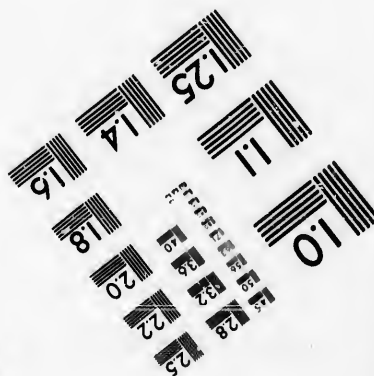
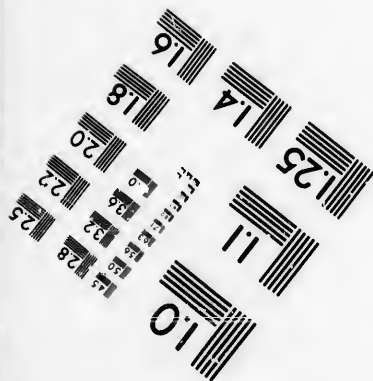
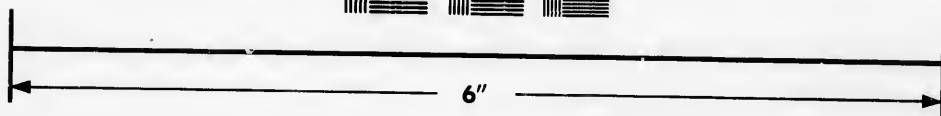
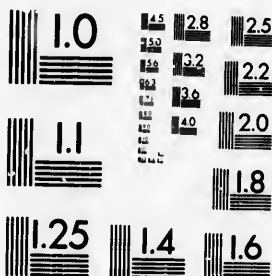


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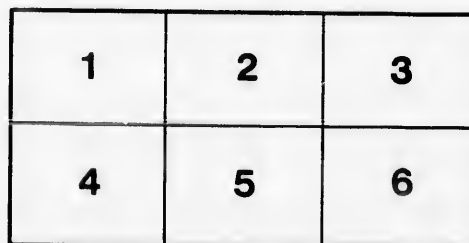
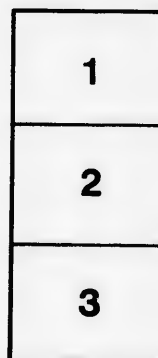
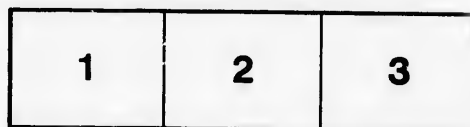
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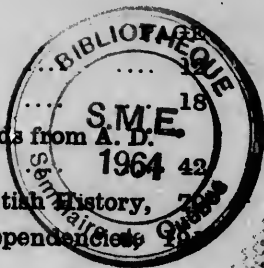
Britain under the Romans,

Britain under the Saxons,

Historical Map of the British Islands from A. D.
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MONTREAL AND TORONTO

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DOMINION CATHOLIC SERIES

CATHOLIC SCHOOL

HISTORY OF ENGLAND

BY A CATHOLIC TEACHER



JAMES A. SADLIER

MONTREAL AND TORONTO

PREFACE.

THE following pages were written to provide our Catholic Schools of all grades with such a record of the main facts of English History as, viewed from a Catholic standpoint, would present them before the pupils with fairness and impartiality. The textbooks of English History used in the public schools are objectionable to Catholics because of the anti-Catholic coloring given to many events, especially those relating to the Church and to religious matters. In treating of such controversial questions the author has studiously avoided all remarks that could offend the most fastidious, and has given merely a necessary and clear view of the facts related.

ENTERED according to Act of Parliament of Canada, in the year one thousand eight hundred and ninety-one, by JAMES A. SADLER, in the office of the Minister of Agriculture.

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HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

IF we are about to go on a long journey, we may find it convenient, before starting, to mark out certain stages or portions into which we shall divide it, certain places at which we may "stay over" for the purpose of rest or of business. So, before starting on the study of the History of England, it will be found useful to mark our stages of the journey, our places for "staying over" as it were, and we shall be thus enabled to reach the end with less fatigue and less confusion. And if these stages or portions, with the dates of the beginning and the end of each, are first firmly fixed in the memory, the events which happen on the way from one resting-place to another will be the more easily remembered.

Position.—First let us take our map and find out where England is. To the north-west of the continent of Europe, and near France, are two large islands—the larger called Great Britain; **Where** the smaller, Ireland. Great Britain com- **England is.** prises three countries—England and Wales in the south, and Scotland in the north. Wales lies along the west of England, and not far from Ireland. It is with England we have particularly to deal, although

we shall sometimes refer to the other countries of the group.

Stages.—The stages or portions into which English History is divided are the following:

Britons or Celts	55 B.C.
Romans	55 B.C. to 449 A.D.
Saxon Kings	449 A.D. to 1017 "
Danish Line of Kings	1017 " to 1041 "
Saxon " " "	1041 " to 1066 "
Norman " " "	1066 " to 1154 "
Plantagenet Line of Kings	1154 " to 1399 "
Lancastrian " " "	1399 " to 1461 "
York " " "	1461 " to 1485 "
Tudor " " "	1485 " to 1603 "
Stuart " " "	1603 " to 1714 "
Brunswick or Hanover Line of Kings	1714 " to present time.

CHAPTER I.

BRITONS OR CELTS.

Early Inhabitants. The Country.	Government. Civilization. Dress.	Character. Religion.
------------------------------------	--	-------------------------

Early Inhabitants.—The first inhabitants of Britain concerning whom we really know anything were the Celts. That portion of the race which lived in what is now called England were known as the Welsh or Britons. From remains, such as bones, tools, and weapons, it is known that a different people lived in England before the coming of the Celts; but we find nothing about them in history. In the very earliest ages the Celts must have travelled westward from Asia, the great cradle of the human race. Their eastern origin is shown both

by their customs and their forms of worship. But until the Romans conquered them we have no history of their doings; therefore, many of the stories told about them cannot be looked on as trustworthy. It is a fact that the British Islands are referred to by certain Greek writers four centuries before the Christian era; but nothing is told of them beyond the mere mention of their existence. Again, it is stated that the Phœnicians and Greeks who lived in very early times on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea visited the British Islands to buy tin, which they found in great plenty in Cornwall and the Scilly Islands. The name Cassiterides or Tin Islands, mentioned by a Greek historian, and supposed to refer to the Scilly Islands, seems to confirm this opinion. But all these things are mere conjecture; and the true history of England begins with what the Roman General Julius Cæsar tells us he found there on his invasion of the country. Let us see, then, the state of England and its people just before this event took place.

The British Islands mentioned by Early Greek Writers.

English History dates from the Roman Invasion.

The Country.—With the exception of a small portion in the south and south-east, the country was covered by a thick forest, broken by downs and moors. The inhabitants of the centre and west lived by their flocks and herds. In the south and south-east some attempt was made at tilling the ground, without much success; and as Gaul was so near, a large trade was carried on between the two countries. These things tended to make the people of the south and south-east more civilized than the other inhabitants.

Condition of the People just before the Invasion.

Government.—The Britons were divided into many

tribes, each tribe governed by its own prince or chief; but when occasion, such as war, required it, the tribes united under a single leader, thus being able to bring into the field a powerful army.

Civilization.—It has already been stated that the Britons of the south and south-east were more civilized than the others. They lived in

Their Habitations. houses, built chiefly of wood on a stone foundation and covered with a conical roof of straw; a hole in the top serving the double purpose of a window and a chimney. Their towns were commonly situated in a wood; and were protected by a ditch and embankment of clay and felled trees. The people farther north and west lived in caves and holes in the earth.

Dress.—In the matter of dress the more civilized wore a large cloak or mantle of woollen cloth of their own weaving. On their fingers, arms, neck, and head they wore ornaments made of gold, silver, bronze, and iron. The northern and western Britons wore dresses made of the skins of animals. They left their limbs bare; and painted on them patterns by means of a blue dye made from the juice of a plant called *woad*.

Character.—These ancient Britons were a hardy, brave, and warlike people. Their arms were a small shield, a spear, and a javelin. They fought on foot, or from chariots drawn by well-trained horses and having short scythes fastened to the axles. The tribes were constantly at war with one another, and distinction in arms was the chief object of their ambition.

Religion.—Deeply influencing their whole lives, socially and politically, was their religion—a form of

idol'atry called Druidism. The Britons had no temples; but in the depths of the forest, under the spreading branches of an oak-tree, sometimes within a circle of huge stones, remains of which are to be seen at the present day, they assembled for worship. Their priests, who were called Druids, had unlimited power over the people. They were generally chosen from the higher classes, led a retired life, and subsisted on frugal fare. They were the instructors of the people as well as their judges and priests. They settled all disputes, private as well as public; and whoever refused submission to their decrees was treated as an outlaw. Some of the laws made by the Druids were good; but we know little of their forms of worship except their veneration for the oak, and their sacrifices, in which were offered not only beasts but human beings. The bards, an inferior order of the Druids, were the poets and musicians of the time, and sang the deeds of the heroes and the history of the country.

Druidism.

Great
Power of
the Druids.

Such were the ancient Britons. How they passed under Roman power we shall next consider; and here we make our first resting-place.

CHAPTER II.

ROMAN RULE IN BRITAIN.

Arrival of Julius Cæsar.

Cæsar's Second Visit.

Caractacus.

Boadicea.

Julius Agricola : Roman Walls.

Hadrian : Roman Walls.

Saxon Incursions.

Picts and Scots.

Conversion of the Britons.

Arrival of Julius Cæsar.—Rome is interesting to Christians, because the head of the Church, our Holy Father the Pope, resides in that city as the central see of Catholic unity, the capital of Christendom. But the Rome of the time of Julius Cæsar was pagan Rome, the capital of the pagan Roman Empire. This empire included nearly all the world then known ; that is, all the countries around the Mediterranean Sea. And the greatest man in the empire was Julius Cæsar. He filled the office of consul, a position which gave him almost supreme power ; and he had command of the greater part of the Roman army. As a soldier and a ruler hardly any man has ever been greater. He was very ambitious, always looking for new worlds to conquer, that he might bring them under Roman domination. He was master of the whole of Gaul, and as he sailed along its northern coasts he saw in the distance the white cliffs of Britain. He had heard something of the country, of its people, of their strength and bravery ; and had perhaps felt this bravery in the support given by them to their kinsmen the Gauls in the wars of the latter with Cæsar. Wishing to have the glory of conquer-

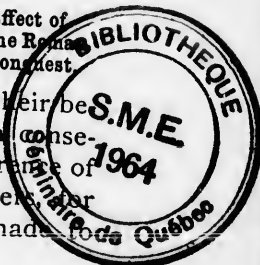
The Roman
Invasion
under
Julius
Cæsar.

ing these Britons, and of making their country a Roman province, he sailed across the English Channel in August, 55 B.C., landed in Britain where the town of Deal now stands, defeated the southeastern tribes, and forced them to give hostages; but this was a conquest rather in name than in reality. As most of his ships had been destroyed by a storm, and as it was late in the season, he returned to Gaul. In his absence the Britons forgot their allegiance to Rome, and the work of conquest required to be done over again.

**Cæsar's
First Visit,
55 B.C.**

Cæsar's Second Visit.—In the following year, 54 B.C., Cæsar returned. Many battles were fought, the Britons showing much bravery and skill in their peculiar mode of warfare. The tribes of the south-east had united under a valiant prince, Cassipelan, or Cassivelaunus, whose stronghold was Verulam, now St. Albans. But the trained and tried Roman soldiers overcame all resistance and captured St. Albans. Cæsar, satisfied with his successes, went back to Rome once more, leaving no Roman governor to represent Roman power, no Roman soldiers to uphold it. But through Cæsar's coming Britain was brought more in contact with other countries of Europe; and trade, commerce, and civilization increased accordingly. Better still, this conquest of Britain indirectly prepared the way for the preaching of the Faith to its people, for their being brought into the fold of the Church. In consequence of the civil wars in Rome, the indifference of some emperors, and the feebleness of others, for nearly one hundred years no efforts were made to extend Roman power in Britain.

**Effect of
the Roman
Conquest**



43 A.D. **Caractacus.**—In 43 A.D. the Roman emperor Claudius sent over to Britain one of his generals, Plautus, with twenty-four thousand men. Claudius himself followed, and the south and southeast became a Roman province. The tribes of the centre and north held out under their brave leader, Caradoc, called by the Romans **A force of 24,000 Romans arrives, 43 A.D.** Caractacus. He was chief of the Silures, a tribe occupying the south of Wales and the adjoining portion of Britain. But after a time all the tribes south of the Tyne, except those in Wales, whither Caractacus retreated, submitted to the Romans. Caractacus maintained his independence for several years; but was in the end defeated and brought as prisoner to Rome, where his noble bearing gained him honorable treatment.

59 A.D. **Boadicea.**—Another stronghold of the Britons and chief seat of Druidism was the island of Mona or Anglesea. The Roman governor, Suetonius Paulinus, went thither, defeated the Britons, and dispersed the Druids, burning many of them in the fires which they had prepared for the Romans. In the absence of Suetonius, Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni, a tribe occupying what is now Norfolk and Suffolk, revolted against the Romans, who had despoiled her of her possessions and otherwise insulted and oppressed her and her people. This revolt was, for a time, **Revolt of Boadicea.** successful. Boadicea destroyed many of the towns; and as the Romans lived in towns chiefly, large numbers of them were thus put to death. But on the return of the Roman general from Anglesea this warlike queen was totally defeated near London, **61 A.D.** and put an end to her life by poison,

Emperor Clau-
dus, Plautus,
Audius himself
became a
of the cen-
er their brave
the Romans
of the Silures,
and the adjoin-
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Julius Agricola: Roman Walls.—Julius Agricola was made governor of the island in 78 A.D., and was the first who really reduced the whole of England to the condition of a Roman province. He was a good man as well as a brave soldier, and while keeping the people in subjection he did all he could to civilize them. He built two lines of forts or castles across the island—one between Solway Frith and the mouth of the Tyne, the other between the Friths of Clyde and Forth; and these he garrisoned with soldiers. Though this showed that he had no desire to conquer the whole island, he passed the northern wall and defeated the Caledonians under Galgacus, at the foot of the Grampians. His fleet cruising northwards sailed round the island and discovered the Orkneys. For seven years he ruled Britain, to the great advantage of the people. Towns were built, roads made, useful arts taught, land more extensively cultivated—a state of affairs which continued during the whole of the Roman period.

78 A.D.

81
A.D.

Beneficent
Rule of
Agricola.

Hadrian: Roman Walls.—About the year 120 A.D. the Emperor Hadrian visited Britain. He was called thither by the frequent incursions from the north. In the following year he, too, had a wall built. Hadrian's wall extended from the north of the Tyne to the Solway Frith, nearly in a line with the first chain of forts built by Agricola. This shows that either he did not attach much importance to the country beyond, or he was unable to keep it. The wall, however, did not prevent the inroads of the Caledonians; and Antoninus Pius, a later Roman emperor, built another along the most northern of Agricola's forts. Still

Walls built
by Hadrian,
Antoninus
Pius, and
Severus.

later the Emperor Severus, after driving back the Caledonians, built a stone wall along the line of Hadrian's wall, which may be regarded henceforth as the true northern boundary of Roman England. He died at York in the following year—209 A.D.

Saxon Incursions.—During the latter years of Roman sway very few events of importance occurred. The most noteworthy was the descent of Saxon pirates on the eastern coast, a circumstance which brought about the appointment of a special officer for its defence. He was called the "Count of the Saxon Shore." This fact is interesting in the light of future events connected with these Saxons and their settlement in England.

Picts and Scots.—Shortly after the accession in 306 A.D. of Constantine the Great, who is said to have been of British descent through his mother, the country was again disturbed, this time by northern tribes who were known as the Picts and Scots. The Picts were a tribe of Caledonians, and the Scots were descendants of the Irish or Scoti who emigrated from Ireland, then called Scotia. These tribes united, and ravaged the country for years. From time to time Roman armies were sent against them, always defeating them; but as soon as these armies were withdrawn the Picts and Scots oppressed the people still more. The Romans took their final leave in 418 A.D., and the Britons were given to understand that they should not expect further help from the Roman legions. The latter were fully occupied in repelling the incursions of the barbarians who had penetrated almost into the heart of the empire. The Romans had taught the Britons everything but the use of arms;

any of the latter people who were skilled warriors were sent to join the legions in other parts of the empire. Once, indeed, the Britons made a stand against their enemies. Led by St. Germain of Auxerre in France, who happened to be in Britain at the time on matters connected with the Church, they gave battle to the Picts and Scots at St. Albans in 449 A.D. and defeated them. This battle is known as the Hallelujah Victory from the war-cry of the Britons. But this victory was a fruitless one, and as an appeal to Rome brought no help from that quarter the Britons had to take one of two courses—to drive out the Picts and Scots, or to call for help from some other nation. To do the former they were not able; they were, therefore, obliged to choose the latter. The date of this important event is 449 A.D.

Conversion of the Britons.—And as this occurred four centuries after our blessed Saviour had established the Church on earth to be the teacher of all nations, we shall inquire whether the Britons, prior to the grave event we are about to relate, had received the Christian faith. The Gospel had already been preached in almost every part of the Roman Empire; and as Britain was in close relation with Rome, it is very likely that missionaries had reached Britain at an early date. It is stated that St. Peter preached in Britain. It is stated, also, that St. Paul brought the tidings of faith to the island. Another account tells us that about fifty years after the Ascension of Our Lord, St. Philip went to preach to the Franks, and that while in Gaul he sent twelve of his disciples, one of whom was St. Joseph of Arimathea, to preach to the Britons.* Be these things as they may,

Britons defeat Picts and Scots, 449 A.D.

Preaching of the Gospel.

*See Life of King Lucius in "Lives of the Saints," by Alban Butler, Dec. 3d.

the people could easily have learned something of the new religion through Romans who came from Rome to Britain, and through Britons who visited Rome and returned. In this way the Faith spread; and before the close of the second century the words of eternal life had been heard by even the unsubdued tribes of the north. Frequently young men were sent to Rome to study for the priesthood, and on being ordained there came back to convert their countrymen. Before the close of the third century a hierarchy was established. The flourishing condition of the Church is shown by the fact that British bishops took part in one of the earliest of the Western Councils, that of Arles in Gaul, in 314 A.D. Shortly before this time the persecution then ravaging Rome under Diocletian was extended to Britain, St. Alban. Alban gaining the crown of martyrdom in 304 A.D. The memory of the event and of the Saint is preserved to the present day in the name of the town—St. Albans. Constantine the Great, already mentioned, who was the first Christian emperor of Rome, made the Christian religion the religion of the empire. And the Hallelujah Victory in 429 A.D. was as much a victory over the followers of Pelagius the heretic, as it was over the Picts and Scots. Here we make our second resting-place.

CHAPTER III.

THE SAXONS.

449 A.D. to 1017 A.D.

Home of the Saxons.
Saxons in England.
Heptarchy.
Bretwalda.

Preaching of St. Augustine.
United England: Egbert.
The Danes.
Saxon Kings.

In the last chapter it was mentioned that the Saxon pirates gave great trouble to the people on the eastern shore of Britain. Their frequent descents upon the coast, their seizures and massacres, made it, as has been seen, a special work on the part of the Romans to keep them away. Who these Saxons were, and where they came from, we shall now learn, for we are to hear much about them in the future.

Home of the Saxons.—In the north of Germany there lived at this time three tribes—Jutes, Angles, and Saxons. All are generally spoken of as “The Saxons.” They were a hardy and warlike race, living as much on sea as on land, perhaps because their own territories were very small and very barren. They were a source of terror to all the countries round the northern seas, and they were ever ready to fight for any chief who would pay them for their services.

Saxons in England.—In 449 A.D., Vortigern, a British prince, unable to resist the attacks of the Picts and Scots, called in the aid of the Jutes under Hengist

and Horsa. He had not to go far to find them.

The Jutes. They were hovering off the eastern coast.

The Jutes united with the Britons, defeated the Picts and Scots, and received from Vortigern a portion of Kent on which to settle. But they, seeing the weak condition of the Britons, resolved to take possession of the whole island. They invited their kinsmen to come over. The Angles and the Saxons, attracted by the glowing accounts of the beauty and fertility of the new settlement, were very willing to come. In a century and a half we find the strangers in possession of the greater part of the country, hav-

The Britons driven into Wales, Cornwall, and the North. ing driven into Wales, Cornwall, and the north the few Britons that remained after the bloody and merciless warfare carried on against them. Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table, so famous in song and story, are said to have lived at this period, and to have led the Britons against the invaders.

Heptarchy.—The new settlers formed seven kingdoms, known as the Saxon Heptarchy: the last of the seven was founded about 585 A.D. Though there were originally three tribes of settlers, Anglo-Saxons, Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, the name Anglo-Saxons—that is, the Saxons of England—was given to the whole people, and the country was named after the Angles—Angle-land or England.

Bretwalda.—Among the Saxon kingdoms there was constant quarrelling. Sometimes one had the upper hand, sometimes another. Sometimes one king was so powerful that he gained control over the others: he was then called Bretwalda (*wielder* or ruler of the Britons). The petty kings were always striving for this dignity.

[A.D. 449.

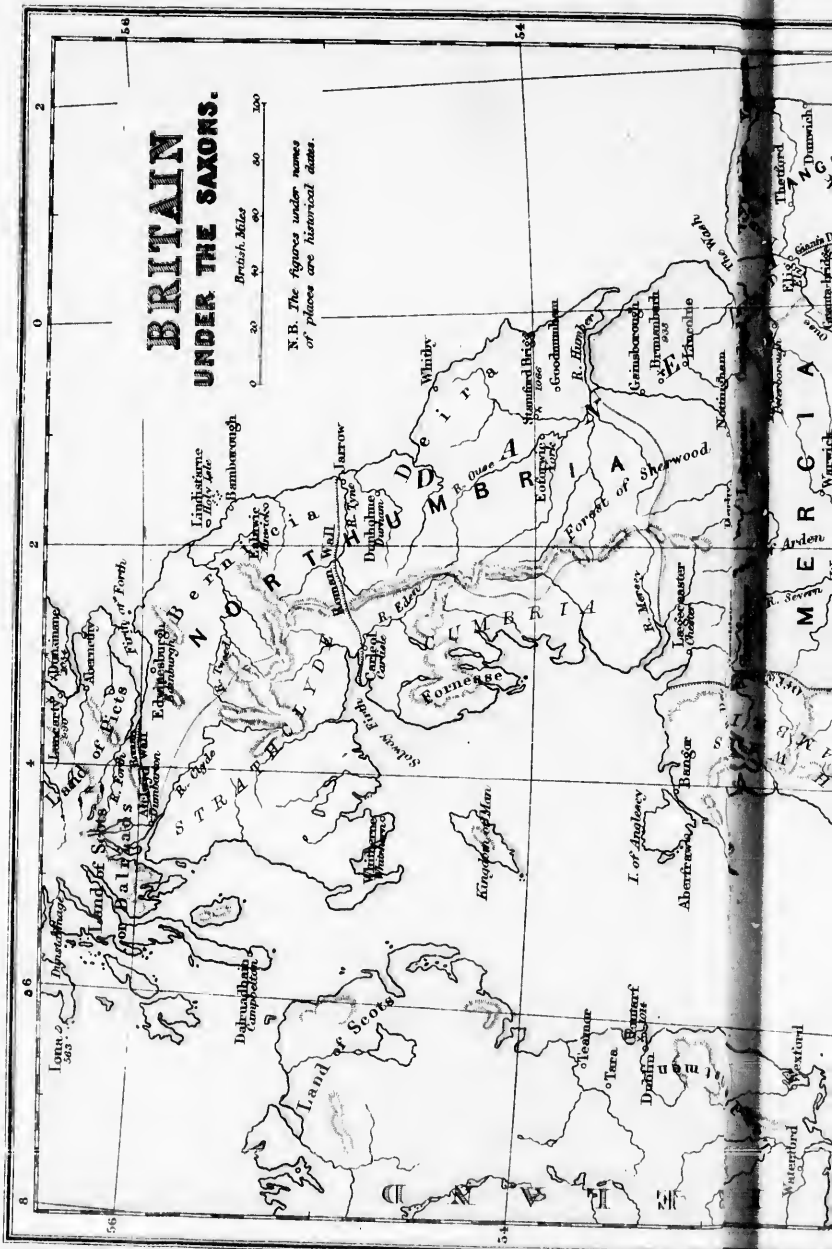
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Preaching of St. Augustine.—From the founding of the seventh kingdom to the time when all were joined to make one, the only important event is the formal preaching of the Faith by St. Augustine and his monks. They landed on the shores of England in 597 A.D.

The Saxons were still heathen, worshipping heathen gods—Woden, the god of war; Thor, the **Heathen** god of thunder; and many others—some of **Saxons**. whose names are preserved in the names of the days of the week. One cause of the hatred which the Saxons felt towards the Britons was, that the latter were Christians. Ireland had been converted to the Faith by St. Patrick; and with the zeal which distinguishes her missionaries to this day, apostles from that "Island of Saints" went over as far as Gaul and Germany. From the Irish the Picts received the Faith. The Saxons refused the light; but it was for a short time only.

There was a king of Kent named Ethelbert, the third Bretwalda, whose wife Bertha was daughter of one of the Frankish monarchs in Gaul. **Queen** She professed the true faith, and was very **Bertha**. pious and holy. She brought in her train to England a bishop, for whom a small church was erected. Gregory became Pope in 590 A.D. According to the story told by the Venerable Bede, Gregory, previous to this event, became interested in the English from seeing some poor Saxon boys standing for sale in the market-place in Rome. He wished to go to England, but could not be spared from Rome. In **Arrival of** 597 A.D., remembering his former desire **St. Augustine, 597** respecting the conversion of the Saxons, **A.D.** he sent St. Augustine with forty monks to England.

Ethelbert, through the advice of his wife, and perhaps led by a feeling of admiration for a religion the practice of which she so faithfully carried out, received them kindly. His conversion and that of many of his

**Ethelbert
and other
Saxon Kings
and their
Subjects
converted.**

subjects soon followed. He gave up his palace at Canterbury to the monks; and the Pope made St. Augustine the first Archbishop of Canterbury. Other kings with their subjects were converted, so that in a short time all the southern part of England was restored to the Church. Bishoprics were founded, churches were built, and the words of St. Gregory came true—that Alleluia would be sung in that portion of the earth. The poor Britons were better treated after this. The fierce Saxon nation became softened, and the English people soon ranked among the most religious in the world. The Calendar of Saints contains many Anglo-Saxon names—names of kings, queens, and subjects. Rome, the chief seat and centre of Christianity then as now, was loved and obeyed. Civilization received new life, and the condition of the people was improved in every way. From the Church the State learned the best laws and the best forms of government; from the Church influence for good spread over all classes.

United England: Egbert.—Jealousies and quarrels continued among the petty kingdoms; and, as we might expect, the weaker ones soon became subject to the stronger. Accordingly at the close of the eighth century we find the number of independent kingdoms reduced to three—Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex. Northumbria, which may be put down roughly as occupying the land north of the Humber; Mercia, the country between the Humber

and the Thames ; and Wessex, the country south of the Thames, excluding Wales, Devon, and Cornwall, which were still occupied by the Britons. Very soon Northumberland became subject to Mercia, thus leaving but two independent kingdoms, Mercia and Wessex. The kings of Mercia were so powerful, that its supremacy over all the others seemed to be the natural course of events. But matters turned out otherwise. In 802 A.D. Egbert became king of Wessex. He had spent his youth **Egbert.** at the Court of Charlemagne, the famous Emperor of the West—a good school in which to learn the art of government. In 827 A.D. he had brought all the English kingdoms more or less under his power. He subdued the Welsh also, so he really deserves to be called King of England, although the title “King of the English” or of England was first used by Edward the Elder, a later king. Egbert made Winchester his capital.

