl of Sandwich, and receiving on the 24th of the same month the honour of knighthood. In 1666 he was appointed admiral of the white, and hoisted his flag on board the Royal James. Being detached to oppose the French fleet, which was said to be approaching, he could not share in the first great actions with the Dutch; he, however, returned, with prince Rupert, just in time to rescue the duke of Albemarle from the increasing superiority of his competitors. In the action of the 25th of July, when the rival fleets again met, sir Thomas Allen, continuing to command the van, or white squadron, made a most resolute attack on the Dutch admiral, Evertzen: the Friezland and Zealand squadrons, of which Evertzen had the chief command, were totally defeated; he, together with his vice and rear admiral, killed, and two large men of war destroyed. This brilliant success over the Dutch was followed by the capture of the Ruby, on the 18th of September, the newest and finest ship in the French navy; her commander, De la Roche, having mistaken sir Thomas's squadron, which lay at this time off Dungeness, for his own, surrendered almost without resistance.

Sir Thomas Allen was much at sea during the years 1667, 1668, and 1669. At one time he cruised in the channel; at another he was named to an expedition that was never carried into effect; in the beginning of 1668 he was a second time set to watch the motions of France
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in the channel; and towards the latter end of that year, and through the greater part of 1669, he was employed in the Straits, and against Algiers. From this service, at his own earnest request, he was recalled in 1670, and arrived accordingly at St. Helen's on the 3d of November this year. On his return, he was appointed comptroller of the navy, and retired to a seat which he had purchased at Somerly. He was, notwithstanding, drawn from his retirement, in March 1678, on the probability of a war with France, and actually hoisted his flag on board the Royal James, as commander in chief of his majesty's fleet in the narrow seas; but, as the rupture proved merely rumour, he again retreated to Somerly. The time of his death, which took place in great privacy, and honourable retirement, is not positively ascertained.

SIR JOHN HARMAN.

OF this wife and brave officer we have no family accounts, and are therefore again compelled to lament the limited nature of biographical resources. He was appointed to the Gloucester of fifty-eight guns in 1664, and in the spring of 1665 to the Royal Charles. He shortly after received the honour of knighthood.

Having shifted his flag into the Henry, sir John Harman was particularly distinguished as leader of the van of the English fleet in the long struggle between the duke of Albemarle and the Hollanders. He soon got into the centre of the Zealand squadron, where being in a short time disabled, and grappled on the starboard quarter, he was indebted for his safety to the wonderful spirit of his lieutenant*. But on destroying the Henry, the
Dutch

* As this officer has, through a very singular and gallant exploit, acquired no trivial or transient fame, some account of him in this place must be acceptable to the reader. The first notice that we find of this gentleman, Mr. Thomas Lamming, is his appointment to a lieutenancy on board the Happy Return in 1664; from that ship he was transferred, in the same station, to the Henry, in 1666. On board of this ship sir John Harman had hoisted his flag as rear admiral of the blue. After sir John had for a considerable time defended himself against nine of the Zealanders, and

killed

Dutch now sent down a second fireship, who grappled her on the larboard, with much greater success than the preceding assailant; for the sails instantly taking fire, the crew were so terrified, that near fifty of them jumped overboard. Things were now brought to that crisis wherein nothing short of the most determined valour could avail to rescue the English. Sir John Harman, seeing the confusion of his ship, ran instantly, with his sword drawn, among those who yet remained on board, and threatened with immediate death the first who should attempt to quit the Henry, or who should not exert himself to quench the flames. The fire was in a little time got under, but the rigging being much burnt, one of the top-sails fell and broke Harman's leg. At this most critical moment a third fireship prepared to grapple with him. Before, however, she could effect her design, four shot from the Henry's lower deck guns sunk her; and Evertzen, who began to lose all patience himself, now bore up to sir John, and calling on him to surrender, offered him quarter. Sir John boldly answered, "It was not come to that yet," immediately discharging a broadside, which killing Evertzen, so intimidated the

killed their vice admiral, Evertz, the Dutch thought it prudent to change their mode of attack, and attempt by their fireships the destruction of an enemy whom they could not conquer. From the mischievous effects of the first of these, the Henry was preserved by the intrepidity of Lamming, who, to use John's words, "swang himself into the fireship, and by the light of the fire found where the grappling irons were fixed in the fireship, and having cast them loose, swang on board his own ship again." The exertions of Lamming were, after the action, rewarded with the command of the Ruby. But whether from death, or his retirement from the service, his name does not again occur in the naval annals of the country.