The Danes.—Egbert had no sooner established his power over all England than he had to defend the country against the invasions of the Danes. The Danes were of the same race as the Saxons, **Character of the Danes.** of similar character and habits, but treacherous and cruel. Their home was Denmark and Norway. They were pirates ; and being pagans, they added to their national love of plunder, hatred of the Saxons on account of the conversion of the latter to Christianity. Their leaders called themselves *vikings* or sea-kings, a name showing what they thought of their own power. During almost the whole of what is called the Anglo-Saxon period of English history they gave more or less trouble, until at last we find Danish kings on the throne. Avoiding a general en-

gagement, they scattered themselves in small parties over the country, destroying towns and villages, churches and monasteries, burning or carrying off to their ships everything that came in their way. Thus they kept the whole kingdom in a state of continual alarm.

Egbert: A.D. 827.—In Egbert's reign the Danes descended on the south coast. They ravaged the country, but were defeated at Hengston Hill in Cornwall, in 835 A.D. This was the last important exploit of Egbert. He died in the following year.

Ethelwulf, Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred I., 837 A.D. to 871 A.D.—During the short reigns of these kings the incursions of the Danes are almost the only events to be recorded. In the reign of Ethelwulf they sailed up the Thames, burned London and Canterbury, and took possession of the islands of Sheppey and Thanet. Ethelbert took the unwise course of trying to buy them off. Ethelred, after fighting as many as nine pitched battles against them, in which his younger brother Alfred took a leading part, was at last mortally wounded at Merton in Surrey. By the advice of the Wise Men (see page 37) the crown was given to Alfred, thus passing over the sons of Ethelred on account of their youth and inexperience. In the reign of Ethelred, Edmund, Prince of East Anglia, was cruelly put to death by the Danes because he refused to give up the Faith. Bury St. Edmunds in Suffolk, with the ruins of its great abbey, is the place of his burial. His name is enrolled in the calendar of Saints as St. Edmund.

Alfred, 871 A.D.—Alfred, called to the throne at a time of great trouble and disturbance, devoted all

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his energies to driving out the Danes. His first efforts were unsuccessful. Being deserted by the greater part of his followers, and fearing to fall into the hands of his enemies, he retired to a hiding-place, where for six months he remained in concealment, leaving the Danes masters of his kingdom. But his friends did not forget him. He kept up communication with the faithful ones, and the time soon came when he thought it fitting to strike a blow for his country. Before he risked so much he resolved to see for himself the strength of the Danes. Disguised as a wandering minstrel he visited the camp of Guthrum, the Danish leader. From what he saw, and from the unrestrained talk around him, he was able to form an opinion as to the best point of attack on his enemies. He returned to his hiding-place, collected a small army, surprised the camps of the Danes at Ethandune, near Chippenham in Wiltshire, and totally defeated them. Thus Alfred regained his throne. This was in 878 A.D.

**Alfred's
Efforts to
drive out
the Danes.**

**The Danes
defeated at
Ethandune.**

The Danes were now willing to accept terms from Alfred; and as he saw the impossibility of stamping out a people who had been so long in the country, he decreed that all who would become Christians might remain; those who refused were permitted to leave. Guthrum, with many of his followers, accepted Alfred's terms, and settled on the east coast. And though from past events Alfred had every reason to fear that the Danes would not keep their promise, he found them on this occasion true to their allegiance.

**Guthrum
and his Fol-
lowers set-
tle on the
East Coast.**

Alfred now set about restoring order in his kingdom and repairing all the evils which had been done in the late war. Towns and cities were rebuilt, new

**Restoration
and Prog-
ress under
Alfred.**

forts were erected, the people were trained in the use of arms, and a fleet was raised for the protection of the coast. The arts of peace, likewise, received Alfred's fostering care. He restored the monasteries, restored and founded schools, and in every way encouraged learning, arts and sciences, commerce and manufactures. He compiled a good system of laws, and saw that they were properly administered, frequently punishing even with death unjust magistrates. He laid the foundation of many of those institutions under which England from that time flourished.

In the midst of his useful and peaceful labors, he was once more called on to meet the Danes, who had landed on the coast of Kent in 893 A.D. He defeated them with great slaughter. Quiet was again restored, and was not interrupted during the rest of the reign. Alfred spent his closing years in carrying out the noble and patriotic schemes he had begun. Worthily surnamed "the Great," he died in 901 A.D.

We have seen that the kings before Alfred were weak, and unable to prevent the Danes from gaining a foothold in England. The nine kings following Alfred were, with very few exceptions, like his predecessors; and the story of these reigns

**Weakness
of the Sax-
on Kings.**

is chiefly a continuation of the story of warfare against the foe. We shall find the Saxon kings growing weaker and the Danes growing stronger, until at last a Saxon king is forced to make a division of the kingdom—giving one part to a Danish sovereign, who by the death of his colleague becomes sole ruler.

Edward the Elder, 901 A.D.—Although not free from conflicts, the reign of Edward, surnamed the Elder, was, on the whole, not much disturbed by the Danes. They had not recovered from the severe defeats inflicted on them by Alfred. Edward was troubled by the attempts of his cousin, the son of Ethelred I., to gain possession of the throne, but these attempts were not successful. The defeat and death of his cousin relieved Edward from further annoyance from that quarter.

Athelstan, 925 A.D.—Athelstan was a vigorous king. He defeated the combined armies of the Danes and Scots at Brunnanburgh, the exact position of which is unknown. It is supposed to have been somewhere in York-shire. The Scotch king and five Danish vikings fell in this battle. Athelstan exacted homage from succeeding Scotch kings. He encouraged commerce by raising successful merchants to the dignity ofthane or nobleman. He was one of the greatest as well as one of the best of the Saxon kings. He was pious and charitable. He built many churches, endowed various institutions, and labored to secure justice for all his subjects.

Edmund I., 940 A.D.—Edmund I. quelled a rising of the Danes. He enlisted the services of Malcolm, King of Scotland, against them, by giving him Cumbria, now Cumberland. Edmund was stabbed in his dining-hall by an outlawed robber.

Edred, 946 A.D.—The sons of the late king were too young to rule in such troubled times. Consequently Edred, his brother, was chosen by the Wise Men. Now began the influence of the great Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, whose name we

**Danes and
Scots de-
feated at
Brunnan-
burgh.**

**St. Dun-
stan.**

find in the calendar of Saints as St. Dunstan. During this and the two following reigns he was the chief adviser of the king and the chief support of the kingdom. The Danes were still troublesome, but they were defeated by Edred.

Edwy, 955 A.D.—Edwy, son of Edmund, succeeded. He was a wicked man, who spent most of his time with bad companions. He disregarded the mild and good advice of St. Dunstan, who saw with pain and anxiety the king's neglect of the duties he owed to his people and his kingdom. The scandals of Edwy's misgovernment caused his subjects to rise against him. His reign was without glory and his death without consolation. One of his worst acts was the banishment of Dunstan, whose virtues and talents had already done so much for the kingdom. Dunstan was, undoubtedly, the most able man in England of that day, the upholder of the liberties of the people as well as the defender of the rights of the Church. He had all the virtues which become a Christian prelate, with those intellectual qualities which befit the statesman. To his sanctity and zeal were due all the progress and prosperity, all the good with which the kingdom was blessed during the reigns of Edred, Edwy, and Edgar.

Edgar, 959 A.D.—Edgar, surnamed the "Peaceable," kept up a standing army and an efficient fleet, thus preventing all disturbance from within and from without. His reign was peaceful and prosperous; his people contented—a state of affairs due to St. Dunstan, whom he recalled. The laws were still further improved, and in after years the people when oppressed often cried out for "Edgar's laws." Slavery disappeared gradually before the efforts of the Church.

Edward the Martyr, 975 A.D.—Edward the Martyr, son of Edgar by his first wife, was the next king. After a reign of four uneventful years he was put to death by the treachery of his stepmother, who wished to see her own son on the throne.

Ethelred II., 979 A.D.—Ethelred, surnamed the "Unready," half-brother of the late king, succeeded. Soon after this, St. Dunstan, who had been the wise adviser of the three preceding kings, died, and thus Ethelred was left to himself. He was a weak king, and, unable to fight the Danes, he established a direct tax on his people for the purpose of **The Danegelt**. buying off their enemies. The tax was called the Danegelt. As might be expected, this did not make the Danes less troublesome. Ethelred next tried a general massacre, which was carried out on the night of November 13, 1002 A.D. Occurring as it did on the festival of St. Brice, the event is known in history as **Massacre of St. Brice, and Sweyn's Revenge**. the massacre of St. Brice. Large numbers of the Danes were put to death, and among those who fell was the sister of Sweyn, King of Denmark. Sweyn came to England with a large army and took a terrible revenge—killing, burning, destroying all before him. Ethelred fled to Normandy, leaving his people to their fate. One man alone in this unhappy time was found to lead the English in defence of their families, their homes, and their property. This was Elfheah, Archbishop of Canterbury. But in vain. Sweyn seized the throne, although he was not acceptable to the people, who were still loyal to their true king, weak and worthless though he was. Sweyn died after a few weeks. The Danes made Canute or Cnut their king. The English recalled Ethelred, who

soon died, leaving his share of the government to his son Edmund.

Edmund II., 1016 A.D.—Edmund II., surnamed "Ironside," succeeded. He was a very able prince, but he could not save his sinking country. He had to contend not alone against the Danes, but against the treachery of his own subjects. In order to prevent further bloodshed he consented to divide his kingdom with Canute (Cnut). Edmund died soon after, leaving Canute sole ruler of England. Thus was a Danish king placed on the throne of Alfred.

Canute becomes Sole Ruler.

CHAPTER IV.

DANISH KINGS.

1017 A.D. to 1041 A.D.

Canute, 1017 A.D.—The spirit of Sweyn seems to have lived in his son Canute, who now reigned over all England, together with Denmark and Norway. His rule was at first harsh, and many of the nobles were put to death. Two infant sons and several brothers were left by Edmund Ironside. Canute sent the sons to Sweden. Some historians say that he intended them to be put to death by the Swedish king, or at least shut up in prison. However, from Sweden they were sent to Hungary, where Stephen, king of that country, treated them with the greatest kindness. Their uncles fled to Normandy. Canute ruled England in peace. His next step was to marry Emma, the widow of Ethelred, an event which tended to bring about a better

Sons and Brothers of Edmund Ironside.

[A.D. 1016.

A.D. 1018.]

DANISH KINGS.

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feeling between the two races, Saxons and Danes, although the marriage in itself was not pleasing to them. He agreed that the children of this marriage should be the heirs to the English crown. He then appointed two Englishmen, Leofric and Godwin, governors of provinces.

Canute had been baptized when young; and now that he had rest from warfare, the good, which had not altogether died out of his heart, revived. Under the influence of Christianity he became a changed man. He made amends for all his former cruelty; confirmed all the good laws of Alfred and made new ones; encouraged learned men to come to England; encouraged education—the education of the poor, and particularly the education of a priesthood who would look after the spiritual wants of his English subjects and preach the Gospel in his kingdoms of Denmark and Norway. He went on a pilgrimage to Rome, distributing gifts to the churches on his way. At Rome he did homage to the Sovereign Pontiff, and wrote to the bishops and people of England a letter breathing a spirit of deep and true contrition for all his faults, and showing what good might be expected from him in the future. He lived for three years after his return to England, during which time he defeated the Scots. He left three sons—Sweyn, to whom he gave Norway; Harold, who seized England; and Hardicanute, who had to be content with Denmark, although as son of Emma he should have received England.

Harold, 1035 A.D.—Harold, as has been said, seized the throne of England; and, as might be expected,

Canute
marries the
Widow of
Ethelred.

Canute as a
Christian.

His Pil-
grimage to
Rome.

many were very much dissatisfied. Godwin, now one of the most powerful of the Anglo-Saxon nobles, was among the number. They thought that Hardicanute had the best right to the throne; and, consequently, the horrors of war seemed once more to threaten the people. But the Wise Men interposed;

**Division of
the King-
dom.**

and a division of the kingdom was made—Harold receiving the country north of the Thames; Hardicanute, the part south of that river. The latter did not seem to care much for his English possessions. He spent most of his time in Denmark, leaving the government in England to his mother and Godwin.

It has been mentioned that when Canute came to the throne the brothers of Edmund Ironside fled to Normandy. They were sons of Emma of Normandy and Ethelred. Two of these returned to England: one, Edward—afterwards king—lived happily there; the other was cruelly put to death by Harold's soldiers. Harold's early death left Hardicanute sole ruler.

Hardicanute, 1040 A.D.—Hardicanute came over from Denmark and began a reign in England marked throughout by cruelty. He caused the body of his

His Cruelty.

brother to be dug up, beheaded, and thrown into a marsh. He continued the Danegelt, but for the purpose of keeping up a Danish fleet instead of opposing one. He was much given to intemperate habits, and dropped dead at a marriage feast of one of his thanes. With him ended the Danish line of kings. To the great joy of the English,

**The Saxon
Line re-
stored.**

the Saxon line was restored in the person of Ethelred's son, Edward, whom we mentioned in the last reign as having returned to England. He is known in history and in the Church as Edward the Confessor.

CHAPTER V

SAXON LINE RESTORED.

1041 A.D. to 1066 A.D.

Edward the Confessor, 1041 A.D.—The crown belonged by right to the son of Edmund Ironside, who, as we may remember, was in Hungary. But Edward, his uncle, being older and having lived long enough in England to win the esteem and love of the English people, was chosen king. Edward was a wise and holy man, whose life of sorrow and suffering had taught him many good lessons.

**A Wise and
Holy Man.**

The kingdom was threatened by invasion from Norway; but this was prevented by the King of Denmark.

Edward's great trouble came from the fierce nobles who ruled the petty kingdoms and provinces under him. They were jealous of one another, and perhaps of the king himself, whose gentle rule was not appreciated by them as it should have been. They, however, helped him to repel an invasion of the Danes which came about in this way. Denmark was threatened by an invasion from Norway. The King of Denmark applied to Edward for assistance, which was refused. This led to an invasion of England by the Danes.

**Danish In-
vasion
repelled.**

In the peace which followed, Edward had an opportunity to make or compile these good laws which were ever after spoken of with reverence, and to which the oppressed

**The Laws of
Edward.**

people of later reigns often appealed. The laws of good King Edward passed into a proverb. He abolished the Danegelt.

The only part of Edward's conduct which caused his subjects to complain was the great favor he showed to the Normans who came to England. Edward's long residence at the Court of Normandy brought about his strong liking for them, their customs, and language. We find, therefore, many of the highest positions in the Church and in the state given to the strangers. However, we must not conclude from this that Edward favored none but the Normans, though perhaps it would have been well if Norman manners and customs had been extended more than they were. In the long wars with the Danes the English lost much of their refinement, and they had grown careless in matters of religion. Everything done by Edward was with

**Edward's
Norman
leanings.**

a view to remedy so undesirable a state of affairs. The English people were not wise enough to see this, and they expressed their dislike in many ways. Godwin, whose daughter was married to Edward, did not help to bring about a better understanding. A quarrel between his people and those of a Norman count who was on a visit to England embittered the English still more. William of Normandy came to England and proceeded in state through the kingdom. All these things tended to add to the general unrest. Godwin died soon after, leaving his possessions, his power, and his ambition to his son Harold, who thus became the greatest man in the kingdom.

Edward was a peaceful ruler, and we find his whole care given to the internal management of his king-

**Edward not
understood
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dom. Everything that was for the good of his sub-
jects received his best attention. Few **A Peaceful**
wars disturbed his reign. An expedition **Ruler.**
against the Welsh, and another against Macbeth, who
had usurped the crown of Scotland, were the only
ones. The latter resulted in Macbeth's death and
Malcolm's accession to the Scottish throne.

Edward now proposed to go on a pilgrimage to
Rome; but as the Wise Men were opposed **Trouble**
to it, he gave it up; and as he had no **about the**
heir, they dreaded the troubles of a dis- **Succession.**
puted succession. Harold looked forward to pos-
session of the kingdom. Edward, son of Edmund
Ironside, was still in Hungary. Invited to England,
he died soon after his arrival there, leaving two chil-
dren, Edgar (surnamed Atheling) and Margaret.
Edgar was weak in body and in mind, and was alto-
gether unfit to take the throne in such a stormy time.
William of Normandy was another claimant, and a
circumstance occurred which gave him an **Claims of**
immense advantage over Harold. Harold **William of**
was shipwrecked on the coast of Nor- **Normandy.**
mandy, taken prisoner, and handed over to William,
who released him only after he had made a solemn
oath to support his captor's claims to the throne of
England.

The closing days of Edward's life were disturbed
by this difficulty. He loved his people, and **Closing**
was troubled by the thought of contest be- **Days of**
tween the rival claimants for his throne. **Edward.**
His one desire was to see his great church at West-
minster consecrated before he died. He lived long
enough for this; but he was too ill to be present at
the ceremony.

It is said that he recommended the Wise Men to choose Harold for their king. He died on **Edward's** January 5, 1066 A.D., and was buried in **Death, Jan.** his own new church on the next day, the **5, 1066.** Feast of the Epiphany. Miracles were soon wrought at his grave; and about one hundred years after, he was canonized as Saint—St. Edward the Confessor.

No king of England was, perhaps, more happy in the affections of his people than this holy king. While giving them an example of sanctity, he labored for their material and spiritual good. He sought to promote peace, as well at home as abroad. He was content with his own possessions, and neither coveted those of others nor sought by unjust enactments to obtain money from his own people. He was, in fine, a model Catholic king, of a type often given us in the ages of faith. The axiom "A king can do no wrong" was applied to him by the grateful hearts of his subjects.

Harold II., 1066 A.D.—Harold, although he was not of royal blood, caused himself to be proclaimed king, and was accepted by the Wise Men and by the people.

He had scarcely been seated on the throne when **Harold's** William of Normandy began preparations **Brother,** to establish his claim to the kingdom. In **Tostig.** the mean time Harold's brother, Tostig, supported by Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, landed in England to take possession of Northumberland, which he had lost by his tyranny. He would have obtained the earldom, but he made other demands which Harold could not grant. This led to a battle, which was fought at Stamford Bridge in Yorkshire September 25, 1066 A.D. Tostig and the King

[A.D. 1066.

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nd the King

A.D. 1066.] POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITION. 35

of Norway were killed, and their army routed with great slaughter.

Immediately after this victory, news of the landing of William of Normandy was brought to Harold, who, contrary to advice, marched southward to meet him. The two armies met at Hastings. Harold's was greatly diminished in number, and the long march had almost exhausted his men. But he would not wait; and on October 14 he gave battle to William. The fight raged all day. Towards evening Harold fell. The English, having lost their leader, fled, leaving the victory with William, and thus making him king of England. To commemorate the battle, William founded Battle Abbey, the ruins of which still mark the spot where Harold's army was posted. In this abbey for many centuries, the monks offered up prayers and masses for the repose of the souls of those who fell on that eventful day.

Landing of
William of
Normandy,
and Battle
of Hastings.

CHAPTER VI.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

Government.
Classes of Society.
Witan or Great Council.
Land Tenure.
Political Divisions.

Courts of Justice.
Houses.
Food.
Dress.
Occupation.

BEFORE taking a final leave of this period and entering on the history of the country under a new line of kings, it will be well to survey, briefly, the political and social condition of the Anglo-Saxons.

Government.—The form of government was an elective monarchy, which was generally retained in one family, but not necessarily descending from father to son. On the death of a king the nearest heir was often set aside when another member of the family appeared to be better fitted to rule. Two instances of this are mentioned in the preceding pages.

Classes of Society.—There were two general classes of society—the earls or nobles, and the ceorls. The sons and kindred of the king were called Athelings, that is, nobles, (*athel*, noble). Then came the ealdormen (aldermen—elder men) or earls. They were originally the chief nobles, and were usually governors of shires. Their duty was to lead to

**Duties of
Earls and
Thanes.**

battle those residing in their territory, and, with the bishop, to preside in the county court. Next came the thanes, of whom there were two classes—the king's thanes and the common thanes, the former acting as magistrates. The rank ofthane could be held only by those who possessed five hides of land—about six hundred acres. The rest of the freemen were called ceorls (churls). Then there were the serfs or slaves, chiefly of the conquered Celtic race. Besides those born to slavery, all captives in war, and persons arrested for debt or crime, became slaves. The sale and purchase

Slaves. of these unhappy people was carried on in open market during the whole of the Anglo-Saxon period, the price of a slave being four times that of an ox. The Church alone raised a voice against this unholy traffic, which was abolished chiefly by the zeal of Wulstan, Bishop of Worcester, who preached a veritable crusade against it.

The Witena-ge-mote or Witan, or Great Council.—

There was a national council called the Witena-ge-mote, the assembly of Witan (wit) or Wise Men (ge-mote, that is *met* together). The members of this council were bishops, abbots, ealdormen, and king's thanes. It thus resembled the present **Like the present House of Lords.** Its assent was necessary before the king could enact any law.

Three regular meetings were held each year—at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide; but meetings were held more frequently if occasion required them. Besides regulating the succession and exercising a general control over all matters of government, the Council acted as the Supreme Court of Justice and Appeal.

Land Tenure.—The land was divided between the State (folc-land), and individuals who held their property as freeholders [*boc*-land, from the book (*boc*) or charter by which the title was conveyed]. The latter was granted by the king with the consent of the Witan. Landholders were expected to serve in the militia, though it does not seem that such service was obligatory.

Political Divisions.—The country was divided into shires or counties. This arose from the smaller kingdoms and their subdivisions. The large counties were divided into thirds (*tridings*, now *ridings*), hundreds, and tithings—the hundreds being districts containing one hundred families; the tithings, ten families.

Courts of Justice.—As has been stated, the chief court of justice was the Witan. Next was the Shire-mote, or county court, which was presided over by the bishop, the earl or ealdorman, and the

Shire-reeve (sheriff). In this court we find the beginning of our jury system. The finding of a verdict for or against a person accused was often intrusted to twelve, twenty-four, or thirty-six of the principal thanes. But the verdict was given, not on the evidence brought against the accused, but on the evidence which could be brought in his favor on his own oath and the oaths of his neighbors, called in this connection *compurgators*. The hundred-mote, which met monthly, and the hall-mote or ward-mote, were courts of more limited powers.

The general punishment was a fine, which in certain cases went to the king. If any one was injured or murdered, he who committed the crime paid the fine to the injured man, or to the relations of the murdered man. This fine was called *wer-gild* (*wer*, man; *gild*, gold); but in some cases banishment or capital punishment was imposed.

Another mode of trial was the *ordeal*, which was conducted in the Church by the clergy. This consisted in subjecting the accused to some dangerous or painful ordeal—such as plunging the hand in boiling water (the ordeal by water), or carrying a bar of hot iron (ordeal by fire). Before the accused was put on trial in this way, he made a solemn appeal to Heaven to attest his innocence by miraculous interposition. From the condition of the wound after three days the verdict was pronounced. The ordeal was, however, a local usage among the northern nations. St. Gregory the Great and subsequent Popes condemned it as superstitious and a temptation against God.

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houses of the rich were built of wood—stone being used for churches and fortresses only. The houses of the poor were built of clay. Towards the close of the period stone houses became common; but though the walls were often covered with rich tapestry, the ground formed the floor, in the centre of which the fire was kindled, a hole in the roof allowing the smoke to escape.

Food.—The Saxons used meat of various kinds—swine's flesh especially. Their drink was ale, cider, and mead (a drink made from honey).

Dress.—The dress of the men consisted of a tunic or coat reaching to the knees, and fastened round the waist by a belt. Sometimes a cloak was worn over this. Nearly all wore shoes; few wore stockings. The dresses of the women were loose robes, which reached to the ground. Both sexes were very fond of ornaments.

Occupation.—When not engaged in war, the Saxons spent a large share of their time in hunting, fishing, and hawking. Many were skilled in various trades.

THE NORMAN PERIOD.

NORMAN KINGS.

William I.	began to reign in 1066,	died in 1087.
William II.	" " " " 1087,	" " 1100.
Henry I.	" " " " 1100,	" " 1135.
Stephen	" " " " 1135,	" " 1154.

CHAPTER I.

WILLIAM I. (CONQUEROR.)

The Normans.
Saxons submit to William.
William's Coronation.
His First Acts.
William visits Normandy.
His Return to England.
The Feudal System.
Domesday Book.
The New Forest.

The Curfew Bell.
William and the Barons.
William and his Sons.
The Danes, Scotch, and Welsh.
The Church.
William's Death.
Character of William.
Benefits of the Conquest.

The Normans.—The restless and warlike spirit of the "vikings," which led to their descent on England, has been spoken of in the beginning of the Anglo-Saxon period. The same spirit led their kinsmen of Norway, under Rolf or Rollo, to make a descent on the coast of France about the time Alfred ruled in England. Rollo sailed up the Seine, took Rouen, and pushed on to Paris. But the French king made terms with him, giving him a large tract of land at the mouth of the river. Occasionally, new grants

Restless
& Warlike
Spirit of the
Normans.

were added, so that in a short time this district, called Normandy, that is, the land of the Northmen or Normans, became one of the largest and most valuable of the provinces of France. William, the sixth Duke of Normandy, whose success at the battle of Hastings has been told in a preceding chapter, was a descendant of Rollo.

Saxons Submit to William.—The death of Harold at Hastings threw all England into confusion. The people did not know what to do; and the Witan seemed equally at a loss how to act. Exercising its usual power, it appointed Edgar Atheling king. He was weak in body and in mind; and soon the Conqueror's iron will and energy bore down all opposition. Edgar himself was at the head of a deputation which came to offer the crown to William, who was thus acknowledged king of England.

William's Coronation.—The conduct of William immediately after he was crowned king would lead us to believe that he had fully resolved to govern well. But an event which occurred on his coronation day made a bad beginning, and cast the first shadow over his relations with his Saxon subjects. He was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas day; and when the officiating Bishop asked the Saxons assembled whether they would accept William as their king, they assented with loud shouts. The shouts were heard by the Norman soldiers who were on guard outside. Believing, or pretending to believe, that the Saxons were about to attack the king, they began to plunder and burn the houses and to put the Saxons to death.

William's First Acts.—For a short time William reigned well. His soldiers were kept in strict order.

A Bad
Beginning.

The laws and customs of the country remained in full force. The estates of English nobles who fell at Hastings were given to some of his Norman followers; but those who had taken up arms against him and survived that battle were merely fined. Peace and order prevailed throughout the kingdom. The south and southeast acknowledged his rule quietly—the rest of the country did not trouble itself as to who was king.

William Visits Normandy, 1067 A.D.—It is probable that all would have gone well had William remained in England. But after six months spent there, he wished to visit Normandy. He left the direction of affairs in his absence, to his half-brother Odo Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitzosborne. He brought with him in his train to Normandy, Edgar Atheling and the leading English nobles, to serve as trophies of his conquest, and as hostages for the good behavior of the English people while he was away. The tyranny of Odo, the insolence and vicious conduct of the Normans who were in England, became unbearable; and, perhaps, in William's absence, the English began to think they had accepted his rule too readily. Risings took place all over the country.

William's Return to England, 1068 A.D.—William returned hastily to England, and in his usual vigorous way set about quelling the rebellion. The most formidable of the risings was that in the north, where three thousand Normans were put to the sword in York. The English invited the Danes to come to their help, consequently William had not an easy task before him. The rebellion in the south, centre, and west he

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of Bayeux.

Risings
put down.

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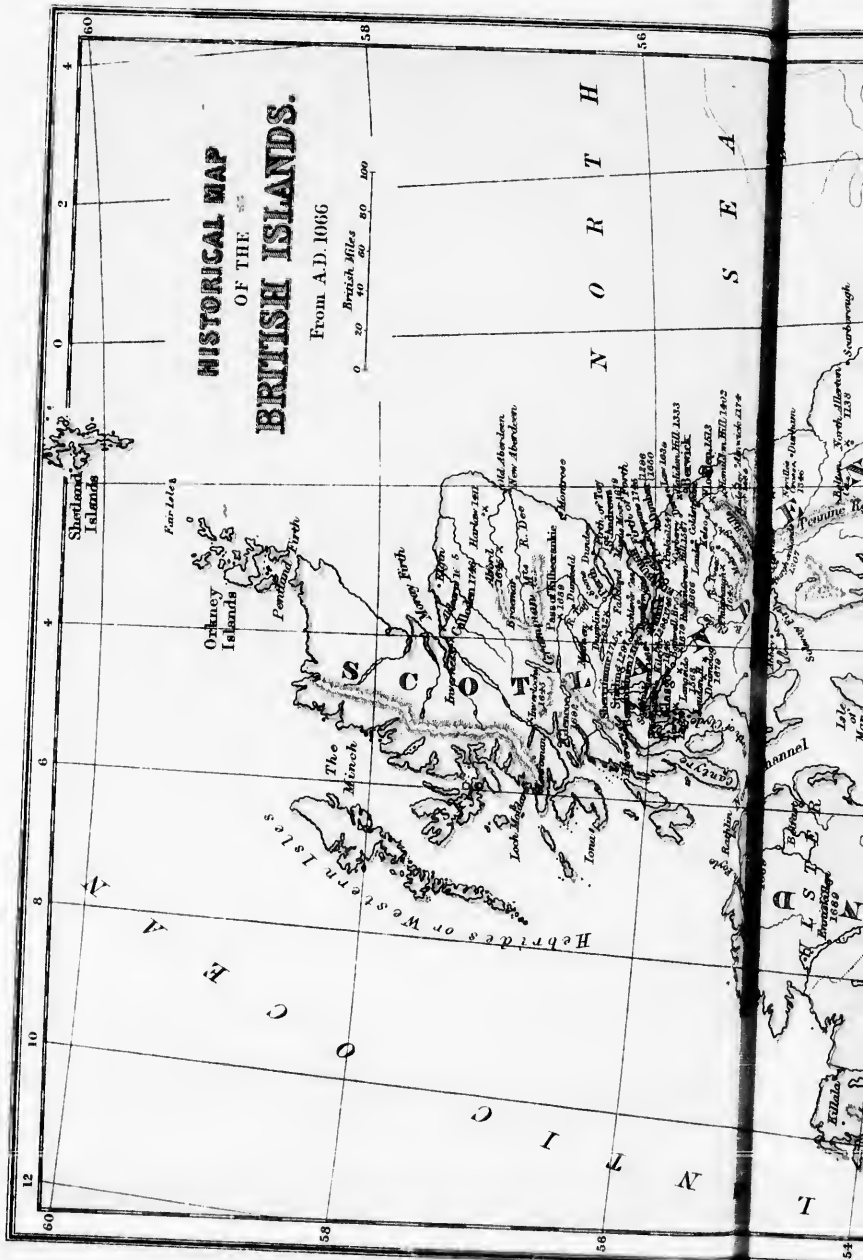
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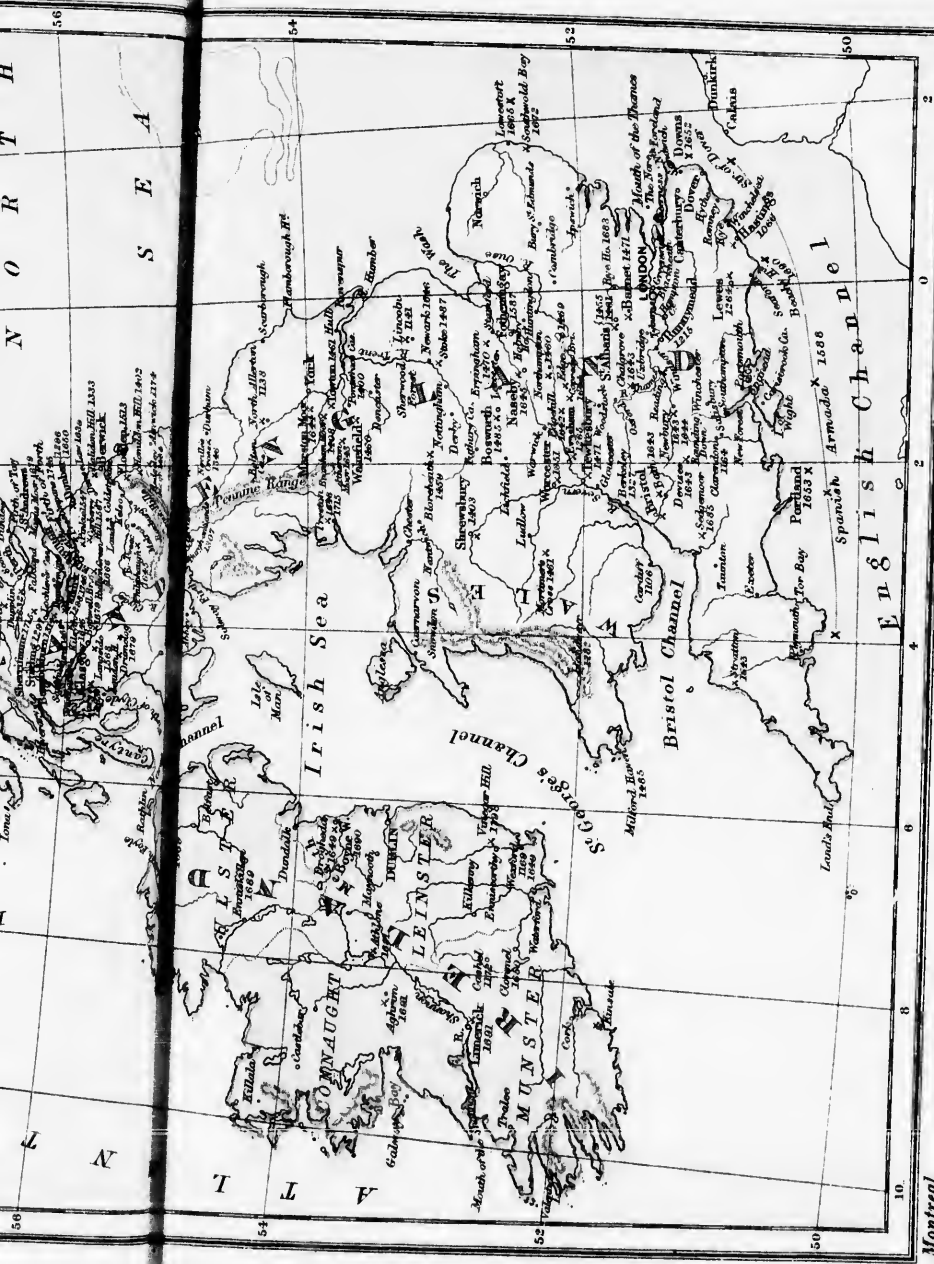
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HISTORICAL MAP OF THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

From A.D. 1066

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James A. Sadler.

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crushed easily. Marching northwards, he first bought off the Danes; and then with fire and sword laid waste the whole country from York to the Tees. Towns and villages were burned; the people slain or driven into Scotland. The crops, cattle, even the farming implements, were destroyed, so that the famine and sickness which followed, carried off one hundred thousand persons. For years after, this part of the country was like a desert. Edgar Atheling and his sister Margaret fled to Scotland.

Some of the Saxon nobles still held out against William. Edwin, Morcar, and Hereward were the most powerful. Edwin fell in a skirmish on the Scottish border, where Malcolm of Scotland, who had married Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, helped on the revolt. Morcar joined Hereward, who had taken refuge in the marshes of Ely, and who more than any one else showed a bold opposition to the Norman. William, however, made a causeway three miles long, reached the "Camp of Refuge," as Hereward's hiding-place was called, and forced the Saxons to surrender. William, now really the Conqueror, having completely stamped out the rebellion, had strong castles built in commanding positions throughout the kingdom. He placed them in possession of Norman nobles, their vassals, and dependents; and the establishment of the Feudal System in England helped to give complete security to his government.

End of the
Saxon
Rebellion.

The Feudal System.—We have seen that William gave to his Norman nobles, or barons, as they were called, the estates of those Saxons who had fallen at Hastings, but with the estates of the survivors he

did not interfere. The revolt of the English, which he had just quelled, offered him a pretext for further spoliations. He took away the estates of almost all the English nobles and gave them to his Norman followers, who in return for these lands were bound to bring to the field a certain number of men when

**Saxon
Nobles
despoiled
of their
Estates.**

the king wanted to raise an army. These Normans portioned out the estates among their knights and other tenants, who were bound to their superior as the latter was to the king. The possessions so held were called a *feod* or *fief*; the possessor became the *vassal* of the king, who was the *feudal lord*. This was the Feudal system, which had existed for a long time on the continent, and which we now find introduced into England by the Conqueror, but with a very important change. In the system as it existed on the continent the higher vassals alone swore allegiance to the feudal lord, the inferior vassals taking the oath of allegiance only to those under lords on whose estates they lived. William obliged all freemen to swear allegiance to himself directly.

**The Con-
tinental
Feudal Sys-
tem modi-
fied by
William.**

The feudal system completed the subjection of the Saxon race. The few English nobles who were permitted to keep their estates were brought under its provisions; the thanes were reduced to the condition of simple tenants, called by the Normans *franklins*—almost a state of servitude. Even the lands of the Church were held on the same tenure of military service.

The vassals received their fiefs from the feudal lord by a ceremony called *investiture*; they took an oath of *fealty*, and did *homage* to him for their possessions.

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In doing homage, the vassal, ungirding his sword and uncovering his head, knelt before his lord, between whose hands he placed his own, and solemnly declared that he would from that time forward be his lord's man (*homme*, whence *homage*), and serve him "with life and limb, and earthly regard." The kiss of the lord invested him with the land or fief, to descend to his heirs forever. The whole country was divided into 60,125 parts, called *knights' fees*, each part containing from 300 to 400 acres, on which was kept an armed soldier with a suitable horse ready for active service whenever required. By this means the king could gather round the royal standard, on the shortest notice and free of expense, an army of sixty thousand men, mounted on good horses, and commanded by their own chiefs.

**Feudal
Ceremonies.**

But there was danger here to the crown itself. The nobles, who rarely had occasion to take the field under their sovereign, were constantly surrounded by their retainers or vassals, who feasted in their halls, shared their sports, and lived under their protection. Their castles were for the most part strongly fortified; and they kept their retainers exercised in frequent petty wars among themselves. Their growing desire for hereditary military and judicial power in their own manors, independent of the king, was the difficulty now confronting William.

**Danger to
the Crown
under the
Feudal
System.**

He met it by availing himself of the old legal constitution of the country to hold the administration of justice firmly in his own hands. He retained the local courts of the hundred and the shire, where every free-man had a place, while he subjected all to the juris-

**The Diff-
culty met
by William.**

diction of the king's court. Besides this, as we have seen, every freeman in the kingdom was obliged to take the oath of allegiance directly to the king. He had other means of keeping the barons under control: these will be fully explained in a succeeding chapter.

Domesday Book, 1086 A.D.—Under certain circumstances, which will be mentioned later, all manors had to pay special dues to the king. To fix these amounts William appointed, in each hundred, commissioners, who, on oath, prepared and sent to the king reports on the extent and nature of each estate, the names, number, and condition of its inhabitants, its value before and after the Conquest, and the sums due from it to the crown. These particulars were recorded in a book called the Domesday Book. It registers 283,000 heads of families, from which basis the population is supposed to have been a million. The book is preserved in the British Museum. By means of these dues and other taxes, William made up for himself a revenue amounting to over one thousand pounds a day, an enormous sum for those times.

The New Forest.—William was as fond of hunting as he was of money. Although there were already many royal forests, he wished to have still larger hunting-grounds. For this purpose he laid waste the country from Winchester to the sea—about twenty thousand acres in extent, and one of the most fertile parts of England. Villages and even churches were burned, and many thousands of peasants were made homeless. This hunting-ground he called the New Forest, a name which has come down to

**Manorial
Dues.**

**A Large
Tract of
Country
laid waste.**

the present day. He made very strict laws respecting game—the killing of a deer was punished by the loss of the offender's eyes.

The Curfew Bell.—Another law enforced by William was that which obliged the people to extinguish fires and lights every evening at the ringing of the curfew bell. This law was looked upon by the English as an additional badge of servitude, though the custom had long been in use among the Normans as a precaution against fire. It had nothing to do with the ancient practice of ringing the church-bell for evening prayers.

An Additional
Badge of
Servitude.

William and the Barons.—William had three great struggles before he made his power in England really strong. The first was with the native English; the second, with the Norman barons; the third, with his sons. In speaking of the feudal system, it has been mentioned that the barons had a growing desire for greater independence in their own manors. This desire led to plots for the dethronement of William. The most important was one made by two of the great Norman nobles, into which they tried to draw Waltheof, Earl of Northampton, the last of the English earls. He was married to William's niece. Regretting his part in the plot, he told the secret to his wife, who at once carried the news to the king. Making known the danger to William did not save Waltheof. He was beheaded as a traitor. Other risings were speedily quelled.

William's
Three Great
Struggles.

William and his Sons.—William's last days were embittered by the conduct of his sons, especially his eldest son Robert. William had named Robert

as his successor in the government of Normandy. Robert, offended because his father would not allow him to rule at once, broke out into open rebellion, in which he was aided by the king of France. Driven out of Normandy, he took refuge in the castle of Gerberoi, which had been given to him by the French king. In a skirmish before the walls of the castle, father and son fought hand to hand. The sound of William's voice under his closed helmet saved his son from a fearful crime. William, the second son, destined to become king of England after his father, was of so brutal a disposition that the people dreaded his coming to the throne.

**Robert
rebels.**

The Danes, Scotch, and Welsh.—Canute, King of Denmark, determined to claim the crown of England as successor to his namesake. But a mutiny dispersed his fleet, and his death by assassination removed all peril to William from that quarter. Scotland, humbled by the Conqueror's northern campaign in 1067, was held in check by the erection of a fortress at Newcastle-on-Tyne. After an invasion of Wales, William settled barons along the frontier, giving them license to conquer the land for their own benefit.

The Church.—William's reign was full of trouble even to the end. Before we speak of the events of the closing days of his rule, we shall say something of his relations with the Church. We have seen how he treated the barons and the English people; we shall now examine his conduct towards the bishops and clergy.

In these unsettled times the people had become careless and slothful, and had fallen away from the

Normandy. His father would not, he broke out. He was aided in Normandy, he which had been a skirmish between his son fought with voice under a fearful crime. Some king of France had a disposition to the

King of England. A mutiny and a campaign in Scotland. A campaign of a foreign invasion of the frontier, for their

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practice of religion. The Norman clergy and monks whom the Conqueror established in England were men of learning and piety—men who by precept and example gave great aid to the native bishops and clergy in stirring up the people to a more spiritual and religious life. The archbishopric of Canterbury being vacant, William appointed Lanfranc, an Italian monk, to the see. Lanfranc had for some time been living in Normandy. He was the greatest scholar of his day, and was as humble as he was learned and pious. The result showed the wisdom of William's choice. It was to be expected that, as a foreigner, Lanfranc would meet with opposition; but his sanctity and wisdom, his prudent conduct towards clergy and people, brought all to admire and love him. His zeal in spiritual matters gave new life to religion in England. New orders of monks were founded, new monasteries and churches were built. He was always the good adviser of the king, and often saved him from committing acts of cruelty. For, although it was sometimes impossible to move William if his ambition and avarice stood in the way, he was, on the whole, an obedient son of the Church. He always showed a strong attachment to religion and a respect for its institutions. The abbey which he erected on the hill of Senlac was an instance of this.

But now began that system of royal interference in Church matters which produced many evils, and which in later times led to the separation of England from the unity of the Catholic faith. William was guilty of unjust and scandalous invasion of ecclesiastical

**Lanfranc
appointed
Archbishop
of Canter-
bury.**

**His
Sanctity,
Wisdom,
and
Prudence.**

**William an
Obedient
Son of the
Church.**

rights. Homage was exacted by him from bishop as from baron. No excommunication could issue without the king's license. No decrees of national or provincial synods could be carried into effect without his permission. No letters from Rome were delivered until he had inspected them. These restrictive laws were calculated to be of great injury to the Church. History often points this lesson, that in proportion as a king is tyrannical to his subjects, he is rebellious to the Church, the mother of Christian people.

Royal Interference in Church Matters.

William's Death.—Towards the close of his reign William was engaged in a dispute with Philip, King of France, who allowed some of his barons to invade Nor-

Normandy invaded.

mandy. In consequence of a stupid jest made by Philip, William entered his dominions, destroying and burning all before him. He reduced the town of Mantes to ashes. As he was riding among the ruins of the city, his horse trod on some hot embers, and, starting, threw the king forward against the pommel of the saddle. An internal injury, which soon after proved fatal, was the result. William was conveyed to the monastery of

William's Last Hours.

St. Gervas in Rouen, where he lingered for six weeks. Here he made his will, giving Normandy to Robert, England to William, and a sum of money to Henry. And here, in the quietness of a sick-room, and with the near approach of death, remorse for his harshness and for his other sins filled his soul. The terrible massacre of the north seems to have been his greatest torment. He did what he could to make amends. He ordered the liberation of all prisoners; he gave large sums of money to restore the churches and monasteries he

had burned, and to provide for the poor. He wrote a letter to Lanfranc, telling his wishes about the government of England. He gave this letter to his son William, who started for England even before his father's death. On the morning of the ninth of September the sound of a church-bell fell on his dying ear. "What bell is that?" he asked. "It tolls the prime from our Lady's Church," was the reply. Then stretching out his hands, William the Conqueror said, "I commend myself to that Blessed Lady, Mary the Mother of God, that she may reconcile me to her most dear Son, Our Lord Jesus Christ;" and immediately expired, in the sixty-first year of his age, the fifty-fourth of his reign in Normandy, and the twenty-first of his reign in England. His body was conveyed to Caen and buried in the Church of St. Stephen, which he had founded.

Character of William.—The firm establishment of the Norman dynasty on the throne of England is a proof of William's military ability and his capacity for governing. He was stern and ambitious; fond of grandeur and magnificence; avaricious and often cruel; of immense bodily strength and determined will; feared rather than loved by his subjects; in his gentle moods mild and winning; always a good husband and a reverent son of the Church.

Benefits of the Norman Conquest.—Although effected by much bloodshed and supported for a long time by cruelty and oppression, the Norman Conquest in its lasting results was a great benefit to England. It gave her a strong government in place of the weak Saxon kings. It gave her nobles whose pride and jealousy were the means of securing the

liberty of the people; and it raised England to a prominent place as a European power.

We have dwelt at great length upon the reign of William the Conqueror because his taking possession of the throne brought about so many changes.

CHAPTER II.

WILLIAM II. (RUFUS).

1087 A.D. to 1100 A.D.

Odo's Plot.

William's Designs on Normandy.

Scotch and Welsh give Trouble.

Robert places Normandy under William; The Crusades. William and the Church. William's Death.

WILLIAM, surnamed Rufus, from the color of his hair, succeeded to the throne according to his father's wish. He was crowned by Lanfranc on the 26th September, 1087.

Odo's Plot.—The Norman barons who held estates in both England and Normandy, fearing that with a separate government in each country they would have to give up their possessions in one or the other, formed, under Odo, a conspiracy to put the careless and easy-tempered Robert on the throne of England, thus to make him ruler over both countries.

William was thrown almost wholly on the loyalty of his English subjects, to whom he made great promises. Among other things he pledged himself to repeal the harsh forest laws under which the people suffered. These promises, together with the hatred felt by the English

The Norman Barons.

1087 A.D.

William's Promises.

people towards Norman lawlessness, drew them to his standard. Robert delayed his coming to England. The conspiracy was crushed, and the estates of the conspirators confiscated.

But William disregarded his promises, and treated the English people even more severely than his father. Naturally cruel and wicked, he kept his evil passions within bounds as long as Lanfranc lived; but the death of that holy man removed all check on the king, and all hope of good government.

William's Design on Normandy.—William had set his heart on obtaining Normandy. The state of affairs there, owing to the indolence and misgovernment of Robert, gave him a pretext for interference. He endeavored to dispossess Robert; but through the mediation of the French king peace was restored between the brothers, and they agreed that England and Normandy should belong to the survivor after the death of either. Henry, the younger brother, was dissatisfied with this arrangement, and retired to the castle of St. Michael's Mount, a strong fortress on an island off the coast of Normandy. Here he was besieged by his brothers and forced to surrender. 1091
A.D.

Scotch and Welsh give Trouble.—While William was absent in Normandy, Malcolm, King of Scotland, invaded England and ravaged the northern counties. He was defeated by William on the return of the latter to England, and was obliged to give up Cumberland, which had been for more than a century held by the Scottish kings. Two years later, Malcolm again invaded England, but he lost his life at the siege of Alnwick Castle.

**Attempt to
dispossess
Robert.**

Malcolm.

The Welsh also were troublesome. Against them William was less successful, because it was difficult, if not impossible, for him to reach them among their mountains. He had to content himself with erecting a chain of forts on the border.

Robert places Normandy under William's Care : the

The Saracens.

Crusades.—At this time the Saracens, who were believers in Mahomet, held possession of Palestine. They treated the holy places with the utmost disrespect ; and the pilgrims who wished to visit and pray at these places made sacred by events in our Saviour's life and Passion were treated with great cruelty. One of these pilgrims, Peter the

Peter the Hermit.

Hermit, resolved that Christian Europe should hear of this, and if his exhortations were effective, prevent it. Accordingly, having first sought and obtained permission from the Pope, who afterwards by instructions to his ambassadors at the various courts aided the good work, Peter travelled through Europe, calling on all Christian princes to lay aside their quarrels, and raise an army which would drive out the unbelievers from Palestine. The whole country was fired with zeal in the cause ; and large numbers joined the standard of the Cross. Each warrior wore on his right breast a cross of white linen—a mark that he had pledged himself to fight and die for the cross of Christ ; hence he was called a Crusader, and the expedition was called a Crusade.

On no one had the call to arms produced a greater effect than on Robert of Normandy. He was brave and generous, and the work to be done was acceptable to him in every way. But he had no money, and he could not raise an army without it. In this

difficulty he was obliged to pawn or mortgage his duchy to William for the space of five years, receiving in return ten thousand marks. Robert raised an army and went to Palestine. It is needless to say that William was only too glad to have Normandy under any conditions. He at once set about undermining Robert's influence there, so that when the latter came back from Palestine the Normans would not have him for ruler.

**Robert
pawns his
Duchy and
raises an
Army.**

William and the Church.—William was rapacious beyond measure. The revenues of the Church were no more sacred in his eyes than the property of his subjects. For five years he kept the income of the archbishopric of Canterbury, taking no steps towards the appointment of a successor to Lanfranc. The people murmured at this, and the barons urged him to fill the vacant see. Frightened by a severe illness, he made many promises of reform, among the rest the appointment of an Archbishop of Canterbury. He selected Anselm, Abbot of Bec, a man of meek and unworldly character, famed for his virtue, his piety, and his learning, a fitting successor to Lanfranc. But although Anselm became Archbishop of Canterbury, the king, in accordance with his usual practice, wished to retain part of the revenue belonging to the see. Anselm opposed this, as he opposed and censured all the other crimes and scandals of William. Christendom being at this time divided by the machinations of an anti-Pope, Anselm acknowledged Urban the true Head of the Church. William in a rage had him tried for treason. He had thought it convenient

**William's
Rapacity.**

**Anselm.
Archbishop
of Canten-
bury.**

**Anselm
tried for
Treason.**

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to refuse to acknowledge both popes, so as to keep the revenues of the Church under his control. But Anselm made this bold declaration: "If any man pretends that I violate the faith which I have sworn to the king because I will not reject the authority of the Bishop of Rome, let him come forward, and I will answer him as I ought." Finding that his advice was lost on the wicked king, he determined to go to Rome. He blessed William before leaving, saying: "Sir, as this is the last time we shall ever meet, I come as your father and your archbishop to give you my blessing once more." The king was tamed for the moment. As has been well said:

**Good
Example of
Anselm.**

"Anselm's attitude infused through the nation at large a new spirit of independence. His example was not lost; for the close of William's reign found a new spirit of freedom in England, with which the greatest of the Conqueror's sons was glad to make terms."

William's Death.—Anselm's prophecy that he and the king would never meet again, proved to be a true one. William gave himself up to all kinds of wickedness as soon as the good Archbishop had left the kingdom. He was fond of hunting; and in the New Forest, where his elder brother was killed, he too fell. An arrow, shot by a French gentleman named Walter Tyrell, glanced from a tree full into the king's breast, causing his death. Tyrell fled to France. The king's body was found by peasants and carried to Winchester, where, without priest or ceremony, he was buried in unconsecrated ground.

**Walter
Tyrell's
Arrow.**

CHAPTER III.

HENRY I.

1100 A.D. to 1135 A.D.

Henry's Accession and Early Acts.	Henry and the Church.
Robert returns to Normandy and claims England.	Rising in Normandy against Henry.
Henry takes Normandy from Robert.	Henry's only Son Drowned.
	The Succession.
	Henry's Character and Death.

Henry's Accession.—Henry, youngest son of the Conqueror, was hunting in the New Forest at the time of his brother's death. Robert was in Italy on his homeward journey from Palestine, idling away his time, and quite unconscious that his inheritance was passing into the hands of another.

Henry hurried to Winchester, the capital, where he seized the royal treasures. He then had himself proclaimed King of England, although opposed by the barons, who were still anxious that Normandy and England should be under one ruler. Thus deserted by the nobles as William Rufus was, Henry followed the late king's example by making great concessions to the people, whose support he was anxious to gain. He promised that there would be no more interference with the revenues of the Church, no more selling positions there, no more unjust taxes, no more oppressions by the under-lords; the laws of Edward the Confessor were to be restored; Anselm was recalled; and to win still more the hearts of his English subjects, he married Matilda or Maud, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland by Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling.

**Henry's
Concessions
to the
People.**

Robert returns to Normandy.—Robert, now arrived in Normandy, resumed the government of that country, and resolved to assert his right to the throne of England. He found many to support him in both Normandy and England. He landed at Portsmouth with a large army, but by the mediation of Anselm war was averted. Robert gave up his claim to the English crown, receiving instead three thousand marks annually, and the castles which his brother held in Normandy. The barons who supported his designs on England were pardoned by Henry.

Henry takes Normandy.—But Henry did not keep his promises. He punished some of Robert's friends in England. Robert, warm-hearted but thoughtless, came over to intercede for them. His interference brought about the loss of his pension—a lesser evil chosen to save his liberty. Henry did not stop here.

Robert
taken
Prisoner.

He found in the discontent of Robert's subjects a pretext for sending an army into Normandy. A battle was fought between the brothers at Tenchebrai, in which Robert was defeated and taken prisoner. The unfortunate prince was imprisoned in the Castle of Cardiff for twenty-eight years, his release coming but with his death.

Henry and the Church.—In this reign we have another instance of the encroachment of the Crown on the rights of the Church. The practice of electing a Bishop which prevails at the present day was in force in the early ages of the Church. When a see became vacant, or when a new see was formed, the bishops of the province or country, sometimes with the priests, after due consideration recommended to the Pope

Mode of
electing a
Bishop

one or two or three persons whom they deemed worthy to fill the office. When the Pope made a choice the new Bishop was consecrated by the Archbishop; and was invested by him with a ring and pastoral staff—symbols of his being set apart to govern in God's Church, and of his spiritual power over his diocese.

Under the feudal system, as we have seen, the kings claimed the right to invest bishops as well as barons, the bishops taking an oath of fealty and paying homage in the usual way. The kings went even farther. Without regard to the opinion of priests or bishops, or even the Pope himself, they claimed the right of saying who was to be Bishop. This difficulty confronted the Church in almost every country in Europe. The Pope held that no temporal authority could confer spiritual power, of which the ring and crozier are the symbols.

Henry invested several Bishops who were not acceptable to the Pope, and then held Anselm responsible for the Pope's opposition. Anselm was obliged to leave the kingdom once more, as he would not yield to wrong; and he laid the matter before the Pope. The Holy Father threatened to excommunicate Henry, who soon yielded. At Bec, in Normandy, he met Anselm, and gave up all claim to investiture, exacting but fealty and homage for the temporal possessions of the Bishops. And it must be remembered that this successful resistance of the Church against the unlawful interference of the Crown was a victory the benefit of which was felt by

**Assumed
Right of
the Crown
to invest
Bishops.**

**Henry
threatened
with Ex-
communica-
tion by the
Pope.**

the whole nation. It taught the people that they were not wholly at the mercy of the king.

Henry founded and richly endowed three great monasteries—one at Reading for the monks of Cluny, and two for regular canons at Dunstable and Chichester.

In this reign learning made rapid strides in England. The ardor for letters, which the two archbishops Lanfranc and Anselm had done so much to kindle, now spread with enthusiasm. New schools were founded, and new teachers brought from abroad. Honors were freely lavished upon all who could boast of erudition.