rest of the enemy, that they declined all prosecution of the contest.

Shattered as was his ship, and disabled as he felt himself, having refitted for a few hours at Harwich, no entreaty could dissuade sir John Harman from sailing out to share in the honour of the last day's engagement. He, however, arrived not on the scene of conflict till all was decided; and when, under Rupert and Albemarle, he would have hurried again out to sea, those admirals absolutely forbid him to pursue a determination, so generous, but so imprudent.

In the month of March, 1667, sir John was sent on an expedition to the West Indies. He sailed on this occasion in the *Lion*, a third rate, of fifty-eight guns, with permission to wear the union flag at his main-top as soon as he should be clear of the channel. He had under his command seven men of war, and two fireships, arrived at Barbadoes early in June, and having joined to his squadron four men of war, which he found in Carlisle bay, proceeded from thence to Nevis. Arriving at Nevis on the 13th, he there learnt that the French fleet, consisting of twenty-four men of war, was then at anchor under Martinico. This information he laid before a council of war, upon whose advice it was determined to proceed immediately to attack the French. When Harman came in sight of the enemy, he perceived their situation such as to preclude the possibility of forcing them to engage; it was, owing to this circumstance, the 25th of the month ere Harman could effect his purpose. The wind being now favourable, his success became complete. Eight of the French fleet were soon on fire, many afterwards sunk, and two or

three only escaped. There is a remarkable anecdote concerning fir John Harman in this action, which is related by Lediard, and has been copied from him by all succeeding historians. Sir John was very lame at the time of the engagement, and violently afflicted with the gout; yet on bearing in for the enemy's fleet, he got up, walked about, and gave orders, as if in perfect health, till the fight was over, and then became as lame as ever he had been.

The services of fir John Harman, though rather intermitted, on one occasion, by peace, and on another by ill health, were, after his success in the West Indies, of great worth to the country. He made a voyage to the Straits, under Allen, and, however depressed by bodily infirmities, conducted himself with the promptitude of better days, in the strenuous conflict off Solebay, and in the second action between prince Rupert and de Ruyter. After this, a peace ensuing, fir John Harman went into retirement: where, or when he died, is equally uncertain.

SIR WILLIAM PENN.

THE first mention that occurs of Penn is in 1648, when he is distinguished as rear admiral on the Irish station. He served afterwards against Rupert, in the Straits, and greatly contributed, as vice admiral, to the victory obtained under Blake over the Dutch in 1652. Under Cromwell's administration Penn was held in high estimation. To him are we considerably indebted for that signal defeat of Tromp, in the May of 1653, and for the success of those actions which were also fought against the Dutch, in the summer of the same year. In 1654 a formidable fleet, destined to act upon the Spanish settlements in the West Indies, was put under the conduct of Penn. Partly owing, however, to the disagreement of Penn and Venables, as well as to other causes, this mighty project of the protectorate came to nothing. What were Penn's main faults in this transaction is not determined; for dejected in spirits, and apprehensive of Cromwell's resentment, he resigned his command, and returning to Europe, was, on his arrival, arrested and committed to the Tower. Though he was soon after released from confinement, Penn enjoyed no further appointment during the reign of Oliver.