Rising in Normandy.—Although Robert was in prison, Henry was not yet secure in possession of Normandy. Aided by the King of France, Robert's son William tried to regain his father's lost territory; but Henry was once more victorious, defeating William and his ally at the battle of Brenville.

Henry's only Son Drowned.—Henry was now in peaceful possession of England and Normandy. His son William was the recognized heir to the throne. To strengthen his power still more, he betrothed his daughter Matilda, then but eight years old, to Henry I., Emperor of Germany. His next step was to take his son to Normandy to receive the homage of the barons, and to seek in marriage the daughter of the Count of Anjou. This accomplished, Henry and his son prepared to return to England. The vessel in which the young prince had embarked lingered behind the rest of the royal fleet, while the young nobles who accompanied him, excited with wine, hung over the ship's side and chased away with

**Henry's
Efforts to
strengthen
his Power.**

1119
A.D.

taunts the priest who came to give them a blessing on the voyage. The sailors also had taken too much wine ; and neglecting the management of the vessel, they allowed it to strike a rock. In an instant it sank beneath the waves, and Prince William was drowned.

1120
A.D.

The Succession.—This loss was in itself a great blow to Henry, for he loved his son ; but he felt it still more when he thought that his daughter Matilda was now the only heir to the throne. The spirit of the feudal system was opposed to woman's rule. Matilda's husband, the Emperor of Germany, was dead ; consequently Henry brought about a marriage between her and Geoffrey, Count of Anjou. He then caused all the nobles to swear allegiance to her. David of Scotland, her uncle, and Stephen, Henry's nephew, who might naturally be expected to have designs on the throne, were among the first to take the oath. And at a later period, on the birth of a son to Matilda, the nobles were obliged to swear fealty to him also. Such were the precautions taken by Henry to ensure the succession for Matilda and her son.

The
Princess
Matilda.

Henry's Character and Death.—Though tempered somewhat by a more refined nature, Henry was as arbitrary as his father. The people felt his tyranny in many ways, especially in the heavy taxes which they had to pay for expensive wars. But if he oppressed them himself, he did not allow the barons to do so ; and this curbing of the power of the nobles caused the people to look upon him as a good king. His love of learning led to his title "Beauclerc," or fine scholar. The administration of justice was much improved in his reign. The towns, which were pro-

Henry re-
garded as a
Good King.

gressing in wealth and independence, flourished still more under the new charter granted them by Henry. He died at Rouen in 1135, and his body was brought to England for burial.

CHAPTER IV.

STEPHEN.

1135 A.D. to 1154 A.D.

Stephen's Accession and Early Acts.

David of Scotland takes up Matilda's Cause.

Matilda in England: her Success and Defeat.

Matilda's Son Henry.

Final Settlement of the Succession.

Stephen's Death.

Stephen's Accession and Early Acts.—The strong hand which held the barons in check was now removed. They forgot the oath which they had sworn in allegiance to Matilda. Confusion followed; and in the midst of it, Stephen, forgetting his oath, forgetting the kindness of his uncle the late king, to whom he owed all his possessions in England, appeared at the gates of London. The citizens received him with acclamation. London declared him king without waiting for the sanction of barons or prelates. And as London willed, so generally willed the kingdom. Stephen soon drew the barons and the bishops to his side—the latter through the influence of his brother, who was Bishop of Winchester. Stephen was a brave soldier, his manner was courteous and affable, and this had made him popular.

Stephen received with Acclamation.

The barons accepted Stephen, but each made arrangements to be independent in his own manor. Strong castles were built; and these became centres of tyranny, riot, and plunder. Law and order fled the land. Stephen took no care to remedy the evil. The Church alone stood against it, thereby earning the enmity of the usurper. He seized on Henry's treasures, bought up the old barons, made new ones, hired foreign soldiers to fight for him, and made many promises of good government,—promises which, it is needless to say, he did not keep. Again the people saw that war with all its horrors was about to sweep over the land.

**The Barons
and
Stephen.**

David of Scotland supports Matilda.—The King of Scotland, who had sworn to support Matilda, now entered England, ravaging and laying waste the country. Stephen met him at Durham, and peace was made between them, Henry, David's son, receiving Carlisle, Huntingdon, and Doncaster. But David again invaded England. Thurstan, the aged Archbishop of York, gathered the northern barons to oppose him. Every chieftain pledged himself "to conquer or after which, kneeling on the ground, all received absolution from the hands of Thurstan, the soldiery with one voice repeating Amen. They rushed to battle with the security which faith in those days had power to give, and gained a great victory. The engagement took place at Northallerton, and is known as the "Battle of the Standard," from the huge cross, with the Blessed Sacrament attached to it in a silver pix, which was carried at the head of the army. In

**"Battle
of the
Standard."** 1138
A.D.

**The Con-
fidence of
Faith.**

the following year, at Durham, peace was again made between David and Stephen.

Matilda in England.—As we have seen, the barons accepted Stephen; but his weakness and prodigality soon drove them into revolt. Even his brother, the Bishop of Winchester, deserted him on account of his disobedience to the Church. This discontent opened the way for Matilda's landing in England. She occupied Arundel Castle, her half-brother Robert, Earl of Gloucester, being her chief support.

1139
A.D. **Civil War.** Civil war now really began—the west supporting Matilda; London and the east, Stephen. Through the chivalry of Stephen, who raised the siege of Arundel Castle, Matilda was allowed to depart. She joined Robert at Bristol. In a battle fought at Lincoln, Stephen was taken prisoner. Matilda entered London, and was received as "Lady" of Normandy and England. But her haughtiness turned even her own friends against her, and the heavy taxes which she imposed on the people of London raised up a strong opposition to her there. Robert of Gloucester was soon taken prisoner, and to obtain his release Matilda had to consent to the liberation of Stephen. During the war, which now began again, Robert died. Matilda, thus losing her best help, lost all hope of success, and fled to Normandy.

Matilda's Son Henry: Final Settlement of the Succession.—But another, and one as powerful as Stephen or Robert, was now to take up Matilda's cause. This was her son Henry, who, though but eighteen years of age, was master of some of the fairest provinces in France. He landed in England, and once more raised her standard. Theobald,

Archbishop of Canterbury, knowing that the country was weary of this strife and bloodshed, interposed. The death of Stephen's son Eustace happening about this time, made it more easy to bring about a peaceful settlement of the claims to the throne. In the treaty of Wallingford it was agreed that Stephen should reign unmolested, and that he should be succeeded by Henry, Matilda's son. Stephen died within a year after this treaty, thus leaving the throne of England to Henry the Angevin.

**Mediation
of Theobald,
Archbishop
of Canter-
bury.**

**1153
A.D.**

CHAPTER V.

SCOTLAND AND IRELAND.

SCOTTISH kings and their interference in English affairs have been spoken of occasionally in the preceding chapters. The relations between the two countries will in the succeeding reign be such as to need frequent reference to Scotland. The relations between England and Ireland also will soon claim our attention. It may be well, therefore, to give at this stage a few particulars of Scotch and Irish history, bringing the story of events in these countries up to the time now reached in English history.

**Early
Scotch and
Irish
History.**

Looking back to the period of Roman occupation of Britain, we see how troublesome to the Britons were the Picts and Scots, and how difficult a task it was for the Romans to keep these northern tribes out of England. The Scots, descendants of Irish colonists, who came over about the beginning of the

sixth century, occupied the west coast. The Picts (or Caledonians), who were divided into two distinct tribes, separated by the Grampians, occupied the east. After many years of warfare the Picts were absorbed by the Scots, and one kingdom was formed under Kenneth MacAlpin. About the middle of the tenth century the country was called Scotland—a name which, as we have seen, was first applied to Ireland.

**The Picts
absorbed by
the Scots.**

843
A.D.

The Danes, a great trouble to the English all through the Saxon period, were troublesome to the Scotch also. The history of Scotland during this period is like that of England—the history of a struggle against the invaders.

Up to the time of the Norman conquest, the Scottish kings were engaged in perfecting the government of their kingdom and enlarging its boundaries. The district which now forms Cumberland and Westmoreland was given by the English king to the Scottish monarch. In the reign of Edward the Confessor an English army was sent into Scotland to punish Macbeth, who had murdered the Scotch king, Duncan, and held possession of the throne. A battle was fought at Dunsinane, in Perthshire, in which Macbeth was defeated and slain, and Duncan's son Malcolm placed on the throne. It was this king, known as Malcolm III., or Canmore, who married Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling. We have spoken of his opposition to William the Conqueror. His daughter married Henry I. of England.

1056
A.D.

Malcolm III.

The reigns of the five succeeding kings do not present matters of interest to English history. The sixth in succession from Malcolm was David, his youngest son. He had spent

David.

his early days at the court of his sister, and we can thus account for his oath to support the succession of his niece Matilda to the throne of England. We have already spoken of his two invasions of England, and of his defeat in the Battle of the Standard.

After peace had been restored between the two kingdoms, David spent the rest of his reign in promoting the prosperity of his country and the welfare of his subjects. He built churches and monasteries—the most celebrated being Melrose, Jedburgh, and Holyrood. He encouraged trade, agriculture, and manufactures. His reign of thirty-six years is one of the brightest in Scotch history.

**The Good
accom-
plished dur-
ing David's
Reign.**

IRELAND.

As far as its relations with England are concerned, there is little or nothing to be said about Ireland until we come to speak of the reign of the next English king, Henry II.

The four provinces into which Ireland is now divided—Ulster, Leinster, Munster, and Connaught—correspond in a measure with the ancient kingdoms bearing these names. There was, however, a fifth, Meath.

The Irish chief monarch or Ard-riagh (high king) was generally selected from among the kings of Meath.

The history of the century preceding the invasion of Ireland by the English is, unhappily, but a chronicle of quarrels among the native princes. This made the country an easy prey for any invader. And when Dermot, King of Leinster, fled to Henry II. of England

**The First
Link in the
Chain of
Bondage.**

for assistance, there was made the first link in the chain by which Ireland was bound to the British dominions.

CHAPTER VI.

SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE NORMANS.

Laws.—As most of the changes in the laws of the Anglo-Saxons were made in the reign of Henry II., we shall consider them in connection with that reign.

Houses.—We have spoken of the strongly fortified castles of the barons. These were built of stone, the walls being of great thickness so as to resist attack. The houses of the common people were still rude huts built of wood and plastered with clay. They surrounded the feudal castle and formed the feudal town. The furniture of all houses, even of the great castles, was very poor. The floors were covered with rushes or straw in winter, with grass in summer. A straw bed was a luxury; a mat spread on the floor was the usual couch.

Food and Dress.—The Normans were sparing in the use of food. They did not eat or drink to the excess practised by the Anglo-Saxons. The dress of the Normans, particularly of the Norman ladies, was finer and more ornamented than in the last period.

Amusement.—Feudalism naturally made sham-fighting a very welcome sport for knights and people. The sham-fight was called the *tournament*. In a large open space, around which were galleries to accommodate the throngs of spectators, knights on horseback exhibited their cour-

The Tourna-
ment.

age and skill in arms. A lady, elected to preside over the sports, and called the "Queen of Beauty," gave a prize to the winner when the encounter was over. Knights often travelled through the country challenging all-comers. This system of chivalry, as it was called, very frequently bordered on extravagance; but it had many worthy representatives on the fields of Palestine.

Occupations.—Agriculture, neglected during the Anglo-Saxon period owing to the incursions of the Danes, was specially attended to during the Norman period. The country was carefully tilled. Tradesmen carried on their trades in the feudal towns—iron-workers and armorers being the most numerous, as they had the most employment.

HOUSE OF ANGEVIN OR PLANTAGENET.

1154 A.D. to 1399 A.D.

Henry II. (grandson of	Edward I. (son).....	1272
Henry I.).....	Edward II. (son).....	1307
Richard I. (son.).....	Edward III. (son).....	1327
John (brother)	Richard II. (grandson),	
Henry III. (son).....	1377 to 1399	

CHAPTER I.

HENRY II.

1154 to 1189 A.D.

Henry's Power.	Invasion of Ireland.
Henry reforms Abuses.	Henry's Oath.
Thomas a Becket.	Henry's Troubles: His Sons:
Constitutions of Clarendon.	Scotland.
Henry and the Church.	Henry does Penance.
Murder of Becket.	Henry's Death.

Henry's Power.—Even before Henry took possession of the throne of England he was a powerful ruler. The lands inherited from his father and mother, and those obtained by his marriage with Eleanor of Guienne, were more than a third of France. The addition of England made him one of the most powerful monarchs of his time.

Henry reforms Abuses.—A powerful king was needed to bring England to order. The evils and abuses of the late reign showed themselves on every side. With the counsel and aid of the aged and saintly Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, Henry set about redressing these evils and reforming the abuses.

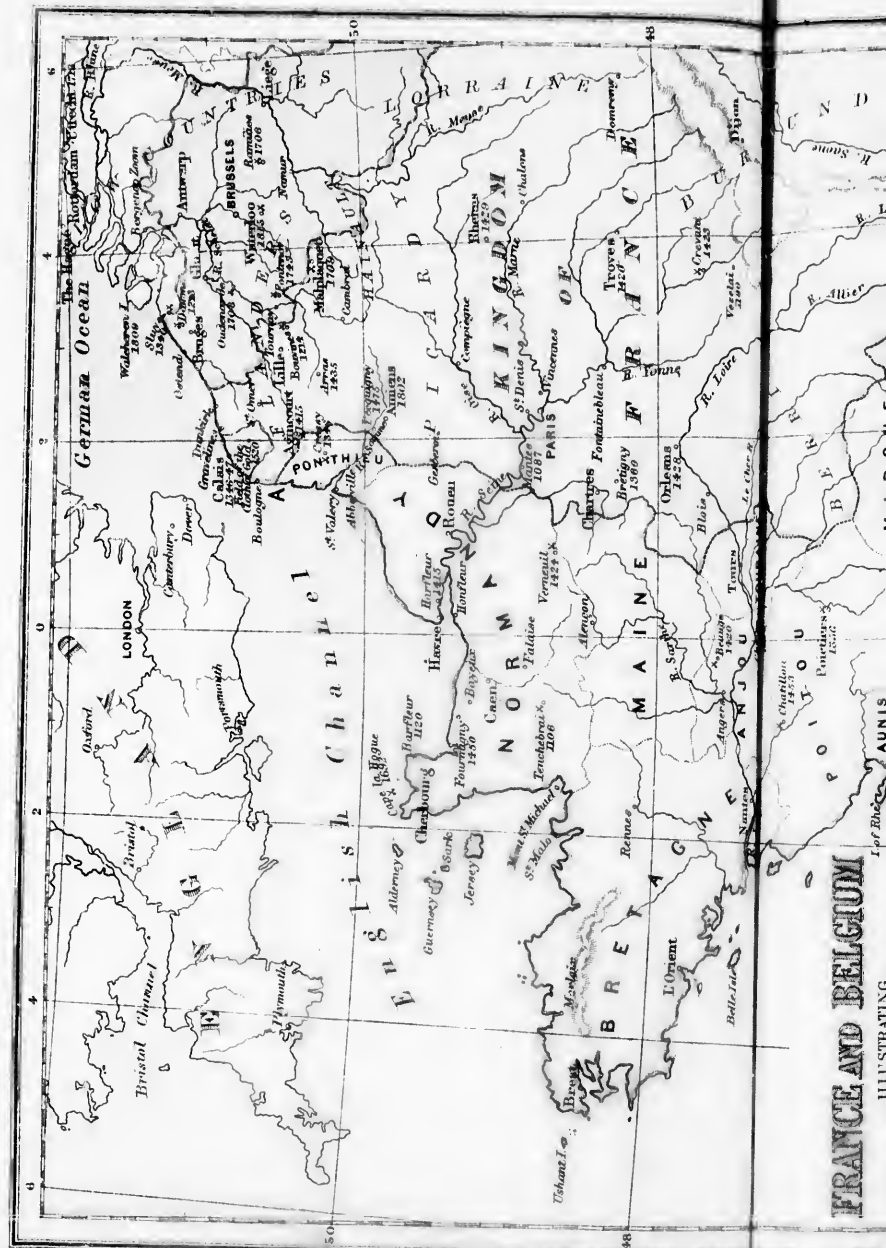
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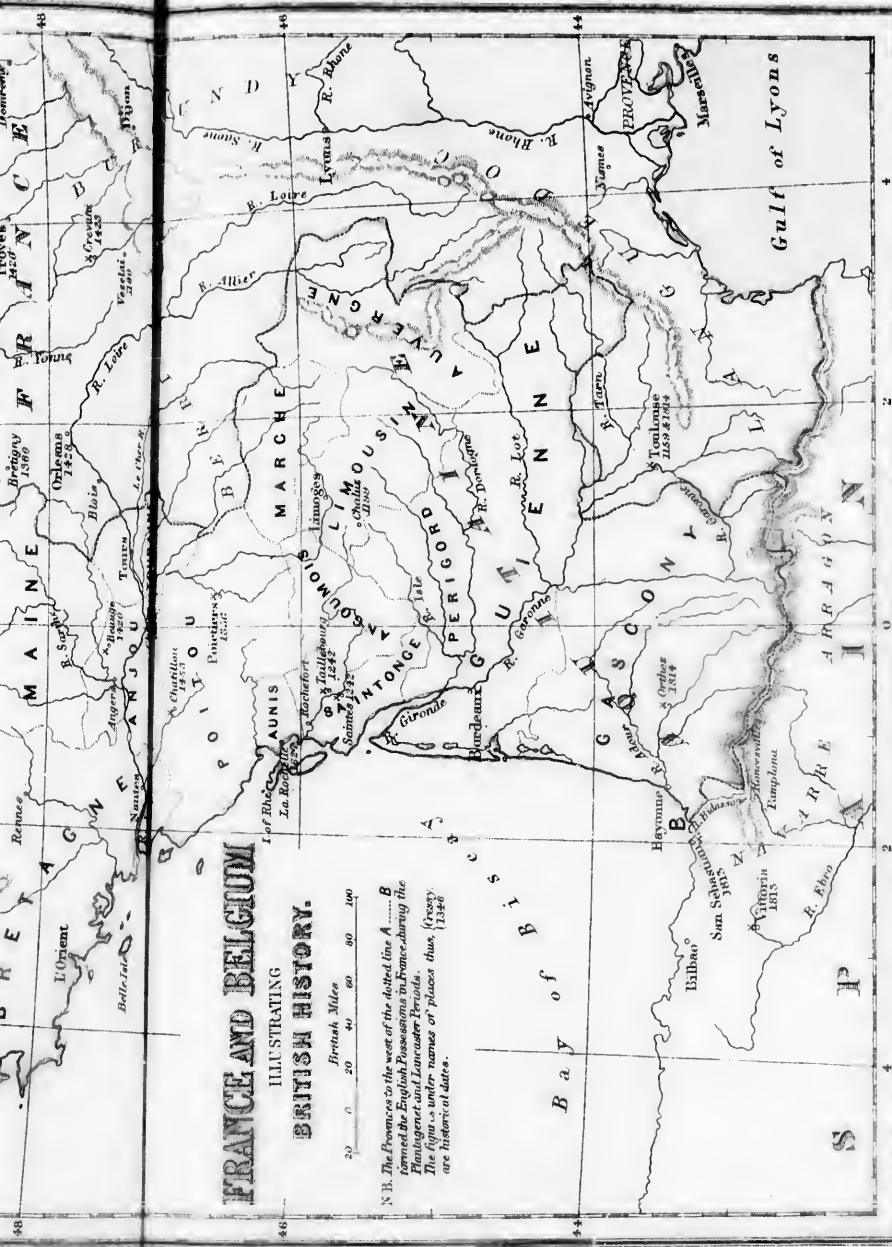
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FRANCE AND BELGIUM

ILLUSTRATING

Leof Rieken



FRANCE AND BELGIUM

ILLUSTRATING BRITISH HISTORY.

N.B. The Province to the west of the dotted line A-B formed the English Possession of France during the reign of Henry II. and was called the *Norman Province*. The figure under names or places thus marked are historical dates.

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He disbanded and drove out of the country the foreign soldiers whom Stephen had employed ; he crushed the power of the barons by destroying many of their castles, and by bringing all under obedience to the law; he renewed the Great Charter of Henry I., thus confirming the rights and privileges granted to towns and cities.

Thomas a Becket.—Age and infirmity, however, warned Archbishop Theobald to retire from the position of Chancellor of the kingdom, and his power fell into the younger and more vigorous hands of Thomas à Becket, who had long acted as his confidential adviser. Thomas, who now became Chancellor, won the personal favor of the king, and was loaded with riches and honors. On the death of Theobald, Henry offered the Archbishopric to Thomas, who did everything to escape the honor. But the king persisted, and Becket, after a period of fasting and prayer, accepted it.

Becket
becomes
Chancellor,
and then
Archbishop
of Canter-
bury.

1162
A.D.

Immediately he changed his manner of life. Instead of the gay and magnificent Chancellor, we now find the humble priest. Instead of the attendant knights and squires and pages, we find a few holy and simple monks. To the king he gave up the great seal of the Chancellor, saying he could hold the office no longer.

Every one was astonished at this change. The king was more than astonished : he was afraid. He had designs on the Church—designs to bring back the worst oppressions of the reigns of William I. and William II., oppressions which Lanfranc and Anselm fought so hard to remove. He hinted at these when Thomas à

Henry's De-
signs on the
Church.

Becket was the polished and obliging courtier. But even then Becket was opposed to them; what would he do now, guardian as he was of the interests of the Church?

Constitutions of Clarendon.—Henry desired to revive the old feudal power over the Bishops—power of investiture, and power to try priests in the king's courts. Becket opposed this; but the other Bishops forsook him; and, very reluctantly, he was obliged to bow to the king's will as expressed in a document called the "Constitutions of Clarendon."

1164
A.D.

Becket's
Opposition
unavailing.

These constitutions enacted that Bishops and Abbots should be chosen before the royal officers in the king's chapel, and with the king's assent. The prelate was to do homage for his lands, and hold them subject to the feudal rights of the king. No excommunication should be issued without the king's consent. No Bishop might leave the realm without the king's permission. The king's court was to decide all cases formerly brought before the courts of the Church.

Struggle between Henry and the Church.—But the Archbishop soon repented of what he had done, and wrote to the Pope asking for absolution. The Pope condemned the "Constitutions," and the Archbishop set them at defiance. This so enraged Henry that he summoned Becket to appear before him at Northampton, to answer an unjust charge of mismanagement of the royal revenues when he was Chancellor.

Summoned
before the
King,
Becket flees
to France.

In fear for his safety and even for his life, the Archbishop fled to France.

Henry stooped to acts of the meanest persecution in driving the Archbishop's kinsmen from England,

and in confiscating the lands of the monks of Pertinny until they should refuse the fugitive a home.

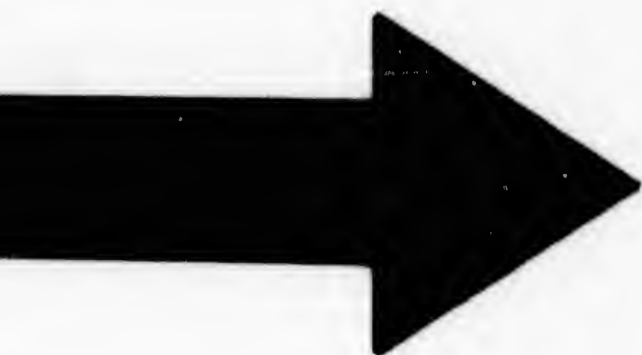
Murder of Becket.—After six years, Henry and the Archbishop became reconciled, and the latter returned to England. He brought with him from the Pope letters of excommunication for some of the Bishops who had disobeyed him, particularly for the Archbishop of York, who had crowned young Henry, the king's son, in Becket's absence. The excommunication he put in force as soon as he reached his see. Henry on hearing this burst into a passion, saying, "Is there no one will rid me of this troublesome priest?" **Incentive to his Murder.** Four knights thereupon proceeded to Canterbury, and on the steps of the high altar of the cathedral they brutally murdered the Archbishop. **1170 A.D.**

All Christendom was horrified when the murder became known. Henry sent ambassadors to Rome to give his pledge to the Pope that he would publicly swear his innocence of all intentional connection with the murder. The Pope accepted his protestations for the time being.

Invasion of Ireland.—It happened, fortunately for Henry, that at this time he was called upon to interfere in Irish affairs. It is stated that in 1155, through representations made to Pope Adrian—himself an Englishman—setting forth a low state of religion and morality in Ireland, Henry obtained permission, by Papal Bull, to assume the government of the country for the sake of its improvement. Owing, however, to the researches of Cardinal Moran and the late Father Burke, the great Dominican, it is now generally believed that no such Bull was ever issued.

Dermot McMorrough, King of Leinster, on account





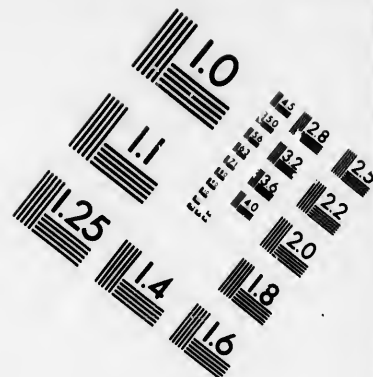
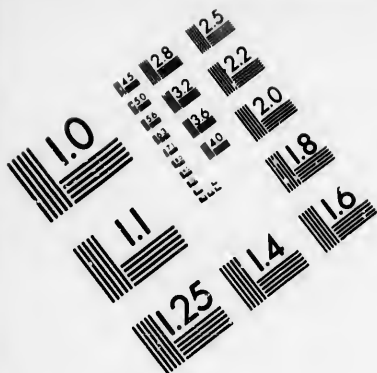
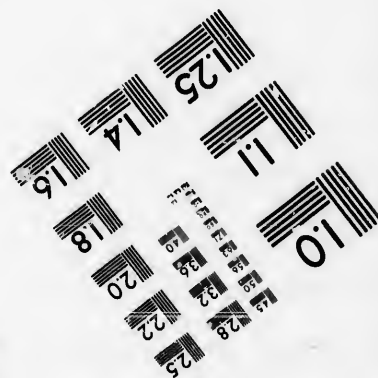
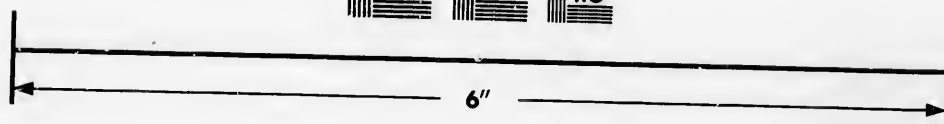
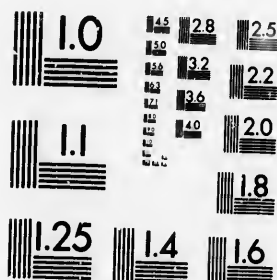


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of his misconduct, had been driven from his kingdom by the Ardriagh. He passed over to England to seek assistance from the English king. The latter was in France at the time, whither the Irish chieftain followed him. As Henry was not then ready to give assistance in person, he issued "letters-patent," granting the royal "license and favor" to any of his subjects who would lend the aid Dermot required. Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, called Strongbow from his skill in archery, and two other knights, Maurice Fitzgerald and Robert Fitzstephen, agreed to help Dermot. Strongbow was to receive Dermot's daughter in marriage, and the kingdom of Leinster on Dermot's death.

1169
A.D.

**The First
English
Colony in
Ireland.**

Fitzstephen was the first to proceed to Ireland. He landed at Barrow, near Waterford. Siege was laid to Wexford, but through the interference of the clergy peace was made. Fitzstephen received a grant of land, and thus was established the first English colony in Ireland.

1170

A.D.

Strongbow next passed over, and after an heroic defence by the citizens of Waterford, which he besieged, the city was taken and a massacre followed. On the day of the massacre Strongbow was married, the wedding cortège passing over the bodies of the dying and the dead.

Dublin was next taken; and on the death of Dermot, Strongbow became King of Leinster. His growing power alarmed Henry; but his visit to England and the taking of an oath of allegiance quieted the English king's fears.