It seems that Penn had long been known to the court as sincerely attached to the cause of royalty; he was, therefore, on the re-establishment of the throne, among the first who experienced the king's favour: on the 9th of June, 1660, Penn was knighted, and appointed a commissioner of the admiralty and navy, with the salary of five hundred pounds per annum. The great maritime knowledge, and long practical experience of Penn, while they fully entitled him to those remunerations which the generosity of the crown had thought it just to bestow, rendered him also of considerable importance in the conduct of naval affairs after the Restoration. Clarendon informs us, that, during the first Dutch war, the duke of York, to whose friendship Penn was particularly indebted for preferment, daily consulted with sir John Lawson, sir George Ayscough, and sir William Penn. At the commencement of the war, sir William was appointed by his royal friend commander in chief in the downs; and when the duke went himself to sea in the following year, he was made captain of the fleet, with the rank of vice admiral. No stronger proof than the duke's having thus in effect confided to him the direction of the fleet, can be given of that prince's attachment to Penn, who has fortunately escaped the obloquy thrown on different characters, in consequence of the fleet's shortening sail after the action, instead of vigorously pursuing the Dutch to their own ports. Penn, quitting soon afterwards the active line of service, was appointed comptroller of the victualling accounts on the 16th of January 1666. He is supposed to have lived a considerable time after his retirement from public life: when and where he died are unknown.

SIR WILLIAM REEVES.

IN 1664 Reeves was made lieutenant of the *Henrietta*, and in the course of the same year promoted to the command of the *Mary Rose*. He was, in the ensuing spring, in the long action between de Ruyter and Albemarle, commander of the *Essex*, one of the ships which, in the chance of war, became captured by the Dutch. Reeves received, towards the conclusion of an engagement, in which his valour had been eminently conspicuous, a musket shot a little below his right temple, which, passing diagonally, lodged in his throat on the left side, and occasioned such an inward effusion of blood as deprived him of his speech. In this critical state, and when most of his officers were wounded, and those remaining in command necessitated to bring the ship upon the heel to stop some shot-holes which she had received under water, the *Bull*, another English man of war, nearly as much disabled as the *Essex*, fell on board her. The Dutch, availing themselves of this distressing conjuncture, boarded and took possession of the *Essex* *.

Having

* The Dutch accounts say——“ We cannot but admire the courage of the English, particularly of captain Reeves, our prisoner, who, though
much

Having recovered from his wounds, Reeves returned to England at the conclusion of the war, where he received the merited honours of knighthood immediately after his arrival. In May, 1673, sir William Reeves, then commanding the *Henrietta*, so highly exerted himself in the action between the Dutch and Rupert as to draw forth the following particular commendation.—“Among those who especially distinguished themselves in my squadron (says the prince) was sir William Reeves, who brought up a fireship and laid himself to leeward of Tromp; and if the captain of the fireship had done his duty, Tromp had been certainly burnt.” On the 11th of August, 1673, sir William again met

much wounded, when he saw his vessel must inevitably fall into our hands, threw himself twice overboard to avoid being taken, but was recovered by our men.”—Extract of a letter from the Hague, June 29th, 1666. Captain Reeves, in his account of the transactions, assigns very different reasons for having attempted his own destruction: “that they (the Dutch) led him to the deck, and, seeing him wounded, immediately stripped him to his skin; that he was then conveyed to a Dutch boat, and brought on board a man of war, whose captain refused to give him the assistance of his surgeon, and in which ship he was forced to lay several hours covered only with a rug: the next day he was sent to Flushing without any care taken of him, or allowance made to him during the passage.” He certainly, in consequence of his ill-treatment, *slung himself overboard*, but was again recovered by boat-hooks, and, notwithstanding his condition, put in irons. For the space of three days he received no sustenance, till, at last, being nearly perishing, he was removed to a provost’s house, where, by the care of the surgeon, he, contrary to all expectation, recovered, but still was kept almost naked and in chains! In mitigation, though by no means in extenuation, of this barbarous usage, it is reported that captain Reeves, when he had a little recovered himself, endeavoured, in conjunction with his gunner, to have blown up the *Essex*.

the Dutch, as commander of the Sovereign, a first-rate of an hundred guns. And in this memorable contest fell sir William Reeves, one of the ablest seamen and most distinguished patriots of an age barren neither in the highest order of naval ability, nor in true patriotism.