**Strongbow
becomes
King of
Leinster.**

Next year, on the 18th of October, Henry landed

in Ireland, and held his first court in Dublin. Some of the Irish princes submitted to him, but his sovereignty was merely nominal. He gave the government of the country to his son John, whose offensive conduct towards the Irish chiefs made so many enemies he had to be recalled to England.

1171
A.D.

Henry's Oath.—On Henry's visit to Normandy in 1172, he met the Papal Legate; and having sworn on the sacred relics that he neither brought about nor desired the death of Thomas à Becket, he received full absolution from the Pope.

Henry absolved by the Pope.

Henry's Troubles: His Sons. Scotland.—Henry, now reconciled to the Pope, and with power apparently greater than ever before, might naturally expect to spend the closing days of his reign in peace and happiness. But this dream was rudely broken by the quarrels and revolt of his sons. Henry, the eldest, who had been crowned in the absence of Thomas à Becket, thought he should have something more than a mere coronation. He wished to have Normandy placed directly under his rule. This was refused, and he fled to the Court of France. There he was joined by his brothers Geoffrey and Richard, who also wanted some of their father's provinces. With the help of the King of France, and with the full concurrence of their mother, they declared war against their father. To add to the king's misery, he heard of a revolt of his barons and an invasion of England by the Scots.

Henry's Sons declare War against him.

Henry does Penance.—The king's proud heart was softened, for he looked upon these troubles as a punishment sent by God for his crimes. Crossing

over to England, he rode to Canterbury, where he did public penance before the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket. The first fruit of his humiliation and penance was seen in the defeat and capture of the Scottish king by the English army. He was not released until he acknowledged himself a vassal and his kingdom a fief under Henry. It was upon this that a later king based his claim to settle a dispute respecting the succession to the throne of Scotland.

Henry's Death.—The rebellion of Henry's sons continued. The eldest died, and Geoffrey lost his life at a tournament; but Richard still carried on the unnatural warfare. At last, when Henry found the name of his favorite son John at the head of a list of rebels whom he was asked to pardon, he said, "Now, let things go as they will, I care no more for myself or for the world." In Chinon, near Saumur, he lay down to die. When he found his end approaching he asked his attendants to carry him before the altar of the Church, where, after he had received the last Sacraments, his soul passed away.

At the Shrine of Becket.

1174 A.D.

Henry's Sons still in Rebellion.

NORMAN LAWS.

It was not until the reign of Henry II. that the Norman kings became real legislators; and to this reign belong most of the changes which are commonly ascribed to the Conqueror.

The legislative power was vested in the king, together with the Great Council of the Realm, or Royal Court, afterwards called the Parliament. This council was composed of the Archbishops, Bishops, prin-

principal Abbots, and the greater barons. The lesser barons were summoned occasionally; but representatives from counties or boroughs had no place in the Council until the reign of Henry III. The functions of this council were to grant money to the king and assist him in making the laws.

**The Great
Council of
the Realm.**

Justice was administered by the king in his select council—the king's court. Branches of this court for special cases made the beginning of our present courts of law—the Exchequer Court, Court of Common Pleas, etc., etc.

**The King's
Court.**

The occasional circuits made by the judges, as begun soon after the Conquest, were restored by Henry; and at the Council of Northampton he rendered the institution permanent and regular by dividing the kingdom into six circuits, to each of which he assigned three judges. The circuits thus defined nearly correspond with those of the present day. Appeals from these courts might be made to the king's court.

**The
Circuits.**

The old Saxon Courts of the County and the Hundred were retained; and as in them all freeholders were bound to assist the sheriff, they formed a great check on the courts of the barons.

**Other
Courts.**

The trial by ordeal was abolished by a Council of the Church, and the trial by jury was made more effective.

The Norman kings derived a fixed and independent revenue from their vast crown lands; but they also levied taxes on all who lived within their demesne. There was also the *escuage* or *scutage*, a composition paid by the barons

**The Crown
Revenues.**

who neglected to furnish the number of soldiers corresponding to their estate. This payment by money, instead of by personal services in the field, made the king master of resources which entitled him to raise and maintain an army independent of the barons—a great blow to their military power. The circuit courts stripped them of their legal jurisdiction.

There were other sources of revenue arising out of the feudal system. A *Relief* was paid to the lord by a new heir when succeeding to his fief. A *Fine upon Alienation* was paid when a tenant transferred his fief to another. An *Escheat* was a fief which reverted to the lord in consequence of the death of a tenant without heirs. A *Forfeiture* arose when a tenant failed to perform his duties to the lord or to the state. *Aids* were contributions demanded from the vassals under certain circumstances. *Wardship* was the right of the lord to the care of his tenant's person, and to the profits of his estate during his minority. The marriage of female wards was a source of revenue through the forfeiture of the sum which the guardian would have obtained for a marriage alliance, if the ward (during her minority) refused the husband proposed by her guardian.

From all benefits of the political system thus described, one class of people, the lowest, was excluded. This class was composed of the villeins, who were in fact slaves. At the conquest most of the churls or freedmen lost their liberty and were degraded into villeins. As each succeeding Norman king held the throne, this class was oppressed more and more.

**The
Villeins.**

CHAPTER II.

RICHARD I.

1189 A.D. to 1199 A.D.

Richard's Coronation: The Jews.	Richard in Palestine.
The Third Crusade.	Richard leaves Palestine.
Richard joins the King of France.	His Imprisonment.
Richard in Sicily.	His Release.
Richard in Cyprus.	Richard in England.
	Richard in France: His Death.
	His Character.

Richard's Coronation: The Jews.—Richard succeeded to the throne without opposition. His coronation took place with great pomp and ceremony. But like that of his ancestor, the Conqueror, it was marked by the massacre of inoffensive people. The Jews, of whom there were large numbers in England, came with valuable presents for the king. Some one in the crowd took offence at this. A slight disturbance led to a riot; the riot to a **Massacre of Jews.** Large numbers of the Jews were slaughtered. In the following year, at York, five hundred of them lost their lives by the burning of the castle in which they had taken refuge, and to which they set fire, perishing in the flames rather than fall into the hands of their enemies. Richard took severe measures to put down these outrages, but under the Plantagenet kings they were constantly renewed.

The Third Crusade.—Richard's ambition was not to govern England. He was a man of surpassing strength and valor. He was filled with the poetry and romance of chivalry: adventure and military glory were the chief aims of his life. The greatest

of the Crusades was about to start, and Richard could not stay at home. But to raise an army he must have money. He sold crown lands, castles, estates, titles of nobility, offices of state, everything that would bring a price. The vassalage of the King of Scotland, pledged to his father, he gave back to the Scottish king for ten thousand marks. He said he would sell even London if he could find a purchaser.

**Richard's
Efforts to
raise an
Army.**

Releasing his mother from the confinement in which she had been placed by the late king, her husband, on account of the part she took in urging on her sons against their father, he made her his regent in Normandy.¹ William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, chancellor of the kingdom, was appointed regent in England. He was a wise minister; maintained peace and order throughout the land; but, being a Frenchman, his strictness of rule may have leaned to harshness in dealing with the English people. The king's brother John took advantage of this, began to assume authority, and quietly to incite the people against the Regent.

**Richard's
Mother and
the Bishop
of Ely made
Regents.**

Richard joins the King of France.—Richard set sail from Dover with the finest armament that was ever raised in England. His troops landed in Normandy, intending to embark again at Marseilles, to which place the fleet sailed. On the plains of Vezelay, in Burgundy, the English and French armies, under Richard and Philip Augustus, King of France, came together. The united forces amounted to one hundred thousand men. At Lyons they separated, Philip going to Genoa, Richard to Marseilles.

Richard in Sicily.—They met again at Messina, in

Sicily. The late King of Sicily, William, had married Joan, Richard's sister. On the death of William, Tancred, his uncle, seized the throne, imprisoned Joan, and took all her property. Richard obliged Tancred to restore to Joan her liberty and her estates. This exercise of Richard's power seems to have given offence to Philip of France, and here began the petty jealousies between them which afterwards broke out into an open quarrel.

Richard in Cyprus.—Affairs in Cyprus caused Richard's next delay. He stopped there to punish the king of that island for injuries done to crusaders who had been shipwrecked on the coast.

Richard in Palestine.—At last, Richard, nine months after leaving England, landed in Palestine. The Crusaders, aided by Philip, were besieging Acre. Saladin, the Sultan of the Saracens, was posted on a neighboring hill with a large army, which continually harassed the besiegers. Richard's presence in the camp gave new life to the Christian soldiers, and in four days Acre fell. The ill-feeling between Richard and Philip, which began in Sicily, had been increasing. It is probable that Philip was jealous of Richard's power and popularity, and under pretence that his health required it he returned to France. He took an oath before parting from Richard, that he would not disturb the possessions of the latter. Philip's leaving had a bad effect on the Crusaders.

Philip
returns to
France.

Richard Leaves Palestine.—With what remained of the once great army, Richard marched towards Jerusalem. Saladin made an unsuccessful attempt to intercept him at Jaffa. At last the longing eyes of the Crusaders beheld the walls of the Holy City.

But the hot air of the desert, the rain and tempest, hunger and sickness, victory itself, had done their work. It was, indeed, a forlorn hope to attempt anything further. Many, in despair, had abandoned the expedition. Accordingly, Richard was obliged to come to terms with Saladin. A truce of three years was concluded—free access to the Holy Sepulchre being granted to all pilgrims. Thus ended the Third

1192
A.D.

**End of the
Third
Crusade.**

Crusade.

Richard had made many enemies in Palestine. Of his relations with Philip we have already spoken. He deeply offended Leopold, Archduke of Austria, by punishing him, it is said, for refusing to do some work on the fortifications of Ascalon, in the Holy Land. This was not forgotten.

**Richard's
Enemies.**

Richard's Imprisonment.—Fears for his safety led Richard to proceed to England in disguise. On his way across the Continent of Europe he was detected near Vienna, and fell into the hands of the Archduke Leopold. The Archduke sold him to the Emperor of Germany, who put the captive in prison.

1192
A.D.

**Affairs in
England.**

Meantime matters were in a very bad state in England. The regent, Longchamp, had to fly to the Continent; and John, supported in everything by the King of France, seized the regency. Indeed he acted as if Richard were dead. Through a letter sent by the Emperor of Germany to the King of France, it was made known that Richard was in prison. Longchamp was the first to discover the place of his master's confinement. The exiled chancellor demanded that Richard should get a hearing before the German princes in council, and

an opportunity of repelling the foolish and unjust accusations made against his conduct in the Holy Land. Richard defended himself so successfully, that the emperor agreed to release him, but only on payment of a ransom of one hundred and fifty thousand marks, a very large sum. The English people, although previous taxation had left them very little, were so anxious to see their brave king once more, that they made up the ransom, and Richard was released. A message was conveyed to John from the King of France. It was as follows: "Take care of yourself, for the devil is loose." And well might John and the King of France take care. Traitor to his brother as to his father, John deserved little mercy. He and the King of France did all in their power to induce the Emperor of Germany to keep Richard in prison.

**Richard
ransomed
by his
People.**

Richard in England.—Richard landed in England after an absence of four years. He pardoned John at the intercession of his mother, but confiscated his estates. His next wish was to punish the King of France.

**1194
A.D.**

Richard in France: His Death.—The remaining part of his reign was occupied with wars in France, sometimes against Philip, sometimes against a baron or holder of a small castle. These wars are of little or no interest. One of Richard's vassals found a treasure on his estate. According to the feudal law, one half of this belonged to Richard, who received his share. But he wanted all, as he was in constant need of money. The vassal refused to give up his portion, and was therefore besieged in his castle of Chaluz by Richard. An arrow shot from the walls gave the king a mortal

**Cause of
Richard's
Death.**

wound in the shoulder. He sent for a priest, and received the last sacraments with sentiments of deep compunction, after which he expired.

Richard's Character.—Richard, Cœur de Lion, or the Lion-hearted, was a brave and chivalrous prince; but the miseries of his kingdom, ground down as it was by heavy taxes and oppression in his absence, bore fruit in the next reign. During a reign of ten years he spent about four months in England.

CHAPTER III.

JOHN.

1199 A.D. to 1216 A.D.

John not the Heir: His Accession.

Philip takes up Arthur's Cause: Arthur's Death.

Loss of the French Provinces. The English People.

John's Quarrel with the Pope: The Interdict.

The War in France: The Magna Charta. [sults.

Broken Oaths.

John's Death.

John not the Heir: His Accession.—The rightful heir to the throne was Arthur, son of John's elder brother Geoffry. But the custom or law by which the succession lies with the elder branch of the royal family was not yet of full effect in England. John was in Normandy at the time of Richard's death. He took possession of the provinces in France, at the same time assuming the title King of England. A national council held at Northampton admitted his claim to the throne. He hurried over to England, and was crowned king.

Philip takes up Arthur's Cause: Arthur's Death.—It now suited Philip of France to oppose his old ally,

John, by taking up the cause of Arthur. War between the two kings ensued. After several years' fighting, Arthur was taken prisoner by John, and finally placed in the Castle of Rouen, where he was put to death, some say, by John's own hands. 1203
A.D.

Loss of the French Provinces.—The news of this murder filled all Europe with indignation. It gave Philip another reason for opposing John. And as the latter held several provinces in France, he was, in accordance with feudal law, summoned by Philip to appear before him, as a vassal before his over-lord, to defend himself against the charge of murder. John refused. Philip then seized on all the English possessions in France except Guienne; and John, who was spending his days idly in Rouen, fled to England. 1206
A.D.

The English People.—The loss of Normandy did much to unite the two races in England—Saxons and Normans. The latter had to make a choice between Normandy and England. Choosing the country of their adoption, and being thus cut off from the Continent, the Normans of England no longer held aloof from their Saxon fellow-subjects. The union which now took place, making the *English* people, brought about important results which will be noticed later in the present reign.

**The Saxon
and Norman
Races
united.**

John's Quarrel with the Pope: The Interdict.—While Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, lived, he tried hard to keep John from going astray, generally with success. The Archbishop took the office of chancellor that he might the more easily keep John in a semblance of order. But the Arch-

bishop died, and the events attending the election of his successor showed John's true nature.

The monks of Canterbury selected as Walter's successor their sub-prior Reginald. This was done without consulting the Bishops, or the higher ecclesiastical authorities. The choice did not please John. The monks had chosen an Archbishop who would not permit him to rob the Church. He then selected an Archbishop of his own, John de Grey, Bishop of Norwich; though there can be no doubt that if the Pope confirmed the appointment of de Grey, the new Archbishop would be as firm in upholding the rights of the Church as was Thomas à Becket. John obliged the monks to go through the ceremony of electing de Grey.

**The Monks
of Canter-
bury
coerced.**

Innocent III. was at that time Pope. He was one of the greatest and wisest pontiffs who have filled the chair of Peter. When he heard the news from England, he sent a message to John informing him that neither de Grey nor Reginald would be Archbishop of Canterbury, but that he would himself make a proper choice. And that choice was Cardinal Stephen Langton, an Englishman then living in Rome, and one of the most learned and most pious men of his time. His name will ever shine out in English history as the name of one to whom is mainly due the credit of wresting the liberties of the people of England from the tyrant, John, and placing them on immortal record in the Magna Charta. An eminent modern historian says of Langton: "Personally, a better choice could not have been made; for Stephen was a man who, by sheer weight of learning and holiness of life, had risen to

**Stephen
Langton.**

the dignity of Cardinal, and whose after-career placed him in the front rank of English patriots."

John was very angry when he heard what the Pope had done, and said that he would never allow Stephen to enter England. Then the Pope laid the kingdom under an Interdict. This means that no one but the priests were allowed to hear Mass; no one was allowed to go

The Kingdom laid under an Interdict.

**1208
A.D.**

to Confession or receive Holy Communion unless there was danger of death; no ceremonies of religion were permitted to the dead; no bells were rung; baptism alone was administered, and that in private; the crucifixes and images were covered as we see them after Passion Sunday.

**to
1214
A.D.**

The loss of the help and comfort of religion filled the people with horror; but John was heedless and held to his stubborn course. Next year the Pope excommunicated John; even this had no effect. The infuriated king confiscated the lands of the clergy, subjected the latter to the Royal Courts, and treated them badly in many ways. He carried on expeditions to Scotland and Ireland, and acted in every way as a man with a hardened heart. Then the Pope told the barons and the people that they were no longer under obligation to obey John as king; and the Holy Father, looking on John as no longer a Christian king, offered the English Crown to Philip for his son Louis. The Pope did not mean Louis to be king of England unless there was nothing better to be done; and he sent a special legate, Pandulf, to try to bring John to reason. John was now thoroughly frightened. He discovered that the English people almost to a man were against him—clergy, barons, and freemen; and

John's Persecutions.

at once he made total submission to the Pope through the Legate Pandulf. Stating that he did so with the consent of the barons, he swore fealty to the Pope as his liege or feudal lord, and granted to "God, to the Holy Apostles Peter and Paul, to Pope Innocent and his successors, the kingdoms of England and Ireland." Pandulf, in the name of the Pope, as John's liege lord, gave him back the Crown of England to hold as the Pope's vassal.

John sub-
mits to the
Pope.

Many historians are unsparing in their condemnation of the Pope and of John for this transaction.

Exercise of
the Pope's
Power
justified.

But it must be remembered that the Pope was looked up to by *all*, not alone as the *spiritual* lord of Christendom, but as the *temporal* lord also; and this power of the Pope's was always used for the restraining of tyranny in rulers and the enforcing of obedience in those ruled. The true spirit of the Church and the Holy Father, and the *good* which came to England from John's so much abused vassalage, are seen in the fact that Stephen, now Papal Legate, was the leader of the movement to which England owes Magna Charta.

War in France.—The French army intended for the invasion of England at once broke up; but on its advance to Flanders, the Earl of that country objected to its approach. Philip, in consequence, ravaged the country up to the very walls of Ghent. John, who in his stubborn disobedience to the Pope had purchased the alliance of the Earl of Flanders, came to the help of his ally. Five hundred English ships fell on the French fleet which was accompanying the French army along the coast,

John and
his Allies.

and totally destroyed it. John himself landed in Poitou, another ally obtained under circumstances similar to the last. The Emperor of Germany invaded France from the north. John's allies gave battle to Philip at Bouvines between Lille and Tournay. On the fortunes of Philip hung the fortunes of English freedom. The allies were overthrown. John heard this in the midst of his triumphs in the south. He returned baffled and humiliated to his island kingdom.

1214
A.D.

Magna Charta.—From the moment of his landing in England, Archbishop Langton had assumed the old constitutional position of the Primate—that of champion of the old English customs and law against the personal despotism of the king. As Anselm withstood William Rufus, and Theobald rescued England from the lawlessness of Stephen, so Langton prepared to withstand, and rescue his country from the tyranny of John.

Langton as
Primate.

The few months that followed John's return to England showed him that he stood alone in the land; and that the demands of the barons, so often made and as often refused, must be granted at last. They asked for the observance of the charter of Henry I., and the laws of Edward the Confessor. These precious documents had been found by the Primate, and by him placed in the hands of the barons. At Easter they gathered in arms and renewed their demands. "Why do they not ask for my kingdom?" cried John in a burst of passion. On his refusal to comply, the whole country rose as one man. He summoned mercenaries and appealed to the Pope; but all was of no avail. He then called the barons to a conference. On one bank

The De-
mands of
the Barons.

of the Thames between Staines and Windsor the king encamped; the barons covered the marshy flat on the other bank, still known as Runnymede.

1215
A.D.

The delegates met on the island between. The Great Charter was discussed, agreed to, and signed—all in a single day. It was modelled on that of Henry I., but went much farther. The great rule, clearly laid down, that no freeman was to be taken and in any way punished save by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land, was one among many important provisions.

John forced
to sign the
Great
Charter.

Broken Oaths: John's Death.—John was bound by solemn oaths to keep the Charter; but oaths had no binding power over him. The barons heard that he had raised an army of mercenaries and was laying waste the counties of the north. His ravages are compared to those of his ancestor, the Conqueror, in the same part of the kingdom. The barons called on Louis, now king of France, to come to their assistance. He landed at Thanet. John marched southwards to meet him; but in crossing the marshes of Lincoln, he lost, by a sudden rising of the tide, the carriages containing his baggage, treasures, and royal robes. He took this loss so much to heart, that he was seized by a fever, which soon showed fatal symptoms. He was brought to Newark, where, having made his will, he sent for his confessor; and died three days afterwards, bequeathing his throne to his son Henry, a boy of nine years of age.

1216
A.D.

Last Struggle
between
John and
the Barons.

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CHAPTER IV.

HENRY III.

1216 A.D. to 1272 A.D.

Pembroke Regent.

Louis holds London.

Great Charter ratified: The Result.

Battle of Lincoln: Departure of Louis.

De Burgh and Des Roches.

Discontent of the Barons: Barons' War.

Provisions of Oxford: Mad Parliament: Arbitration of the French King.

Battle of Lewes.

Origin of Parliament.

Battle of Evesham: Death of de Montfort.

Death and Character of Henry.

Pembroke Regent.—On account of the youth of the new king, the Earl of Pembroke, a wise and good man, was chosen "Protector" of the king and kingdom.

Louis holds London.—Louis of France, who, it will be remembered, came over on the invitation of the barons to help them against the tyranny of John, still remained in England, and acted as one who had come to stay. Very probably he wished for a share, if not the whole, of the kingdom for his trouble. He held London, and many of the barons were on his side.

Great Charter Ratified: The Result.—Pembroke first ratified the Great Charter. Heading the list of distinguished men who advised the king to agree to this was the Papal Legate. Pembroke and the king acted wisely, for the barons who had opposed John had now no reason to quarrel with his son, since they had gained all they wanted. Partly through this, and partly on account of the insolence and rapacity of the French army, a large number gathered round the young king.

The Barons
gather
round the
young King
Henry.

1217 A.D. Battle of Lincoln: Departure of Louis.—In a battle fought at Lincoln, the French army was defeated; and next year the French fleet met with a similar disaster. Louis, now besieged in London, was glad to accept terms of peace, quit England, and return to France.

De Burgh and Des Roches.—On the death of Pembroke, the regency passed into the hands of a worthy successor, Hubert de Burgh, who for eight years managed the affairs of the kingdom with prudence and vigor. His able and impartial government did not, however, please the king. De Burgh was dismissed, and Peter des Roches, a native of Poitou, and at this time Bishop of Winchester, was appointed in his stead. Then began that course of favoritism towards foreigners, for which this reign is remarkable and which caused much trouble. Peter's countrymen flocked to England, receiving the best gifts and offices which the Crown had to bestow. This gave great offence to the barons, and drove them to the verge of open rebellion. Henry was obliged to dismiss des Roches and remove all foreigners. But his marriage with Eleanor of Provence led to a renewal of the old abuses.

Discontent of the Barons: Barons' War.—The barons, seeing that all the good things in the kingdom were given to strangers, could bear it no longer. They resolved to unite for the correction of abuses. This led to what is known as the Barons' War, and to this war is due the next great step made by the people towards self-government—the establishment of a thoroughly representative parliament. The great leader in this movement was the king's

Another
Great Step
towards
Self-government.

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brother-in-law, Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, one well fitted to take the foremost place in such a struggle.

Provisions of Oxford: Mad Parliament: Arbitration of the French King.—The new determination on the part of the barons first showed itself at a council held in London, which they attended fully armed. The king, seeing that matters looked serious, summoned a great council to meet at Oxford to hear the demands of the barons. Here they appeared in arms once more. This assembly, styled by the friends of the king the "Mad Parliament," made demands known as the Provisions of Oxford. The first provision was the appointment of a council of twenty-four—one half chosen by the king, 1258
A.D. Gist of the
Provisions. the other half chosen by the barons—to reform the government. The Justiciary, the Chancellor, and the guardians of the king's castles swore to act only with the advice and assent of this council. The first two great officers, with the Treasurer, were to give to it an account of their proceedings at the end of the year. Sheriffs were to be appointed annually; and no fees were to be exacted for the administration of justice in their courts. These Parliaments were to assemble in every year, whether summoned by the king or not. The "Commonalty" was to "elect twelve honest men who shall come to the Parliaments and other times when occasion shall be, when the king or his council shall send for them, to treat of the wants of the king and of his kingdom; and the commonalty shall hold as established what these twelve men shall do."

A royal proclamation in the English tongue—the first in that tongue, which has reached us—ordered

the observance of these provisions. Henry did this very reluctantly. Gradually the council drew to itself the whole royal power; and further provisions made the following year showed a new danger which threatened the liberties of the people—the establishment of a governing aristocracy. Between the

**Observance
of the Pro-
visions
ordered by
Royal Pro-
clamation.**

king on the one hand, and the barons on the other, the rights of the people were in danger of being lost sight of. In vain Simon used every effort to bring about true reform in the government; in vain the support he received from the king's son Edward. Henry soon showed that he disregarded the "Pro-

**The Provi-
sions disre-
garded by
the King,
and finally
annulled.**

visions," and a war between himself and the barons seemed imminent. A compromise was agreed on, that the question should be referred to the King of France. He decided in favor of Henry, thus annulling the provisions. This decision is

1264 A.D. known as the *Mise* (the *seiding* or decision) of Amiens.

Battle of Lewes.—Although de Montfort was not favorable to all the provisions, he saw enough in them to meet his approval; and he therefore joined the barons in the civil war now begun. He, however, led an independent

**De Mont-
fort.**

party made up largely of the people. At the battle of Lewes, in Sussex, Henry was defeated and taken prisoner by de Montfort. Edward surrendered himself next day. This victory placed de Montfort at the head of the state. By a scheme devised in the Parliament which immediately followed the battle of Lewes, the supreme power was vested in the king, assisted by a council.

Origin of Parliament.—In December a new Parlia-

ment was summoned to Westminster; but the weakness of the patriotic party among the barons was shown by the fact that they numbered but twenty-three in a House of one hundred and forty-three. It was probably the sense of his weakness that forced de Montfort to call representatives from the cities and boroughs to take their places in Parliament with the knights of the shire, the barons, and the bishops. Accordingly in January, 1265, there came together the first assembly which represented all classes of the English people.

**The First
Representa-
tive Assem-
bly.**

**1265
A.D.**

Battle of Evesham : Death of de Montfort.—Shortly after this Parliament brought its sittings to a close, Simon's power began to decay. Some of the barons deserted him. Edward escaped from prison, and the royalists flocked to his standard. A battle between the forces of Simon and those of Edward was fought at Evesham, in which Simon's army was overthrown, and Simon and his son slain. The barons who supported de Montfort still held out; but being defeated in several engagements with the king, they soon laid down their arms and accepted what terms Edward felt inclined to give them. Thus ended the Barons' War of the reign of Henry III.; and, to all appearance, with the loss of every principle for which they so long and so bravely contended.

**1265
A.D.**

**End of the
Barons'
War.**

Death of Henry.—Peace being restored to the nation, and Henry III. firmly fixed on his throne, Edward proceeded to the Holy Land to take up the cause of the Cross. Very soon after his departure the king died, worn out by the troubles of a reign exceeded in length only by that of George III.

**1272
A.D.**

Henry's Character.—Henry was gentle, religious,

and kind-hearted; but he was too weak to rule in such stormy days. Thus led to give up much of his government to others, he suffered by the evils which so often follow such weakness.

CHAPTER V.

EDWARD I.

1272 A.D. to 1307 A.D.

Edward takes Possession of the Throne.	Baliol asserts His Independence.
Internal Affairs.	Wallace and Bruce.
Conquest of Wales.	Death of the King.
Scottish Succession: Baliol.	Constitutional History.
Wars in France.	

Edward takes Possession of the Throne.—Edward was in Palestine when his father died. His conduct in England up to the time of the battle of Evesham was not such as deserved the good-will of the people.

Edward's Nobility of Character. But with the victory of Evesham, his innate nobility of character manifested itself. Severing himself from the brutal triumph of the royalist party, he secured fair terms for the conquered. These were his last acts before going to the Holy Land; and the remembrance of them secured for him, though absent, the recognition of his right to the throne. Henry died in November, 1272; Edward returned to England in 1274, having heard of his father's death only when he had reached Sicily on his way home.

Internal Affairs.—Internal affairs first claimed Edward's attention. In a Parliament held at Westminster he took measures for the due administration of

1275
A.D.

justice, and for the suppression of robbery and speculation. The statute of Gloucester made provision for protecting the royal demesne and revenue. The statute of *mortmain* forbade the making over of lands and tenements to religious bodies without the consent of the king. In the same year Edward went to France, was confirmed in possession of Guienne, and relinquished all claim to Normandy.

New
Statutes.

Conquest of Wales.—It will be remembered that at the time of the Saxon Conquest the larger part of the conquered Britons settled in Wales. Many kings of England had tried to subdue the country, and prevent the constant incursions made by the Welsh on the English frontier; but they, retiring to their mountain fastnesses, set the invaders at defiance. The Welsh princes had, however, come to recognize the English king as their feudal lord, and on such terms Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, had received pardon for his adherence to de Montfort. But he proved faithless to his promises. Edward attacked Wales on the south, east, and north, and forced the Welsh prince to surrender. Llewellyn came to London, did homage to Edward, and was married to a daughter of de Montfort.

Llewellyn.

David, Llewellyn's brother, was not satisfied with this peace, and encouraged by the prophecy of Merlin, the Welsh sage, raised the standard of opposition to England. In the war which followed, Llewellyn was slain, and David taken prisoner. The execution of David completed the conquest of Wales.

1282
A D.

Edward took great pains to settle the government of the country wisely and quietly. His eldest son was born in Carnarvon Castle, and received the title

Prince of Wales, a title still borne by the eldest son of the reigning sovereign.

Scottish Succession: Baliol.—Edward's attention was next called to Scotland. The throne of that country became vacant by the death of Alexander III. His granddaughter, Margaret, daughter of the King of Norway, was the next heir, but she died on the voyage from Norway to England. Thirteen competitors for the throne now appeared; the claims of two, John Baliol and Robert Bruce, were superior. Baliol was grandson of the eldest daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, brother of William the Lion; Bruce was the son of the second daughter. The Parliament of Scotland was unable to decide the question, and it was referred to Edward. The

Grounds of
Edward's
alleged
Right to
Interfere.

grounds on which he claimed the right to interfere are as follows: We have learned that William the Lion acknowledged the kingdom a fief and himself a vassal of the English King Henry II., and that Richard sold his over-lordship to the Scottish king for money to fit out his expedition to the Holy Land. Notwithstanding this, the Scotch kings repeatedly did homage to the English kings, but with a distinct protest that it was only for lands in fief within the realm of England. The English kings accepted the homage, but with the counter-protest that it was rendered to them as over-lords of Scotland. Without discussing these claims, it may be said that every one in Scotland and out of it recognized Edward as having at least some of the powers of an over-lord, and we find that even before Margaret's death appeals had been made to him on the subject of the succession. Edward accordingly took possession of Scotland; its castles

were given over to him ; its bishops and nobles swore homage to him. He decided in favor of Baliol, and gave him the Crown, which, however, was to be held by him as vassal of England. For a time there was peace in Scotland.

Edward
takes
Possession
of Scotland.

Wars in France.—A quarrel between a number of French and English sailors led to a war with France. In a naval engagement, the result of a challenge sent by the English to the French fleet, the latter was totally defeated, and the whole of the vessels were taken to England as prizes. The King of France summoned Edward, as vassal for the Duchy of Guienne, to answer for the conduct of the English sailors. Edward refused to obey the summons, and, in consequence, Guienne was declared forfeited to France. Edward at once prepared to take back Guienne and punish the French king. But his means of raising money gave great dissatisfaction to the people. The Jews once more came in for a large share of persecution.

1293
A.D.

1294
A.D.

Guienne
declared
forfeited to
France.

Before Edward had completed his arrangement for the expedition, he had to attend to important matters at home. First, Wales rose in revolt ; but this was soon quelled.

Baliol Asserts His Independence.—Since the days of William the Lion, no appeal from a Scottish king's court to that of his over-lord had been allowed, and the judicial independence of Scotland had been expressly acknowledged by treaty. The right of appeal Edward determined to enforce, and Baliol at first gave way. The resentment of his barons and his people forced him to change his policy ; and though

he appeared at Westminster, he refused to answer an appeal save by the advice of his Parliament. To add to the difficulty, France and Scotland were becoming more and more friendly towards each other. Edward called on some of the Scotch barons to aid him in his war with France. This they refused. Matters at last

**Increasing
Friendliness
between
France and
Scotland.**

came to a crisis by Baliol's refusal to come to London, and by his invasion of the English border in favor of the French. Edward at once marched into Scotland, crushing all opposition. Baliol surrendered, and was cast into an English prison. Scotland became a dependency of England, Warenne, Earl of Surrey, being appointed governor. Acts of oppression by the English soldiers who were left to keep possession so en-

**1297
A.D.**

**Sir William
Wallace.**

raged the Scottish people, that their feelings were stirred up against the strangers. A daring leader was found in Sir William Wallace, who, at the battle of Stirling, defeated the English army under Surrey, and drove them out of the kingdom. Wallace was proclaimed "Guardian" of Scotland. The defeat of Surrey brought Edward into the field. He gave battle to Wallace at Falkirk, defeating the Scotch army, of which twelve thousand were slain. Scotland was once more at the mercy of the English king. Wallace wandered about for some time as an outlaw, but was finally captured and was hanged, drawn, and quartered.

**1298
A.D.**

**Robert
Bruce.**

The standard of independence was once more raised by Robert Bruce, grandson of Baliol's rival. He put to death the only representative of the house of Baliol, and had himself crowned at Scone.

Death of the King.—Edward's anger was aroused;

and marching an army as far as Carlisle, he sent part of it into Scotland. This defeated Bruce in Perthshire. The king was now seized by a mortal illness, but, pressing onward, he reached Burgh-on-the-Sands, about five miles from Carlisle. Here he died, bequeathing to his son the task of conquering Scotland. His last commands were that his body should be carried at the head of the army on its march through that country, and that it should not be interred until the conquest was complete. This command was not obeyed ; he was buried at Westminster soon after.

1307
A.D.

Edward's
Dying
Commands.

Constitutional History.—The most important of the constitutional changes of this reign is that article added to the Great Charter, "prohibiting the king from raising taxes save by the general consent of the realm." A great share of the constitutional reforms is due to Archbishop Winchelsea, who opposed the exaggerated pretensions of the king and protected the cause of the people.

CHAPTER VI.

EDWARD II.

A.D. 1307 to A.D. 1327.

Edward, King: Abandons the
Scottish War.
Gaveston's Rule.
The Ordainers.
Battle of Bannockburn.
Independence of Scotland.

Bruce in Ireland.
The Spensers.
Queen Isabella : Edward De-
throned : His Death.
His Character

Edward, King: Abandons the Scotch War.—Edward, son of the last sovereign, was proclaimed King at Carlisle. He made a show of advancing into Scot-

land ; but he had not his father's warlike spirit, and, disregarding that father's dying commands, he gave up the war and returned to England.

Gaveston's Rule.—Attached to Edward's household while he was Prince of Wales was a young man named Piers Gaveston, son of a Gascon knight. The influence which he exercised over the young Edward was so bad that it led to his banishment by Edward's father, who at the same time exacted a promise from his son that the evil companion would never be recalled. But no sooner had the prince taken possession of the throne than he brought the favorite back, loaded him with honors, and made him Earl of Cornwall. When the King went to France to marry Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair, king of that country, Gaveston was appointed regent of England. His conduct during this time, his insolence, his taunts and defiance, drove the barons to fury. On the king's return to England they demanded the banishment of Gaveston—a request which Edward could not refuse.

**Gaveston's
Evil
Character.**

**Gaveston
banished,
but ap-
pointed
Lieutenant-
Governor
of Ireland.**

But the exile of the favorite was not an unhappy one. His friend and patron, the king, made a comfortable settlement for him. Accordingly we find the banished earl appointed lieutenant-governor of Ireland.

The barons, to show their feelings on this occasion, refused a grant of supply until redress had been made for the grievances of which the Commons complained.

The great principle on which the whole English constitution rests—that the redress of grievances should precede the grant of aid to the Crown—was

established by Edward's reluctant assent to the demands of the Parliament. But the barons, on their

1309
A.D.

side, yielded so far as to consent to Gaveston's return.

The Ordainers.—He came back unchanged. He was the Gaveston of old ; and in a few months the barons were again in arms. A Return of
Gaveston. standing committee made up of bishops, earls, and barons, called "The Ordainers," was appointed for the government of the realm during the coming year. Parliament was to be called at least once a year. The king was obliged to accept certain "ordinances of reform," among the rest the "observance of charters," and the "banishment of evil counsellors." Gaveston was again banished, but only to be again 1312
A.D. recalled. The barons once more took up arms under the Earl of Lancaster, first cousin of the king. They seized Gaveston and beheaded Gaveston
beheaded. him on Black-low hill near Warwick Castle. They then proceeded to Westminster Hall, where, through a pretended submission, they received the king's pardon.

Battle of Bannockburn, etc.—A final effort to conquer Scotland was made by Edward ; but 1314
A.D. the defeat of the English at Bannockburn, near Stirling, by the Scotch under Bruce, Indepen-
dence of
Scotland. established the independence of Scotland.

This was the most signal overthrow inflicted on the English since the days of the Norman Conquest.

Bruce in Ireland.—The success of Bruce led him to help his kinsmen of the Celtic race—the Irish—in their struggles against English oppression. Accordingly he sent his brother, Edward Bruce, to Ireland with six thousand of the veterans of Bannockburn. Ulster and Connaught were soon brought under his sway and he was proclaimed king. He marched

southward, success still attending him. But again the Irish were their own worst enemies. Dissension

**Dissensions
among the
Irish, and
Death of
Bruce.**

**1318
A.D.**

once more arose among them; and Bruce did not receive from the Irish chiefs that help which he expected, and which should have been given to him. His brother Robert came over with reinforcements, but the cause was already lost. At the battle of Faughard near Dundalk, Edward Bruce was slain and his head sent to Edward II. to London.

The Earl of Lancaster now held supreme power in England, although Edward made several attempts to throw off the yoke of the barons. He quelled an insurrection in Wales, and even proposed a new invasion of Scotland. He concluded a two years' truce with that country. This was easier for him than a war.

The Spensers.—Edward did not take warning by the fate of his first favorite, for we now find him choosing another. This was Hugh le Despenser or Spenser. Both father and son became the close friends of the king. Once more the barons interfered, and in Parliament assembled ordered that the favorites be removed. The king had borne a good deal, and did not feel inclined to give way to his barons on the present occasion. He resented their action; and call-

**War be-
tween Ed-
ward and
the Barons.
Lancaster
executed.**

**1322
A.D.**

ing together an army, he marched against the Earl of Lancaster, who, having formed an alliance with the Scotch, was proceeding northwards on the advance of the royal army. At Borough-bridge his forces were dispersed, and he was beheaded in sight of his castle of Pontefract. His execution was followed by that of many of his adherents. The Parliament at

York annulled the proceedings against the Spensers, and repealed the greater part of the "ordinances," thus placing control in the king's hands once more.

Queen Isabella: Edward Dethroned: His Death.—

But a new danger threatened the king. The Queen had gone to France to bring about a treaty between the two countries now on the verge of war. Representing to Edward that the presence of their son in France would help matters very much, she gained the king's consent to the proposed visit.

Isabella then joined the secret conspiracies of the barons against the king. Edward

**Conspiracy
against
Edward.**

repeatedly asked her and his son to return, but the excuse she usually made was that she could not come to England until the Spensers were banished. She did come, however, before long, and joined the king's enemies, foremost among whom were his brothers, the earls of Kent and Norfolk. Edward, deserted on every hand, fled. He attempted to reach

Ireland, but was driven by bad weather to the coast of Wales, where he was seized by the new Earl of Lancaster, who held him prisoner until Parliament would decide his

**Edward
flees, but is
captured
and imprisoned.**

fate. That decision was an act passed for his deposition, an act which he was compelled to sign. His son was proclaimed king as Edward III. The unfortunate Edward II. was carried from castle to castle, and at last in Berkely Castle he was cruelly put to death.

**1327
A.D.**

**1327
A.D.**

His Character.—He paid dearly for the mistakes of his reign—the favoritism which so much offended the barons, the neglect of his duty as king. He was not cruel or tyrannical, and we feel inclined to pity him, for his whole reign of twenty years was a very unhappy one.

CHAPTER VII.

EDWARD III.

1327 A.D. to 1377 A.D.

Edward's Minority.

Scotch War.

Mortimer.

Edward Rules.

Internal Affairs.

Scotland: Edward Baliol.

Edward's Claims to the French Throne.

War with France.

Battle of Cressy.

Scotland: Battle of Neville's Cross.

Siege of Calais.

Plague: Statute of Laborers.

Battle of Poitiers: Treaty of Bretigny.

Spain: Death of the Black Prince.

Death of the King.

Constitutional History.

Edward's Minority.—Edward III. was but fifteen years of age when he ascended the throne. The Parliament which met immediately after his coronation appointed a council of regency with Lancaster at its head; but the real rulers were Isabella and her friend and favorite, Mortimer; or, rather, the real ruler was Mortimer.

Scotch War.—Edward showed early that warlike spirit for which he was afterwards distinguished. Notwithstanding the truce which had been made between Scotland and England, a Scotch army crossed the border. Edward marched against them, but his search for them was long and weary. When he did come up with them, he found them entrenched in an unassailable position. No battle was fought. The Scotch army stole away one dark night, and Edward was left to return to England. By the advice of Mortimer, he made an inglorious peace with Scotland, resigning all claim to the lordship set up by Edward I., acknowledging the independence of Scotland, and restoring the regalia. To

1327
A.D.No Battle
fought.1328
A.D.

confirm the treaty (sometimes called the treaty of Northampton) a marriage was arranged between Jane, sister of Edward III., and David II. of Scotland.

Mortimer.—On Mortimer was placed all the blame for this most distasteful treaty, and it prepared the way for his overthrow. He had taken the title Earl of March, and put on all the state of a king. The first attempts against his power were unsuccessful. The Earl of Lancaster, who had risen in revolt, was forced into submission; and the king's uncle, the Earl of Kent, was put to death.

Edward Rules.—Edward saw that it was time to interfere and assert his kingly right. Seizing Mortimer in Nottingham Castle, he had him beheaded at Tyburn. Isabella was imprisoned for life. 1330 A.D.

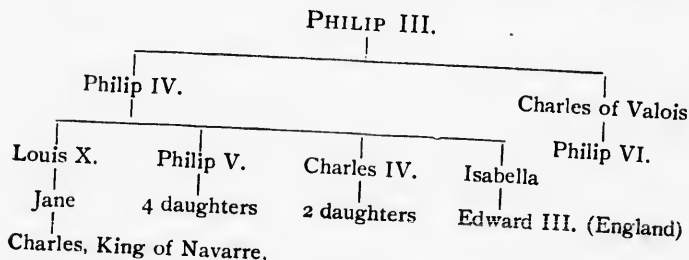
Internal Affairs.—Edward's first care was to restore good government throughout the country; and, to free his hands for another war with Scotland, he made peace with France.

War with Scotland: Edward Baliol.—Many English and Scotch nobles held estates in both countries, and the settlement of their claims caused much dissatisfaction among them. The discontent of English nobles soon brought Edward Baliol on the scene. He was the son of John Baliol mentioned in the reign of Edward I. With a few of the discontented English nobles, he landed an army on the coast of Fife, defeated the Scotch who attempted to oppose his progress, and was crowned king at Scone. David fled to France. Edward, King of England, had given no aid to this expedition; but he took advantage of it by demanding and obtaining from Baliol an acknowledgment of the vassalage of Scotland to the 1332 A.D.

Baliol
crowned
King.
David
Bruce flees
to France.

English king. The Scotch nobles rose in arms and drove Baliol across the border. Edward came to the help of his vassal; and meeting the Scotch army under Douglas at Halidon Hill, near Berwick, defeated it with great slaughter, Douglas being slain. Once more Baliol was placed on the Scottish throne. He gave the Lowlands to Edward as a return for his aid. For three years the Scotch nobles who adhered to the house of Bruce persisted in their efforts to overthrow Baliol; but with Edward's aid he crushed all opposition. At last a war with France drew Edward away from Scotland. Baliol thus losing his chief support had to take refuge in England; and David Bruce returned to his kingdom, which soon included the Lowlands once more.

Edward's Claim to the Throne of France.—And now began the war with France; a war which, with varying fortunes for both countries, continued for a century, and is sometimes called the "Hundred Years' War." The help given by the French to the Scotch in the late war gave Edward an excuse for urging his claim to the throne of France, now held by Philip VI. as successor of Charles IV. The nature of that claim will be best shown by the following table:



It will be seen that if the succession were to descend through males alone, Philip VI. was the rightful heir after the death of Charles IV. The Salic law, which excluded females from the throne, had for a long time prevailed in France, and had shut out Jane, daughter of Louis X., who was succeeded by his brother, Philip V. Then the question arose whether a female, though herself not eligible for the throne, might not transmit her right to a male heir. Were even this granted, there was a better claim than Edward's, that of Charles, King of Navarre. We must therefore conclude that Edward's claim to the throne of France had not a shadow of right. Besides, he had already acknowledged Philip's sovereignty by doing him homage for the possession of Guienne. The only reason, therefore, that can be assigned for this war on France is that Edward desired to punish the French nation, or wished for conquest pure and simple.

**Nature of
the Claim.**

**Edward's
Claim not
well
founded,**

War with France.—Edward crossed over to Flanders, a country friendly to England; and next year he invaded France, but only to retire. In the year following he again crossed over. Philip attempted to prevent his landing, but in a naval battle in the harbor of Sluys, on the coast of Flanders, the French fleet was defeated. The campaign which followed was as fruitless as the former one, although aid from a large party in Flanders was given to Edward; and he was glad to make a two years' truce with Philip.

**1338
A.D.**

**Fruitless
Campaigns.**

**1340
A.D.**

Battle of Cressy.—Edward had now to fall back on the resources of England; but the Parliament, dissatisfied with his former methods of raising sup-

plies, before granting him any further help, established the all-important principle of the responsibility to itself of the great officers of state. The two years' truce had expired, and a disputed succession in Brittany gave Edward an opportunity for renewing the war. One of the claimants for the duchy did homage to Philip, the other to Edward, so the latter went to

**Edward
lands at La
Hogue with
Thirty
Thousand
Men.**

1346
A.D.

**The French
routed.**

**The Lesson
taught at
Cressy.**

the aid of his vassal. With a force of thirty thousand men he landed at La Hogue; and, ravaging the country, proceeded northwards towards Flanders. He crossed the rivers Seine and Somme, escaping the necessity of giving battle to the immense French army which was pursuing him. Having established communication with his friends in the north, he halted at the little village of Cressy, and there waited the coming of the French. Here, with a force of thirty thousand men, but intrenched in a magnificent position, he gave battle to the French army, which numbered one hundred and twenty thousand men. The battle went steadily against the French; at last Philip himself fled from the field; the defeat became a rout; twelve hundred French knights and thirty thousand footmen, a number equal to the whole English army, lay dead on the field. In this battle, Edward, Prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, from the color of his armor, then only sixteen years of age, greatly distinguished himself. "The lesson which England had learned at Bannockburn, she taught the world at Cressy. The whole social and political fabric of the Middle Ages rested on a military base, and its base was suddenly withdrawn. The churl had struck down the noble; the bondsmen

proved more than a match, in sheer hard fighting, for the knight. From the day of Cressy, feudalism tottered slowly but surely to its grave."

Scotland: Battle of Neville's Cross.—Edward's glory, thus begun, continued with undiminished lustre. A few months after the battle of Cressy, a Scotch army under David invaded England. Philippa, Edward's queen, put herself at the head of an English army, which met the

**David Bruce
a Prisoner.**

Scotch at Neville's Cross, near Durham, completely routed them, and carried David prisoner to London. **1346 A.D.**

Siege of Calais.—Edward's great aim was to save English commerce in the Channel from the ravages of the pirates. Calais was the great headquarters of these sea-robbers; and when within a week of the victory at Cressy Edward laid siege to Calais, he had a double purpose—to root out the pirates, and to have some place on the European coast as a base of operations against France. After a year's siege, and on the failure of Philip to relieve the garrison, they were starved into surrender. **1346 A.D.** The native population was banished; an English colony and garrison were planted there; and for upwards of two centuries Calais remained in possession of England, its trade and commerce making it an important place. A truce of eight years, "forced on both countries by sheer exhaustion," was agreed to. The defeat of a Spanish pirate fleet made England mistress of the Channel.

**Edward's
Aim.**

**An English
Colony and
Garrison
planted in
Calais.**

The Plague: Statute of Laborers.—In 1348-9 a fearful plague called the "Black Death" swept over Europe, and carried off more than half the inhabitants of England. Laborers became scarce and wages

1349 rose. The celebrated "Statute of Laborers" was
 A.D. passed by Parliament, fixing the rate of hire at the
 old figure, and forbidding laborers to move from one
 county to another.

Battle of Poitiers: Treaty of Bretigny.—War with

1355 France was resumed. Several reasons are assigned
 A.D. for this; but both countries were so anxious for a
 renewal of hostilities, a very slight pretext was all-
 sufficient. The hero of this war is the Black Prince;

**The Black
 Prince.**

but his conduct and motives are not cred-
 itable to him. Love of plunder for himself
 and his followers marked the campaign;
 and it was on an expedition of this nature that he was
 1356 met at Poitiers by the French army under John, the son
 A.D. and successor of Philip VI. The victory of Cressy was
 repeated; many noble prisoners were taken by the Eng-
 lish, among the rest, John, who was carried in triumph
 to London. A two-years' truce was agreed to, but
 there was no peace for France. The defeated soldiers

**No Peace
 for France.**

turned into bands of robbers; the regency
 appointed in the absence of John was unable
 to save the country; and the people of
 Paris rose against the Crown. Edward again invaded
 France, but both nations were at last worn out. By the
 1360 treaty of Bretigny, called the "Great Peace," France
 A.D. agreed that John should pay three millions of crowns
 for his ransom. Edward gave up his claim

**Terms of
 the Treaty.**

to the throne of France, but kept posses-
 sion of Calais and his duchy of Aquitaine,
 which included Gascony, Guienne, Poitou, and Sain-
 tonge. John was allowed to return to his kingdom
 for the purpose of raising the ransom, but, failing
 1364 to do so, he, for the sake of honor, came back to Eng-
 A.D. land, where he died.

Spain: Death of the Black Prince.—The Black Prince ruled in Aquitaine; and from a mistaken sense of honor he undertook an expedition to Spain to replace on the throne of Castile Pedro IV., his brother-in-law, a fierce and cruel monarch. Pedro was unable or unwilling to pay the Black Prince the cost of this expedition; the latter, therefore, returned to France heavily burdened by debt, and with the seeds of a lingering and mortal disease. Contrary to wise counsels, he levied a "hearth-tax" on his French subjects. This turned them against him, and caused them to look towards their own king, whom they would now gladly acknowledge as their sovereign. War broke out again. But the old spirit of the Black Prince was gone, and his last exploit was to order a massacre of the French garrison of Limoges, which he had retaken. After this cruel deed he returned to England, where he lived long enough to see the total loss of all the English possessions in France except Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne, and to see his father ask for peace. He died in 1376 A.D., one year before his father. Richard, son of the Black Prince, who was now in his eleventh year, was recognized as heir to the throne.

1367
A.D.A "Hearth
Tax"
levied.1369
A.D.Cruel Last
Deed of the
Black
Prince.1370
A.D.

Death of the King.—Edward was now alone, the good Queen Philippa having died some time before. His end was saddest of all. While lying on his death-bed his servants carried away all they could lay their hands on. A good priest coming to see the king found him quite deserted. He held up the crucifix before the eyes of the dying Edward, who had just power enough to kiss the emblem of salvation before those eyes closed forever.

Sad End of
King
Edward.

Constitutional History.—The reign of Edward III. marks another advance in the power of Parliament.

Farther Advance in Power of Parliament. For some time each of the four orders of which it was composed—bishops, barons, knights of the shire, and burgesses—met separately. It is easy to see that in any great crisis the jealousies of these orders might neutralize the Parliament's power for good. At first the tendency of the knights of the shire was to join the barons. This would have given control to the aristocracy. But in this reign we find the knights of the shire drifting from their old connection with the barons into a union with the representatives of the towns, of the commercial classes; and here we have clearly defined the Lords and the Commons, who in this reign began to meet in separate "Houses."

The Parliament of 1376, called the "Good Parliament," set about the task of reforming abuses, and for the first time exercised the right of impeaching the king's ministers. The same Parliament presented one hundred and sixty petitions setting forth the grievances of the kingdom. The Black Prince was the leader of this movement for reform; but his death threw all the power into the hands of his brother, John of Ghent or Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the leader of the opposite party.

Thus ended one of the most remarkable reigns in the history of the English nation.

CHAPTER VIII.

RICHARD II.

1377 A.D. to 1399. A.D.

Richard's Minority.

War with France.

Taxes: Insurrection: The

Peasants' War.

Richard's Government.

Richard's Peace with France:

Scotch Wars.

Richard's Second Marriage.

Richard's Fall.

The Church.

Literature, Commerce, etc.

Richard's Minority.—Richard II. ascended the throne at the age of eleven years. A council of regency was appointed to govern the kingdom during his minority; but the real power was in the hands of his uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, of whom Lancaster was the most powerful.

War with France.—The war with France went on, but without any settled plan, and without any events of importance. It only served to exhaust the finances of England, and to lead to that oppressive tax which drove the peasants into rebellion.

Taxes: Insurrection: The Peasants' War.—To defray the cost of this war, the Parliament granted a fresh subsidy, which was to be raised by means of a "poll-tax" levied upon every person in the kingdom who was over fifteen years of age. This was unjust to the poor, who were thus called on to pay as much as the rich, and the harshness used in collecting added to the injustice. The peasants rose in rebellion, which soon spread all over England. It was a rising of the poor against the rich. On Blackheath, 1381 near London, one hundred thousand men gathered A.D.

around Wat Tyler, a soldier who had served in the French war, and to whom, as the head of the rebellion, all now looked. Here they were addressed by a wandering preacher named John Ball, who laid down the doctrine that all men are equal, preaching from the text,

“When Adam delved and Eve span,
Where was then the gentleman?”

The king, from a boat in the river, addressed the insurgents; but the refusal of his council to permit him to land so enraged the peasants that they marched to London, where they burned houses, and put many persons to death, among whom was the Archbishop of Canterbury. The king met them at Mile-End, and heard their demands. These were : the abolition of servitude or villenage, a fixed rent on land instead of compulsory service, freedom of buying and selling at fairs and markets, and a pardon for all. “I grant it,” replied Richard. He then bade them go home, pledging himself to issue at once charters of freedom and pardon.

Wat Tyler with thirty thousand men remained in London to see that the royal pledge was carried out. Next morning, by mere chance, the king met this army at Smithfield. Hot words passed between the king’s train and Wat Tyler. The latter, laying his hand upon his dagger, was struck to the ground by Walworth, Mayor of London, and, as he lay there, was killed by one of Richard’s attendants. “Kill! kill!” shouted the insurgents; “they have killed our captain.” The king galloped forward, exclaiming, “What! my liege men, will you

kill your king? You have lost your captain; follow me, and I will be your leader."

Whatever may have been Richard's desire to grant concessions to the peasants, it was rendered fruitless by the action of his Parliament. The king's grants and letters of freedom and pardon were, as the Parliament answered with perfect truth, legally null and void; their serfs were their goods, and the king could take their goods from them only by their own consent. "And this consent," they ended, "we have never given and never will give, were we all to die in one day." Over fifteen hundred of the rebels were afterwards seized and put to death as traitors.

**Richard's
Concessions
rendered
Fruitless by
Parliament.**

Richard's Government.—From the spirit shown by Richard on this trying occasion, it was expected that his future administration of affairs would be such as to bring peace and prosperity to the kingdom.

He had a grand opportunity; but he let it pass, disappointing the hopes of those who wished for better government. He gave himself up to worthless favorites. This brought about an estrangement between him and his uncles, one of whom, Gloucester, seeing the bad effect Richard's conduct was sure to produce, overthrew the favorites, and obtained from Parliament, which was called both "Wonderful" and "Merciless," the appointment of another council of regency, with himself at the head.