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The DUKE of YORK

JAMES DUKE OF YORK.

JAMES duke of York, afterwards, for a short time, James the second, as the brother of Charles II. and principal director of our maritime affairs during the greater part of that monarch's reign, is too important a personage to be overlooked in the enumeration of British admirals.

Among the first acts of Charles II. after his restoration to the throne, was that of declaring the duke of York, his brother, lord high admiral, on the 4th of June 1660. In this office the duke acquitted himself so well, that in 1665 he was received with pleasure as the commander of the English fleet. Having hoisted his flag on board the Royal Charles, he put to sea on the 25th of April, with a force consisting of fourteen sail, besides fireships and smaller vessels. After a fruitless cruize on the hostile coasts, the duke was compelled to return home. Opdam, the Dutch admiral, availed himself of this opportunity, and putting to sea, captured a homeward bound fleet from Hamburgh. Eager to revenge this loss, James, having recruited, got also out to sea. The two fleets met on the third of June 1665.

It was about three A. M. when the English, getting
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the weather gage, both navies came to an engagement off Lowestoff. At first the contest was sustained with equal success; but about noon, the earl of Sandwich, to whom we are highly indebted for the fortune of the day, fell into the center of the Dutch fleet, effected its division, and thereby began the confusion which ended in the defeat of Opdam. The duke of York in the Royal Charles, and Opdam in the Eendracht, were closely engaged for some hours, during which the struggle was kept up with singular obstinacy, several officers of the Royal Charles were killed, and the duke himself was repeatedly in the utmost danger. At length, about one o'clock, the Dutch admiral blew up with a tremendous noise*. Once begun, the misfortunes of the enemy crowded fast upon them. Four fine Dutch ships, and three large vessels, ran successively foul of each other, and were burnt by a fire-ship. Towards four P. M. all fell into disorder, so that by eight o'clock Tromp, who persevered to the last, and fought retreating, had no more than thirty ships remaining. The victory on the side of the English was so decisive, that, if pursued, it must have terminated the contest with Holland.

Much censure now fell upon the duke of York, relative to his not having pushed his advantages in the late action; nor could the excuses of his friends, who pleaded

* Some say, a shot fell in the powder-room; others, that Opdam's black blew up the ship to be revenged of his master for beating him. The most probable account is, that it was occasioned by some carelessness in distributing the powder. In this vessel, together with the admiral, perished five hundred men, only five of the whole crew escaping; many of them volunteers, of the best families in Holland, and not a few Frenchmen, who took this opportunity of being present in a sea-fight.

high winds from the shore, and a want of fireships, avail to exculpate him with the nation. Till this dislike had evaporated, it was not thought prudent to entrust the duke with another naval command. He therefore engaged himself in the performance of civil duties, not choosing to appear at sea for some time.

On the commencement of the second Dutch war, the duke repaired once more to the chief command of the fleet. He displayed his usual spirit, engaging the great de Ruyter ship to ship. The *St. Michael* being reduced almost to a wreck, the duke shifted his flag on board the *Loyal London*; and, notwithstanding the treachery of the French, and superiority of the Dutch, he had again the satisfaction of regaining the English ports in triumph. From the year 1673 to the death of his brother, the operation of the test act effectually precluded the duke of York from fulfilling a public trust.