**Richard's
Opportunity.**

**1387
A.D.**

In the following year Richard declared his intention of taking the government into his own hands. He obtained from the judges an opinion that the council of regency was illegal. Gloucester, still powerful, seized the judges, and had them condemned to death. One of them was executed; the others were banished.

Richard's Peace with France: Scotch Wars.—For nine years Richard reigned with wisdom and success. During that time the Duke of Lancaster returned to England after a fruitless attempt to obtain the throne of Castile. A truce with France was concluded. The war with Scotland had become a mere border fray. One of its incidents was the battle of Otterbourne, between the Douglasses and the Percys. It is better known as the battle of "Chevy Chase" (from Cheviot), and is celebrated in one of the finest of the old English ballads. The Percys were defeated, although Douglas was slain.

1388
A.D.

Battle of
"Chevy
Chase."

Richard's Second Marriage: Results.—Richard's first wife, the "Good Queen Anne," died; and two years later he married Isabella, daughter of the King of France. In this he was actuated by a desire to bring about a lasting peace between the two countries. The marriage was, however, very unpopular; and Richard, taking advantage of the opposition of his uncle Gloucester, had him seized and conveyed to Calais, there to be privately murdered.

1397
A.D.

From this forward Richard ruled as a tyrant. He was freed from parliamentary control by the grant made to him of a tax on wool (one of the most productive articles of commerce), for the term of his life. His next step was to get rid of Parliament itself. A committee of twelve peers and six commoners was appointed, who at once assumed all the powers of Parliament. Forced loans, sale of charters of pardon, outlawry of seventeen counties on the plea that they had helped his enemies, interference with the course of justice and with the independence of the judges, all tended to bring about

Richard a
Tyrant.

a discontent which threatened the very existence of the Crown itself.

Richard's Fall.—But the end was near. A quarrel arose between the Duke of Hereford (son of John, Duke of Lancaster) and the Duke of Norfolk. Each party bandied charges of treason against the other. It was agreed to decide the matter by combat; but on the very field of battle Richard stopped the fight, and banished both—Norfolk for life, and Hereford for ten years. John of Gaunt did not long survive his son's exile, and his estates, which should have passed to Hereford, were seized by the king.

**Duke of
Norfolk and
Duke of
Hereford
banished.**

Having done this injustice to Hereford, Richard crossed over to Ireland to quell an insurrection there. In his absence Hereford landed on the coast of Yorkshire with but sixty men. He was soon joined by large numbers of the nobles, and by his uncle, the Duke of York, who had been appointed regent of the kingdom by Richard. The king returned from Ireland but to find his kingdom lost. His misgovernment had borne fruit. He was brought to London, deposed in full Parliament, which had been called by himself; and Hereford, now Duke of Lancaster, was proclaimed king under the title of Henry IV.

**Richard de-
posed and
Hereford
proclaimed
King.**

**1399
A.D.**

By the strict rule of hereditary descent, Roger Mortimer, Earl of March (see genealogical tree), grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III., was the rightful heir to the throne. But he was a child of six years old; and this rule had never received any formal recognition, the Parliament choosing the successor from among the members of the royal house.

Richard was conveyed to Pontefract Castle, in Yorkshire. His fate is not known with certainty. Some say he was put to death; others, that he escaped to Scotland, where he lived in obscurity for many years.

**Fate of
Richard.**

The Church.—The Parliament of the year of Edward III. declared null and void John's homage to the Pope; and in the 16th of Richard II. was passed the Statute of Præmunire, outlawing all persons who should introduce into the realm any Papal Bull or other instrument affecting the king.

**Statute of
Præmunire.**
1393
A.D.

John Wycliffe, a rebellious preacher, who, it is evident, was the victim of pride and arrogance, began an attack upon the Church. Disappointed ambition—he had expected to be made Bishop of Worcester—urged him on to impugn the most sacred truths of faith. Instead of being a St. Charles Borromeo to remedy such abuses as from time to time creep into the human portion of the Church of God, Wycliffe put himself in the position of a Luther, seeking to undermine its very foundations. Seeds of disrespect and disloyalty to the Church and its services were sown in England by Wycliffe. The full harvest was reaped in the time of Henry VIII., when that unhappy country was torn from the unity of Christendom.

**John
Wycliffe
attacks
the Church.**

Literature, Commerce, etc.—During these years of unceasing warfare abroad and trouble at home, the people had not time or inclination for learning. In the monasteries alone was the sacred treasure of knowledge guarded with affectionate care. Were it not for the patient and learned monks, the world would have

returned to barbarism. The latter part of the 14th century was a bright epoch in English literature. Then flourished Geoffrey Chaucer, author of the "Canterbury Tales." He is styled the "Father of English Poetry." Sir John Mandeville, who wrote an account of his travels, was the first classic prose writer in what is called "Middle English." He may justly be named the "Father of English Prose." Wycliffe also wrote vigorous English in his pamphlets and tracts. The credit of being the first translator of the Bible into English is usually claimed for him; but from the days of Alfred, such portions as were useful to the people were translated into the spoken language.

Edward III. has justly been styled the founder of English commerce. Wool was the chief export; cloth the chief import. But Edward brought over weavers from Flanders, and thus laid the foundation of the English woollen manufactures. The population of England at this time was about two millions; only nine towns had a population of over three thousand.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV...1399 A.D. to 1413 A.D.

Henry V...1413 A.D. to 1422 A.D.

Henry VI...1422 A.D. to 1461 A.D. (deposed).

CHAPTER I.

HENRY IV.

1399 A.D. to 1413 A.D.

Henry's Title to the Throne.

Conspiracy of the Nobles.

The Welsh: Glendower

The Percys.

Percy: Douglas: Glendower.

Northumberland: Scrope.

James, Prince of Scotland.

The Prince of Wales.

Death of the King.

The Church.

Constitutional History.

Henry's Title to the Throne.—Mention has already been made of the rightful heir, Roger, Earl of March. Henry was an *elected* king, and the nations of Europe regarded him as a usurper.

Conspiracy of the Nobles.—His reign, therefore, was marked by conspiracies, insurrections, and civil war. The first conspiracy was formed by some of the nobles; but was betrayed by the king's cousin, the Earl of Rutland. It was easily crushed; the rebel nobles were put to death.

The Welsh: Glendower.—The Welsh and Scotch took advantage of the unsettled state of England. Owen Glendower, claiming to be descended from the ancient Welsh princes, strove to make his country free. He ravaged the English border counties; and in one of his expeditions he captured Lord Grey and Sir Ed-

mund Mortimer, uncle to the Earl of March. Henry, who had the Earl of March in his own hands, was not sorry to be rid of Mortimer, and he even refused permission to Percy, Earl of Northumberland, a kinsman of Mortimer, to effect his release, although he permitted the release of Grey. This gave offence to Percy.

The Percys.—The Scotch under Earl Douglas invaded England, but were defeated by the Percys in 1402
A.D.

the battle of Homildon Hill, where Douglas and many nobles were taken prisoners. Henry gave additional offence to Northumberland by forbidding him to accept a ransom for the release of Douglas and the other nobles, although this was Percy's right. Henry wished to have Douglas in his own power, so that through him he could dictate terms to Scotland.

The Scotch
under
Douglas de-
feated by
the Percys.

There were thus three parties ready at any time to take the field against Henry—the discontented English nobles, the Scotch, and the Welsh.

Percy: Douglas: Glendower.—Northumberland, urged on by his brother, the Earl of Worcester, and by his son, Hotspur, so called from his fiery temper, made an alliance with Douglas and Glendower, and raised the standard of rebellion. Hotspur.

An army was soon placed in the field; the command was given to Hotspur, his father being unable or unwilling to go. Percy marched southwards to join his forces with the Welsh. So little did Henry know the real feelings of the Percys towards him, he was actually on his way to ask their aid in an expedition against Scotland when he learned their intentions. With a few chosen troops he met Hotspur at Shrewsbury before his junction with Glendower. A bloody battle was fought. 1403
A.D.

Battle of
Shrewsbury.

Hotspur was slain on the field; Worcester was afterwards beheaded; Northumberland, placing all the blame on his dead son, escaped with a fine.

Northumberland: Archbishop Scrope.—Two years later the rebellion was renewed under Northumberland as one of the leaders. Henry's government caused great discontent throughout the kingdom, especially in the north; and the people were loud in their demands for the redress of grievances. They found an able advocate in Richard Scrope, Archbishop of York, who, presenting himself before the royal forces, pointed out, like a true father of his people, the evils from which the kingdom was suffering. He was seized, carried to London, and brought before Chief Justice Gascoigne, who nobly refused to have anything to do with the trial. But this did not save the Archbishop. He was afterwards beheaded, some say, by the king's command, and without a trial,—a martyr for the rights of his people. Northumberland carried on the rebellion for some time longer, but fell in a skirmish at Bramham in Yorkshire.

**The
Rebellion
renewed.**

1405
A.D.

**Scrope
beheaded.**

Glendower still maintained his independence. The war against him was conducted by the Prince of Wales, who seemed to inherit the warlike spirit of his ancestor Edward III. But nothing of importance resulted from these expeditions.

James, Prince of Scotland.—Scotland and France, disturbed at home, gave little trouble to England in this reign. The dissensions in the royal family of Scotland gave England an unexpected advantage over that country. On account of the weakness of the Scotch king, Robert III., his brother, the Duke of Albany, held

**Dissensions
in the Roy-
al Family of
Scotland.**

the reins of government. He, probably with the view of bringing about the great object of his ambition,—his succession to the throne,—had Robert's eldest son starved to death. Robert, to save his younger son, James, from a similar fate, sent him to France. But the ship in which the young prince sailed was taken by the English, and he was brought to London, where he remained in honorable captivity for many years.

The Prince of Wales.—The conduct of Henry, Prince of Wales, was a source of grief to the king. Endowed with many good and noble qualities, which showed themselves after he came to the throne, the prince nevertheless allowed himself in his youth to be led away by bad companions. He thus took an active part in all the wild freaks of the time.

Prince
Henry's
Conduct.

Death of the King.—The king's health was gradually declining. Suffering of mind and body had worn out the once robust frame. It is said that remorse for the manner in which he came to the throne and for his harshness towards Archbishop Scrope was so great, that he meditated going on a crusade; but death prevented him. He died, in the forty-seventh year of his age 1413. and the fourteenth of his reign, while praying in A.D. the chapel of St. Edward at Westminster.

The King's
Remorse.

The Church.—The Lollards, as the followers of Wycliffe were called, gave great trouble in this reign, not alone by their strange religious or irreligious doctrines and their blasphemous abuse of everything the Church holds sacred, but by the ideas which they held regarding property. Their creed was Communism in its worst form.

The
Lollards.

While the property of the Church alone was threatened, the nobles and Parliament were quite willing to let things take their course; but when they found that the robbery of the Church property would be followed by designs on their own possessions, they saw it was time to interfere.

**Their
Creed.**

**The Act
"de heretico
comburendo."
do."**

An act was passed, known in history as "de heretico comburendo," that is, "of the burning of heretics." This was an act of Parliament, and not a canon of the Church.

As has been well remarked in this connection: "So far as a desire to relieve themselves from taxation by throwing the burden on the Church was concerned, the Commons were all Lollards."

Constitutional History.—"Raised to the throne by a parliamentary revolution and resting its

**Parliament-
ary Title of
the House of
Lancaster.**

claim on a parliamentary title, the House of Lancaster was precluded by its very position from any resumption of the late struggle for independence of the crown which had culminated in the bold effort of Richard II. During no period of early English history were the powers of the two houses so frankly recognized. The tone of Henry IV. till the very close of his reign is that of humble compliance with the prayers of his Parliament, and even his imperious successor shrank almost with timidity from any conflict with it."

CHAPTER II.

HENRY V.

A.D. 1413 to 1422.

Henry's Early Acts.

The Lollards.

French War: Agincourt.

Siege of Rouen.

Treaty of Troyes.

The Dauphin's Successes.

Second Rising of the Lollards.

Henry Resumes War in France.

His Death and Character.

English Navy.

Henry's Early Acts.—The greatest of the English kings now ascended the throne. The day of his father's death he spent in seclusion and prayer; and when evening came he was found on his knees before his confessor. Next morning he received Holy Communion, and his after-conduct showed the sincerity of his repentance. He dismissed all his wicked companions and gathered around him the wisest and best of the advisers of his late father. He liberated the Earl of March, restored the estates of the Percys to the son of Hotspur, and thus did all in his power to atone for his father's errors and for his own.

**Henry's
Changed
Conduct.**

The Lollards.—The Lollards still continued to annoy the country. In the last reign we saw their real aims; in this reign they went even farther—they conspired against the Crown and State. They found a leader in Sir John Oldcastle, sometimes called Lord Cobham.

**Insurrec-
tion under
Sir John
Oldcastle.**

He, at the head of twenty thousand men, raised the standard of revolt, declaring his object to be the establishment of a Commonwealth and the confiscation of all Church property. The insurrection was quelled for the time: Oldcastle escaped to Wales.

French Wars: Agincourt.—France was now in a very disturbed state. The king, Charles VI., was

subject to fits of insanity; and the kingdom was torn by dissensions between the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy; the former, brother, the latter, uncle, to the king. The opportunity was a good one for Henry to revive the claims of his house to the throne of France. If the claim of Edward III. was groundless, the claim of Henry V. was absurd. But he did not look at the matter in this light.

**Henry's
Claim to
the French
Throne.**

After fitting out an expedition in England for the conquest of France, he was delayed for some time by a conspiracy to place the Earl of March on the throne. The leader in this scheme was Henry's cousin, Richard, Earl of Cambridge, son of the Duke of York. The revolt amounted to nothing, and Henry soon restored peace.

Landing in Harfleur in France, he laid siege to that city. For five weeks it successfully resisted all his efforts, but at last the garrison and citizens were starved into surrender. Henry's army, too, suffered during this trying time. Worn

**Siege of
Harfleur.**

out by hunger and hardship, reduced to one half of their original number, the English troops were led by Henry towards Calais, where he intended to embark for England to recruit his shattered forces. Coming to the usual place for crossing the Somme, he found it guarded by the French. Not desiring to risk a battle, he marched up the left bank, and crossed the river. But the French were waiting for him, and he was forced into an engagement. The victory of

**Battle of
Agincourt**

Cressy was repeated. He defeated the French with great slaughter. This event is called the Battle of Agincourt. Henry now proceeded to Calais unmolested, and sailed for

England, where he was received joyfully with marks **1415**
of the utmost honor and welcome. **A.D.**

Siege of Rouen.—The war was resumed two years after. Henry took several fortresses in Normandy, among the rest the important one of Rouen. The **1417** murder of the Duke of Burgundy by the Orleanists **A.D.** or Armagnacs threw the whole power of the Burgundians on the side of Henry, who was soon able to dictate terms to the King of France.

Treaty of Troyes.—Entering Troyes, where the French king kept his court, Henry, by the terms of **1420** the famous treaty of Troyes, received the hand of the **A.D.** king's daughter Catherine in marriage, was declared regent of the kingdom during the **Terms of the Treaty.** life of Charles, and successor to the throne on his death. At Troyes, Henry and Catherine were married; and next year they went to Paris, where they were actually enthroned as king and queen of France. They then passed over to England.

The Dauphin's Successes.—But the Dauphin, as the eldest son of the king of France was called, did not agree to this settlement of the succession to the throne; and with the aid of the Scotch, who were naturally alarmed at the union of France and England under one monarch, he kept the field against Henry. He defeated the English at the battle of **1421** Beaujé, Henry's brother, the Duke of Clarence, being **A.D.** slain.

Second Rising of the Lollards.—In the meantime Oldcastle endeavored to raise a second insurrection with the help of the Scotch. He was taken prisoner, brought to London for trial, condemned and executed for treason and heresy. **Oldcastle executed.**

Henry Resumes the War with France.—Henry, on hearing of the French victory at Beaujé, returned to France, bringing in his train James of Scotland and several Scotch nobles. He drove the Dauphin south of the Loire and laid siege to Orleans, the only place north of the river held by the Dauphin's supporters. Scarcity of provisions compelled him to return to Paris, where he kept Christmas. Here he heard of
 1421
 A.D. the birth of a son and heir at Windsor.

Next year he took the field once more ; but an illness which the medical skill of the time was unable to cure brought his life to an untimely end. When told that he had but two hours to live, he sent for his confessor and spent the remainder of his time in preparing for death. The Penitential Psalms were recited around his bed, and at the words "Thou shalt build up the walls of Jerusalem," the dying king said in a faint voice that he had always meant to strike a blow for the deliverance of the Holy Sepulchre from the hands of the Saracens. He died in the thirty-fifth year of his
 1422
 A.D. age, after a short reign of nine years.

His Death and Character.—"This was the end of the last of the really great English kings. We shall read of many famous men, and of many noble deeds that were done afterwards, but Henry V. was the last great king of Catholic England. . . . The people had reason to mourn for their great and wise king, for sad days were at hand in England."

English Navy.—In this reign was laid the foundation of the English navy. Heretofore the king was supplied with ships from the maritime towns or from

Henry V.
 the last
 Great King
 of Catholic
 England.

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his subjects, or hired them from foreigners. By order of the king a large ship called the "Great Harry" was built at Bayonne.

CHAPTER III.

HENRY VI.

A.D. 1422 to A.D. 1461 (Dethroned).

Henry, King of England and France.	Fall of Suffolk.
The Regency.	Richard, Duke of York.
Bedford in France.	Cade's Rebellion.
Bedford's Difficulties: Siego of Orleans.	York as Regent.
Joan d'Arc.	York's Claim to the Throne Examined.
English Driven from Orleans.	Wars of the Roses.
Coronation of Charles: Death of Joan.	Parliament Makes a Compromise.
Fall of Gloucester.	The Parliament: Education: The Franchise.

Henry, King of England and France.—By the death of Henry V., his son, a child nine months old, became king under the title, Henry VI.; and on the death of Charles V. of France, two months later, the same child became King of France in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Troyes.

The Regency.—The Parliament, setting aside the wishes of the late king, appointed his brother, the Duke of Bedford, "Protector of the Realm and Church of England," and Regent of France. But Bedford was needed in France; and in his absence from England his authority was vested in his brother Humphrey, the "good" Duke of Gloucester. The care of the king's person was entrusted to Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, and Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick.

Appoint-
ment by
Parliament.

Bedford in France.—The French were not inclined to submit quietly to the English occupation of their country. The Duke of Bedford, able commander though he was, found the love of national independence so strong among them that he had to put forth all his efforts to hold his ground. The people south of the Loire received the Dauphin as their rightful sovereign; and in their struggles against the English they had assistance from Lombardy and Scotland, the latter country sending four thousand men under the Earl of Douglas.

Bedford first secured his position on the north of the river. He defeated the French in the battles of Crevant and Verneuil; strengthened his alliance with the dukes of Burgundy and Brittany by giving his sisters in marriage

Insubmission of the French.
Bedford's Efforts to hold his Ground.

to these princes; endeavored to detach the Scotch from their alliance with the French by liberating Prince James, who had been a captive in England for nineteen years, and by bringing about a marriage between him and the daughter of the Earl of Somerset.

Bedford's Difficulties: Siege of Orleans.—But through his brother, Gloucester, Bedford lost the powerful alliance of the Duke of Burgundy. Gloucester married Jacqueline, Countess of Holland and Hainault, for the sake of her possessions, which were very large. She had already been married to, but was now separated from, the Duke of Brabant, whose heir was the Duke of Burgundy. The latter resented this action of Gloucester and withdrew from the alliance with Bedford. The Duke of Brittany followed his example. Bedford saw that his only safety lay in immediate action. He determined to cross the Loire, which

1423
1424
A.D.

Defection of the Duke of Burgundy.

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separated the English from the French possessions, and to carry the war into the province which acknowledged the Dauphin Charles. Orleans, an important stronghold on the north of the river, was still held by the French. Bedford, knowing that the conquest of all the southern part of the country would follow the capture of Orleans, resolved to lay siege to the city before entering on his intended campaign. Accordingly, the city was invested by ten thousand men and Charles was powerless to relieve it. But help was at hand.

**Siege of
Orleans.**

Joan d'Arc.—In Domremi, a little village in the neighborhood of Vaucouleurs, on the borders of Lorraine and Champagne, lived a peasant girl named Joan d'Arc. She was a "good girl, simple and pleasant in her ways," spinning and sewing by her mother's side, tender to the poor and sick, fervent in the practice of religion, and especially devoted to the Blessed Sacrament and to the Blessed Virgin Mother of God. She saw the unhappy state to which her country and countrymen were reduced by the wars. Her whole nature summed itself up in one intense passion—she had "pity on the fair realm of France."

**Character-
istics of
"the Maid
of Orleans."**

English Driven from Orleans.—While she was thus daily absorbed in thought and prayer for her country, St. Michael, as the legend relates, appeared to her and told her she was to be its deliverer. She was to go at once to the Dauphin Charles, and make known to him the mission which Heaven had given to her. She obeyed the command of the archangel, proceeded to Chinon, where she found Charles, and told him everything as she was instructed to do. She told him that the de-

**Vision of St.
Michael.**

liverance of her country was near, and that in a short time he would be crowned king at Rheims. Charles received her as a heaven-sent messenger, and next day on a white charger she placed herself at the head of the French army. Her presence on the scene dispirited the English, while it gave courage to the French troops. The English were driven from the walls of Orleans. This circumstance has given to Joan the name "Maid of Orleans."

Charles Crowned: Joan's Death.—At the head of the French troops she escorted Charles to Rheims, where he was crowned. Joan now felt that her mission was ended and begged leave to return home. But the king would not let her go. Next year, while leading the French troops in an engagement with the English, she was taken prisoner by the latter and brought to Rouen. Here, to the lasting disgrace of the English, her captors, and of the French, her countrymen, who made no effort to save her, she, after a long imprisonment, was publicly burned as a witch and heretic.

1431 A.D. Soon after this terrible event the young King Henry was brought over to Paris, where he was crowned king of France—for him an empty title. Success after success attended the French army; the death of Bedford gave the finishing blow to English rule in France; and in fifteen years more not a foot of French territory, except Calais, remained in possession of England.

Henry's Marriage: Fall of Gloucester.—Meanwhile there was disturbance at home owing to the rivalry between the Duke of Gloucester and Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, afterwards Cardinal Beaufort, who was a descendant

Joan d'Arc
at the Head
of the
French
Army.

Joan d'Arc
taken Prisoner and
burned as a
Witch.

Death of
Bedford.

Disturbance
at Home.

of John of Gaunt. Gloucester was in favor of continuing the war with France, Beaufort, in favor of peace; and each wished to have full control over the king and kingdom. The king was weak mentally and physically, and was not fit to deal vigorously with the troubles and dangers which threatened his throne and state. He was gentle and timid, seeking retirement rather than the cares of sovereignty, more fitted for the cloister than the court. His marriage with Margaret of Anjou, a princess of great strength of mind, daughter of Rene, titular king of Sicily, Naples, and Jerusalem, was brought about by Beaufort, whose party henceforth received all her support. The wife of Gloucester was accused of witchcraft; Gloucester himself was accused of treason, which led to his imprisonment and death. He was much regretted by the people; his murder—for such it really was—stirred them up still more against the Crown. Beaufort lived only two months after his rival's death.

**Weakness of
the King.**

**1445
A.D.**

**1447
A.D.**

**Gloucester's
Death.**

Fall of Suffolk.—The troubles of England were increasing. The Duke of Suffolk, who became first favorite and minister after the death of Beaufort, was much disliked by the people. They looked upon him as partly responsible for the death of Gloucester, and wholly responsible for the loss of certain French provinces by the marriage settlements of Henry and Margaret. He was impeached by the House of Commons and sentenced to five years' banishment. On his way across the English Channel he was seized by some of his enemies, who were determined that he should not escape what they considered to be his just punishment. He was taken into a boat and beheaded.

**Increasing
Troubles of
England.**

**1450
A.D.**

Richard, Duke of York.—The growing dissatisfaction of nobles and people, together with the weakness of Henry and his advisers, made them turn towards Richard, Duke of York, as one more fitted to hold the reins of Government. To Richard himself, as we shall see further on, this movement was a welcome one.

Cade's Rebellion.—A popular rising under Jack Cade added to the confusion. Twenty thousand men gathered to his standard on Blackheath; and from this encampment he sent to the government a list of grievances to be redressed. His demands being unheeded, he entered London, which for some days was at the mercy of his followers. At last the citizens drove him outside the walls, and his army broke up and dispersed. Many believed that this rising was instigated by the Duke of York.

The Duke of Somerset succeeded Suffolk as prime minister. This displeased the Duke of York, who was not on good terms with Somerset. York hurried over from Ireland, of which country he was then governor; and endeavored to have Somerset removed from office, but without success. Thus another element of trouble and discord was introduced.

York as Regent.—The king's health was failing, and his illness now took the form of insanity. During his retirement, the Duke of York acted as regent; and when Henry on his recovery wished to resume the government, York was unwilling to give it up. He and his friends now boldly declared that his title to the throne was better than Henry's; and soon the kingdom was plunged into all the horrors of civil war.

Growing
Discontent.

1450
A.D.

Gathering
on Black-
heath.

The Duke of
Somerset.

1454
A.D.

York claims
the Throne.

York's Claim Examined.—It may be well to examine here Richard's claim to the throne. Referring to the genealogical tree it will be seen that, as the descendant of Edmund of Langley, Richard stood next in succession to Henry if the latter died without direct heirs. The birth of a son to Henry voided this claim. But, as the descendant of Lionel, the elder brother of John of Gaunt, Henry's ancestor, Richard stood, in strict hereditary right, before the House of Lancaster. The claim of Lionel had passed to the House of Mortimer (see genealogical tree); and through Anne, the heiress of the Mortimers, who had wedded Richard's father, they passed to Richard. There was, however, no constitutional ground for limiting the right of Parliament to set aside an elder branch in favor of a younger one; and Parliament had already acted thus in giving the throne to the House of Lancaster. Possession, too, told against the Yorkist claims. To modern minds, the best reply to their contention lay

**The Claim
not well
founded.**

in the words used at a later time by Henry himself: "My father was king, his father also was king, I myself have worn the crown forty years from my cradle; you have all sworn fealty to me as your sovereign; and your fathers have done the like to mine. How, then, can my right be disputed?" Long and undisturbed possession, as well as a distinctly legal title by the free vote of Parliament, was in favor of the House of Lancaster.

Wars of the Roses.—Richard now resolved to support his claim by force of arms; and thus began the "Wars of the Roses," so called from the emblems of the rival houses—that of the Lancastrians being a red rose, that of the Yorkists a white one. 1455
A.D.

1455 The hostile armies first met at St. Albans. Somerset led the royal forces, which were defeated. He was slain and the king was taken prisoner.
A.D. **The Royal Forces defeated.**

A hollow peace and an empty reconciliation followed and the king was liberated. But the discovery of a plot to destroy the Earl of Warwick and several Yorkist leaders led to a renewal of the struggle.

1459 At Bloreheath in Staffordshire another battle was fought; the Lancastrians were once more defeated.
A.D.

Parliament makes a Compromise.—The next engagement took place at Northampton, and ended in disaster for the Lancastrians. Henry was once more taken prisoner; the queen and her young son fled to Scotland. A meeting of Parliament was held at Westminster, and here Richard formally asserted his claim to the throne. But it was decided that Henry should be undisturbed until his death, and that Richard should be his successor—an arrangement which did not please either party.

1460 Margaret, unwilling to see her son deprived of the right to succeed his father, collected an army in Scotland, and, marching southwards, met the Yorkists at Wakefield in Yorkshire. Here the Lancastrians were victorious for the first time. The Duke of York was slain, and his second son, the Duke of Rutland, was cruelly murdered by Lord Clifford.
A.D. **The Yorkists defeated and the Duke slain.**

The cause of the white rose was now taken up by Edward, son of the late Duke of York. He succeeded to his father's title and claims upon the throne. In the battle of Mortimer's Cross he avenged the death of his father and brother by the defeat of the Lancastrians.
1461
A.D.

Margaret was advancing on London, and, meeting the Yorkists under Warwick at St. Albans, fought the second battle of St. Albans. She was victorious, and recovered the person of the king. Her army lost time in pillage, while Edward struck boldly upon London, which he entered amid cries of "Long live King Edward!" Here, in an assembly of prelates, peers, and citizens, he was declared king, 3d March, 1461. Thus ended the reign, though not the life, of Henry VI. 1461
A.D.