If the nature of his religious prejudices had in some degree disgusted the people, there were, notwithstanding, circumstances which, on the other hand, tended to reconcile the public mind to the accession of the duke of York to the throne. He was a prince of good parts, very diligent, a great economist, of mature habits, perfectly acquainted with the naval affairs of the country, and well disposed to promote the general interests of his subjects. The commencement of his reign was also calculated to support the good opinion which some had ventured to promulgate of his abilities and intentions: one of his first steps was directed to new model the management of the navy, and correct those abuses which had infested this department of the state, during the latter part of his brother's

brother's reign*. Yet all these qualifications were strangely invalidated, by the failings of this sovereign, and could not reconcile the people of England to superstitious rites or arbitrary proceedings; so that when the prince of Orange landed, James found but few friends, and numerous enemies. Indeed, something like infatuation attended him from almost the dawn of his government to the hour of his compulsory abdication. Though the English fleet was never in higher order than

* This commission, for the reformation of naval concerns, was the wisest act of his whole reign, and answered very effectually all that was, or indeed could be expected of it. It was dated the 17th of April 1686, and by it the commissioners were directed to inquire into, and remedy all the disorders that were then in the navy, to restore it in every respect to good order, and from time to time to report the proceedings to his majesty and the privy council. The commissioners vested with these powers lost no time, but fell immediately on a diligent inspection into the state of the navy, &c. taking such measures for the remedy of the mischief they discovered, that the old ships were perfectly repaired; the new ones, where they wanted it, altered and mended; the yards properly supplied with the ablest workmen; all the storehouses filled with whatever was requisite, bought at the best hand, and in all respects the best of their kind; the estimates brought into proper order, and the whole economy of the navy reduced into so clear a method, that it was impossible any officer could be ignorant of, or mistake in his duty, the public service suffer in any of its various branches, or the king run any hazard of being cheated without an immediate discovery of the offender. Having demonstrated the justice of their conduct, by leaving the navy much increased, in perfect order, and with sea-stores valued at 400,000*l.* the commissioners laid down their posts, their commission being superseded, with a just approbation of their conduct, by letters under the great seal, October 12th, 1688. Thus, in little more than two years time this great reform was made, all the officers of the navy in general paid to a farthing, and a saving made to the public of 307,570*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* and all for the inconsiderable expence of 6000*l.* paid to the new commissioners.

While

than when the first intimation arrived of prince William's design, though, perhaps, none of his predecessors in royalty knew better how to have directed the provident use of so powerful an instrument as the navy of England, James seems to have wholly dismissed his wonted circumspection; for he committed continual errors, in his precautions against the invader. His ships were put under Strickland, who had just rendered himself hateful to the seamen by his attempt to proselyte them to the Roman faith; and when, at last, this squadron was ordered to the Downs, it was indifferently manned. After the landing of the prince of Orange, the conduct of James was not less enigmatical, nor less remote from prudence and good sense. He made no use of his fleet, now under the earl of Dartmouth, an able, intelligent, and loyal peer; nor did he even request the assistance of the French, who might have joined him with a squadron. But these things were neglected, or overlooked, by James II. who abdicated his kingdom without making one real effort to retain it.

While this commission subsisted, the king issued new instructions to the officers commanding his ships of war: these are dated July 15th, 1686, and are extremely well calculated for promoting the public service, securing discipline, and preserving proper memorials of every man's particular merit, by obliging all captains and superior officers to deposit a perfect copy of their journals with the secretary of the admiralty.

Very justly is it, therefore, acknowledged, that to the extraordinary attention and zeal of James II. we are indebted for that fleet which was afterwards so gloriously and successfully employed in checking the ambitious projects of Louis XIV. a fleet which, though it rendered so little service to the cause of its founder, consisted, at the time of his abdication, of no less than a hundred and seventy-three sail, an hundred of which were fourth-rates and upwards.

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The reigns, or, more properly, the administrations of the two brothers, Charles and James, bear a fatal resemblance to each other. Both these princes were inclined, if not attached, to a religion peculiarly ungrateful to their people, as it was in direct contradiction to that mode of belief upon which the very basis of their authority rested: both were but too evidently aiming to contract the liberty of the subject; if not absolutely to restore the original power of the crown, they were each almost uniformly tinged with a predilection for foreign habits and foreign notions; each the dupe of Gallic friendship and intrigue.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.