Education : Parliament : The Franchise.—Although the close of Henry's reign shows England in all the turmoil and disaster of a civil war, and shorn of all the possessions added to it by the victories of his father, "the gentler virtues of Henry bore other fruits of more lasting benefit than the crown of Bolingbroke and the laurels of Agincourt." Eton and King's College, Cambridge, were founded by Henry; Queen's College, Cambridge, by Margaret. Many other colleges and schools were established; churches and religious houses increased and flourished. Colleges
established.

Parliament gained additional power; and in this reign, instead of the *petition* to the king, we find the *bill* introduced, and the *act* passed by the "King, Lords, and Commons" as it is now. Increased
Power of
Parliament.

By an act passed in the early part of the reign, the right of voting in shires was restricted to freeholders who held land worth forty shillings a year—a sum equal to twenty pounds sterling of the present day. This was correctly called the "great disfranchising statute." It took away from a large number the right of voting; and it was one of the grievances complained of by Cade and his followers.

HOUSE OF YORK.

A.D. 1461 to A.D. 1485.

Edward IV.....A.D. 1461 to A.D. 1483.
Edward VA.D. 1483 to A.D. 1483.
Richard III.....A.D. 1483 to A.D. 1485.

CHAPTER I.

EDWARD IV.

A.D. 1461 to A.D. 1483.

Wars of the Roses Continued.	Margaret's Last Attempt: Fate of Henry: Margaret and her Son.
Edward's Quarrel with Warwick: Results.	War with France: Treaty of Pecquigny.
The Duke of Clarence.	Clarence and Gloucester.
Exile of Warwick and Clarence.	Edward's Death and Character.
Return of Warwick: Edward Dethroned: Henry, King.	Constitutional History: The New Monarchy.
Edward Regains the Throne.	Invention of Printing.

Wars of the Roses Continued.—For ten years of this reign Henry lived. Edward was nominally king, but a large party still adhered to Henry. The north, particularly, refused to accept Edward, and soon an army of sixty thousand men took the field under Margaret. Edward, with a large force and aided by the powerful Earl of Warwick, marched northwards and met the Lancastrians at Towton in Yorkshire, where the bloodiest battle of the war was fought, ending in the utter rout of Margaret's army. It is said that nearly forty thousand were slain. Henry, Margaret, and their son fled to Scotland. Edward returned to London, where he was crowned

1461 Margaret's
A.D. Army
routed at
Towton.
Edward
crowned
King.

king. A parliament met, confirmed Edward's title to the throne, and decreed confiscation and execution against the followers of Henry.

Margaret looked to Scotland for help; but that country, torn by factions owing to the king's minority, ¹⁴⁶⁴ was unable to give her aid. She then passed over to ^{A.D.}

France, where, by permission of the king, she raised an army and returned to England. In the battle of Hedgely Moor, and, a few days later, in the battle of Hexham, she was again defeated. Giving up all hope

**Margaret
raises another Army,
but is again
defeated.**

of success, Henry and Margaret fled—the former to Wales, the latter to the court of her father. After a year's hiding, Henry fell into the hands of the Yorkists, and was imprisoned in the tower of London. All hope for the red rose now seemed lost. Edward, secure in possession of the kingdom, might have held it in peace, were it not that he gave offence to the Earl of Warwick, and drove him into the ranks of the Lancastrians.

Edward's Quarrel with Warwick : Results.—Negotiations for the king's marriage were in progress. The Earl of Warwick was sent to France by Edward to solicit for him the hand of a princess of Savoy. While the Earl was on this mission, Edward privately married Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Grey, who had fallen in the second battle of St. Albans. Warwick was deeply offended at this. He was still more offended when he saw that the highest honors and the most distinguished positions in the state were given to the queen's relations. The ill-feeling between him and the king increased, and at last resulted in the rebellion of the Earl.

**Rebellion of
Warwick.**

The Duke of Clarence.—The Duke of Clarence, who had married a daughter of Warwick, joined his father-in-law. A battle was fought at Edgecote near Banbury, in which the royal forces were defeated and the queen's father and brother slain.

Exile of Warwick and Clarence.—Next year Warwick and Clarence were obliged to leave England. Meeting Margaret at the court of Louis of France, they made common cause against Edward, and to cement this union, the young Edward, Margaret's son, was married to Anne, daughter of the Earl.

Return of Warwick: Results.—Warwick returned to England, where he was soon at the head of a large army. Edward was obliged to flee, and found refuge at the court of his brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy. Henry VI. was released from the Tower and once more placed on the throne. These events gained for Warwick the title "King-maker."

Edward Regains the Throne.—In six months Edward landed in the north of England with a number of foreign troops, in part supplied by the Duke of Burgundy. Marching southward, he was joined by many deserters from Warwick, among the rest the fickle Duke of Clarence. He entered the capital in triumph, and Henry was once more driven from the throne. Returning on their march, Edward's forces met those of Warwick on the fatal field of Barnet Heath, a little north of London. Here another desperate battle was fought, in which the King-maker and many of the nobles attached to his cause were slain. Henry was again taken prisoner and again committed to the Tower.

Margaret's Last Attempt.—On the very day of the battle of Barnet, Margaret landed in England, and

Death of
Warwick.

1471

A.D.

1469

A.D.

heard the sad news of the defeat and death of Warwick. She resolved to make one effort more ; but in an attempt to join her forces with those of one of her supporters, the Earl of Pembroke, who had raised an army in Wales, she was met at Tewksbury by the royal troops. Here the Lancastrians made their last stand. Margaret was defeated ; she and her son taken prisoners. The young prince, now eighteen years of age, was cruelly murdered in Edward's presence by the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester. Next day Henry was found dead in the Tower ; and after a captivity of four years, Margaret was ransomed by the King of France.

The Lancastrians meet with Disaster at Tewksbury.

1471
A.D

War with France: Treaty of Pecquigny.—The Duke of Burgundy, brother-in-law to Edward, was at war with the King of France. He invited Edward to revive the old claim of the Plantagenets to the throne of that country, promising his assistance. The English Parliament approved of the scheme, and granted liberal supplies for the expedition. Besides this, Edward took other means to "increase his hoard." He called before him the merchants of the city and requested from each a present, or a "benevolence," as he was pleased to call it.

Claim of the Plantagenets to the Throne of France revived.

With a large army, he landed at Calais ; but as the Duke of Burgundy did not meet him with the promised help, he was much pleased to receive a message of peace and alliance from the King of France. The Treaty of Pecquigny was made, enacting that Edward should receive seventy-five thousand crowns at once, fifty thousand for the ransom of Margaret, and fifty thousand annually :

1475
A.D.

Terms of the Treaty.

and that the Dauphin should marry Elizabeth, Edward's eldest daughter. This was characteristic of Edward. He taxed his subjects for the war; and taxed the King of France for the peace, thus making a large money gain, of which he was very fond.

Clarence and Gloucester.—Edward never forgave Clarence for his alliance with Margaret and Warwick. Gloucester, who had married Anne, widow of the late Prince Edward and daughter of the Earl of Warwick, was anxious to obtain the whole of the earl's estates. A dependent of the Duke of Clarence having spoken disrespectfully of the king, was tried and executed. Clarence openly expressed his indignation at the injustice of the sentence. This was construed into treason against the king. The unfortunate Clarence was taken to the Tower, where he was put to death: popular report says he was drowned in a butt of wine.

Clarence
put to
Death.

Edward's Death and Character.—News of the marriage between the Dauphin of France and the rich heiress of Burgundy—a distinct breach of faith on the part of the King of France—reached Edward. This drove him into such a storm of passion that, while preparing an expedition to avenge the insult, he was seized by a fever which after a few days terminated fatally, his constitution, weakened by excesses, being unable to bear up against it. He spent his last days in exercises of piety, and commanded that restitution be made to all whom he had wronged. "As a mere boy Edward showed himself the ablest and most pitiless among the warriors of the civil war. In the first flush of manhood he looked on with a cool ruthlessness while gray-haired nobles were hurried to the block, or while his Lan-

Seized by a
Fever.

1483

A.D.

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castrian child-rival was stabbed at his feet. In his later race for power he had shown himself more subtle in treachery than even Warwick himself." When his final triumph came and he was firmly established on the throne, he gave himself up to every vicious indulgence. He was an able politician, and "laid the foundation of an absolute rule which Henry VII. did little more than develop and consolidate."

"More subtle in Treachery than Warwick himself."

Constitutional History: New Monarchy.—In this reign, not only did all parliamentary progress towards greater freedom and power cease, but the legislative activity of Parliament itself comes abruptly to an end. The reign of Edward the Fourth is the first since that of

Parliamentary Progress checked.

John in which not a single law that promoted freedom or remedied the abuses of power was even proposed to Parliament. With this reign begins what is called the "New Monarchy," the "all-absorbing, unrestrained despotism" of the kings. The fall of great houses in the Wars of the Roses, the confiscation of land so that nearly a fifth of the kingdom was the personal property of the sovereign, Edward's immense profits from his own trade in tin, cloth, and wool,—all tended to make him independent of Parliament, and to enable him to deal a deadly blow at the liberty of the people.

Invention of Printing.—In 1474, William Caxton, a London merchant, having learned the art of printing on the Continent, set up the first printing-press in England. It is easy to see what effect this had on the intellectual life of the country. Books heretofore published in manuscript

Caxton.

were now printed; and, costing but one fifth of the old prices, they came within reach of all who desired to possess them.

CHAPTER II.

EDWARD V.

A.D. 1483, April 9 to June 25 (Dethroned).

Gloucester seizes Edward and his Brother. Gloucester removes the Friends of the young King.
His Designs upon the Throne. Buckingham.

1483 A.D. **Gloucester Seizes Edward and his Brother.**—On the death of his father, Prince Edward, who had been staying with his uncle, Earl Rivers, set out for London under the protection of the earl and other relatives and followers. They were met by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, who had evidently come to the conclusion that it was an easy task to wrest the crown from a boy twelve years old. He seized Rivers and his friends and sent them prisoners to the north. With a great show of the respect due to a sovereign, but in reality with the care which a captor bestows on his prisoner, he conducted the young king to London and placed him in the Tower, which was used both as a palace and a prison. The queen, naturally alarmed, fled with her second son Richard to sanctuary in Westminster Abbey, placing herself, after the manner of the times, under the protection of the Church. Gloucester, on the pretence that the young king wanted a playfellow, obliged her to give up Richard, who also was committed to the Tower.

Edward and his Brother imprisoned in the Tower.

Gloucester was then appointed lord protector of the kingdom.

Gloucester Removes Edward's Friends.—With the two princes in close confinement, his next step was to remove the most powerful of their supporters. He accused the queen and Jane Shore of attempts on his life by witchcraft; and he caused Lord Hastings to be sent to the block on the charge of being an accomplice. Earl Rivers, Lord Grey, and others, were executed.

His Designs on the Throne : Buckingham.—The marriage of the late king had always been unpopular; and Gloucester's next step was to call in question the legitimacy of Edward's children, on the alleged ground that he was already married when he espoused Elizabeth Woodville. By this means Gloucester hoped to fix the attention of the people on himself as the only legitimate heir. He caused a sermon to be preached at St. Paul's Cross by Dr. Shaw, a popular preacher and brother to the Mayor of London, placing this view before the citizens. Shortly after, the Duke of Buckingham, a man of talent and power, who had been bought over to Richard's support by bribes and promises of future favors, addressed the citizens of London. He was received coldly; but a few faint cheers of "Long live King Richard," by persons hired for the purpose, were made a pretext for a visit to Gloucester by the Mayor and Buckingham. They, in the name of the English people, offered him the Crown, 1483 which, with a great show of reluctance, he consented A.D. to accept.

The Legitimacy of Edward's Children called in Question.

The Crown offered to Gloucester.

CHAPTER III.

RICHARD III.

1483 A.D. to 1485 A.D.

Richard's Coronation and Progress through the Kingdom.
Murder of the Young Princes.
Conspiracy against Richard.

Richard's Acts.
Landing of Henry of Richmond.
Richard's Death and Character.

Richard's Coronation and Progress.—One week from his acceptance of the throne, Richard and his wife Anne were crowned at Westminster. By pardons, titles, honors, money, and other favors lavishly bestowed, he hoped to win the good-will of nobles and people. He set out on a royal tour through the kingdom, for the purpose, as he said, of securing the peace of England and a pure administration of justice.

Murder of the Young Princes.—Before leaving London, he sent Tyrrel, his master of the horse, to the Tower with orders to the governor, Brackenbury, to give up the command to Tyrrel for twenty-four hours. This was done, and when night came two grooms, Tyrrel waiting outside, entered the room where the young princes were, and smothered them ¹⁴⁸³ A.D. in their sleep.

Conspiracy against Richard.—Soon after Richard's coronation a conspiracy was set on foot to maintain the right of the young Prince Edward to the throne of his father. At its head was Buckingham, the man who had done more than any one else in the kingdom to place Richard on the throne, but who was now disappointed at the small reward which he obtained for his services. When the conspirators heard of the murder of the young princes, they were horrified;

and turned their thoughts towards the last representative of the House of Lancaster, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who was a descendant of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster (see genealogical tree). Henry was then in exile in Brittany. His title was defective, but a happy plan of obviating the difficulty and of reconciling the rival houses was devised by the Bishop of Ely. This was the marriage of Henry to Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. It was a stroke of "masterly policy," as after-events proved. Henry gladly assented, and at once prepared a fleet and army to aid the conspirators in England. But a storm delayed his landing, and Buckingham, unable to keep his followers together, was taken prisoner and perished on the scaffold. The insurrection failed; many of the nobles fled to Brittany.

A Masterly Stroke.

Richard's Acts.—Meantime, Richard was doing all in his power to make himself secure in possession of the throne. He executed justice with a vigorous and impartial hand; and convoking his only Parliament, he passed good laws; abolished benevolence as illegal; abolished the restrictions on the importation of books; facilitated the transfer of land, securing buyer and seller; encouraged trade and commerce: but all in vain. He could not remove from the people the thought of his crimes; he knew that preparations were in progress every day for another attempt on the part of his rival; and he knew that he could not trust any man in his kingdom. These considerations, and the memory of his cruel deeds, haunted him day and night and made his life a miserable one. To defeat the plots of his enemies,

**1484
A.D.**

**Richard's
Vain Efforts
to gain the
Good-will of
the People.**

he proposed to marry his son to Elizabeth; but the death of that son defeated his hopes. Having, as is said, got rid of his wife Anne by poison, he next proposed to marry his niece himself. But he was dissuaded from this unnatural union, which would make him still more odious to the people. Nothing, therefore, remained to him but to await with what patience he could command Henry's coming.

Landing of Henry: Battle of Bosworth.—Henry landed at Milford Haven, in Wales, on the 1st August, 1485. Advancing into the heart of the country, he gained adherents every day; and when he met Richard at Bosworth near Leicester, he was at the head of six thousand men. Richard's army was twice that number; and had they been attached to him, the fortunes of the day might have been his;

Stanley decides the Victory for Henry. Richard slain.

but Lord Stanley, who with seven thousand men held aloof until the battle was at its height, decided the victory for Richard by taking his part. Richard was slain, fighting with all the bravery of his race, just as he was face to face with his rival, whom he had been seeking from the beginning of the fight. The blood-stained crown—worn by him in the battle—was placed on the head of the victor by Lord Stanley, amid the shouts of the soldiers—"God save King Henry!" Thus terminated the long and bloody struggle of the Wars of the Roses. That night a horse was led up to the church of the Grey Friars at Leicester. On its back was tied a naked body, brought there for burial. It was the body of Richard III.

Richard's Character.—Richard is usually represented in history as a monster of cruelty and treach-

ery; as one capable of committing any crime. Although it may be quite true that this picture, painted as it is by Tudor historians, is greatly exaggerated, the facts stated in the last three chapters show him to be a very bad man.

CHAPTER IV.

The Church. **Effects of the Civil War.** **National Industry.**

The Church.—Few important events are to be noted in ecclesiastical affairs. Heresy occasionally raised its evil head. The Church pitied and condemned, but went on with its divinely-appointed work. An extraordinary splendor was now to be found in religious ceremonies as well as in ecclesiastical buildings. St. Vincent Ferrer, the great apostle of the Dominican Order, preached in England during the Lancastrian period, and visited nearly every city in the kingdom.

Effect of the Civil War.—On the field of Bosworth it was not the House of York which was defeated, but the aristocracy of England; it was not Henry Tudor who was victorious, but the monarchical power. With the defeat and ruin of so many noble houses and the triumph of kingly power came the rise of the commons, or trading classes of the towns. The villeins or bondsmen were now rapidly becoming free laborers. Generous nobles often gave their slaves freedom; and the Church, ever the protector of the oppressed, exercised all its authority to cause the dying master, before receiving

**Rise of the
Commons.**

the last Sacraments, to set free his "brethren whom Christ had redeemed at a great price."

National Industry.—During this period, farming and gardening were very much interfered with, owing to the confiscations and general insecurity of the times. England was gradually becoming a grazing country. The emancipated serfs betook themselves to trades and manufactures, thus creating a scarcity of farm-laborers. This was the period of the establishment of guilds or corporations in the various trades. Wool was the chief export.

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HOUSE OF TUDOR.

1485 A.D. to 1603 A.D.

Henry VII 1485 A.D. to 1509 A.D.
Henry VIII. (son) 1509 A.D. to 1547 A.D.
Edward VI. (son) 1547 A.D. to 1553 A.D.
Mary (half-sister) 1553 A.D. to 1558 A.D.
Elizabeth (half-sister) .. 1558 A.D. to 1603 A.D.

CHAPTER I.

HENRY VII.

1485 A.D. to 1509 A.D.

Henry's Accession and Marriage: His Jealousy and Suspicion of the York Family.

Progress through the Kingdom: Risings.

Impostors: Simnel, Warbeck.

Henry's Foreign Wars: His Love of Money.

Marriage of Henry's Children. Constitutional History.

Voyages and Discoveries. Learning.

Henry's Character and Death.

Henry's Accession and Marriage.—It will be remembered that one of the conditions on which Henry received support from the party opposed to Richard was, that he should marry Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. But, being a thorough Lancastrian, unwilling to owe his accession to a union with a princess of the House of York, and knowing how very weak was his claim through descent, he had his title to the throne confirmed by Parliament. The marriage he postponed to the following year, and through his entire reign he showed his bitter dislike to the adherents of the House of York. It was not until two years after his

Henry oath
to marry
Elizabeth.

1485
A.D.

accession that he permitted the coronation of Elizabeth, whom he always treated with much coolness and indifference. These things made him unpopular, and led to the plots and insurrections which disturbed him for so many years.

Progress through the Kingdom: Risings.—Shortly after Henry's accession he made a royal progress through the kingdom. While he was on this tour, the first risings took place—one in Yorkshire, under Lord Lovel; another in Worcester, under the Staffords. Both were easily suppressed.

Impostors: Simnel, Warbeck.—The first plot against Henry was made on behalf of an Oxford youth named Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the young Earl of Warwick, at that time a prisoner in the Tower. Simnel went to Ireland, where he was well received, although his imposture was conclusively proved to the citizens of London by the exhibition of the real Warwick. Crossing to England, the pretender collected some troops, and, being joined by Lincoln, **1487** gave battle to the king's forces at Stoke in Nottingham, where his army was totally defeated.

Simnel
defeated.

The death of Lincoln on the battle-field removed one representative of the royal House of York and a rival of Henry. Simnel was taken prisoner and received a humble position in the king's household.

A much more formidable plot was that in favor of Perkin Warbeck; who claimed to be the young Duke of York, said to have been murdered in the Tower. In Ireland, France, and Scotland he was received with all the honors becoming a prince and heir to a throne. The Duchess of Burgundy acknowledged him as her nephew; and

Plot in Fa-
vor of Per-
kin War-
beck.

the Scotch King, James IV., gave him in marriage the Lady Catherine Gordon, who was closely related to the royal family. After varying fortunes Warbeck appeared in England and prepared to give battle to Henry. He met the king's forces at Taunton, but losing courage, he fled to sanctuary. He finally gave himself up to Henry, by whom he was conveyed to London, where he lived some time in honorable captivity. His restlessness led to stronger measures against him. He was seized, made to publicly confess his imposture, and was imprisoned in the Tower. An attempt to escape, in which he involved the Earl of Warwick, led to the execution of both. Thus were all the real and pretended heirs to the Throne of England removed from Henry's path.

Perkin gives himself up, and is finally executed.

Henry's Foreign Wars: His Love of Money.—This was a reign of peace. Henry contemplated but did not carry out a war with France. The Duchy of Bretagne, or Brittany, was the only one of the fiefs of France which had remained free. The marriage of the King of France to Anne, heiress of Brittany, made it a part of his kingdom. To this marriage Henry was strongly opposed, and he prepared for war. He received large supplies from Parliament, and revived the old plan of exacting benevolences. He landed in France, laid siege to Boulogne, but was bought off by the French king, who gave him a large sum of money and promised him a yearly pension. Henry returned to England without striking a blow.

Henry contemplates War with France, but is bought off.

Love of money was Henry's "ruling passion." Benevolences, confiscations, and extortions of every kind marked his reign. His chief adviser, and the

1492
A.D.

wisest of his ministers, was Cardinal Morton, of whom we have heard before. Henry kept his avarice under restraint while the cardinal lived; but on his death the king fell back to his old habits, in which he was aided by two most unscrupulous agents, Empson and Dudley.

**Henry's
Avarice.**

Marriage of Henry's Children.—Henry desired to bring about a friendly alliance with other royal families of Europe by the marriage of his children. His eldest daughter, Margaret, was married to the King of Scotland. From this union was descended James I. of England, the first king of the Stuart line (see genealogical table). His second daughter, Mary, was married to the King of France. His eldest son, Arthur, was married to the fair and virtuous Catharine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. On the death of Arthur, Henry, to prevent the return of Catharine's dowry, caused her to marry his second son. When the queen died in 1503, he looked about him for a rich second wife, but without success.

Constitutional History.—Henry's great aim was to keep down the power of the nobles and to extend the power of the Crown. Few Parliaments were called in this reign; both Lords and Commons seemed to have surrendered their functions into the hands of the king. But some good acts were passed. One was that a subject obeying the king in power for the time being should not be deemed guilty of treason when the rightful king came to the throne. Another statute abolished maintenance, or the right of the nobles to keep an unlimited number of retainers in their service. The law of "entail," by which an estate

**Power of
the Nobles
lessened
and that of
the Crown
increased.**

descended to a particular line of heirs who could not sell or bequeath it, was abolished. All these laws were passed for the purpose of lessening the power of the nobles. Henry "appointed a committee of his council as a regular court, to which the place where it usually sat gave the name of Star-Chamber. The king's aim was, probably, little more than a purpose to enforce order in the land by bringing great nobles before his own judgment-seat; but the establishment of the court as a regular and no longer exceptional tribunal, whose traditional powers were confirmed by parliamentary statute, and where the absence of a jury cancelled the prisoner's right to be tried by his peers, furnished his son with his readiest instrument of tyranny."

Court of
Star-Chamber.

Voyages and Discoveries.—In this reign America was discovered by Columbus. He had sent his brother Bartholomew to England to seek help for the expedition; and it was only by accident that the honor of finding the New World was not placed to the credit of England. Sebastian Cabot, in the service of Henry, reached the coast of Labrador and sailed as far south as Florida. The "Great Harry," an immense ship, was built by Henry's orders.

Discovery
of America.

Learning.—Many colleges and schools were founded in this reign. Being a time of peace, it gave an opportunity for men to turn their minds to the "New Learning," as it was called, that is, the study of Greek and Latin, in which languages so much of the literature, philosophy, and theology of the preceding centuries was written.

Henry's Character and Death.—Henry was able, wise, and vigilant. He brought England out of the

confusion and almost ruin of the civil wars. But his avarice led him into many acts of injustice and oppression. He was, indeed, often exhorted from the pulpit to repair the injury he had done to the people by his extortions. This advice he accepted in good part. He built and endowed three monasteries, as well as the chapel at Westminster, which is known to this day as the "Chapel of Henry VII.," and in which he was buried. As death approached he seemed to be smitten with remorse. He put a clause in his will commanding his heir to make restitution of his ill-gotten wealth; he released debtors, and criminals who had not seriously offended against the laws. He made arrangements whereby three masses should be said over his tomb daily, "so long as the world lasts." He little imagined how soon these instructions would be disregarded by his son and successor. He died worth nearly two millions of pounds sterling.

CHAPTER II.

HENRY VIII.

1509 A.D. to 1547 A.D.

Henry's Accession and Early Acts.	The Field of the Cloth of Gold.
Wars with France and Scotland.	The Church: Heresy: Protestantism.
Henry, Charles, and Francis:	Constitutional History.
Henry's Character and Death.	

As almost the whole of this reign is taken up with religious matters, we shall first dispose of political events and the foreign relations of the country.

Henry's Accession and Early Acts.—Uniting in his own person the rival claims of the Houses of Lancaster and York, agreeable in manner, handsome in person, young and gay, well educated and accomplished, with a peaceful and prosperous kingdom and a full treasury, Henry came to the throne amid the welcome of his subjects and high hopes that, at last, was begun a time of freedom, security, and progress for the English people. The first two years he spent in festivity and pleasure, his father's hoard supplying ample means for his extravagance. To increase his popularity he caused the arrest and execution of Empson and Dudley, the agents in his father's extortions.

Hopeful
Beginning
of Henry's
Reign.

Wars with France and Scotland.—Desirous of military glory, urged on by his father-in-law, Ferdinand of Spain, and by Cardinal Wolsey, his great Chancellor, he made war on Louis XII. of France. The expedition was a failure; and the army, attacked by disease, returned to England greatly reduced in numbers. Next year he landed at Calais with twenty thousand men; and being joined by Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, laid siege to Terouenne in Picardy. Louis, with a body of cavalry advanced to its relief, but was completely routed.

1512
A.D.

This encounter is called the "Battle of the Spurs," from the hasty flight of the French, Terouenne and Tournay surrendered, and Henry, apparently content with the capture of these towns, returned to England.

"Battle of
the Spurs."

While Henry was in France, the Scotch under James IV. invaded England. This was done at the instigation of Louis, and was in keeping with the old friendship between Scotland and France. James was met at

1513
A.D.

Flodden Field by an English army under the Earl of Surrey. In the battle which ensued the Scotch were totally defeated. Ten thousand of their troops, many nobles, and the king himself were slain. In the following year a peace was made with France.

The Scotch
invade
England
and are
routed at
Flodden
Field.

Anticipating events somewhat, it may be mentioned here that James V. of Scotland, son and successor to James IV., married Mary of Guise, daughter of a French noble; and was involved later in a war with Henry by refusing to join him in his opposition to the Pope. An English army invaded Scotland and defeated James's troops at the battle of Solway Moss. This defeat affected James so much that he is said to have died of a broken heart. A marriage was then proposed between Henry's son Edward and the young Mary "Queen of Scots." The arrangements were nearly concluded by Henry and the regent Arran, when the match was broken off by the influence of Cardinal Beaton.

Scotland
invaded by
1541 an English
A.D. Army.
Battle of
Solway.

Henry, Charles, and Francis: The Field of the Cloth of Gold.—Francis I. succeeded Louis as King of France, and on the death of the Emperor of Germany

The Three
Leading
Monarchs
of Europe.

he was a candidate for the imperial throne. He was opposed by the King of Spain, who afterwards as Charles V. obtained possession of the empire. Henry, Francis, and Charles were the three leading monarchs of Europe. Francis and Charles paid court to Henry with a view to gain his favor and alliance. Charles visited England. Henry then crossed over to France, where he met Francis at Guienne near Calais. The splendor of

the kings and their retinues has given to the place of 1520 meeting the name "Field of the Cloth of Gold." **A.D.** After taking leave of Francis, Henry met Charles at Calais and then returned home. In the wars carried on later between Germany and France, Henry, advised by Wolsey, first took the side of Charles. But Wolsey, becoming displeased with the emperor, cooled in his friendship for him. And after the battle of Pavia in which Francis, as he himself said, "lost all but honor," was taken prisoner and was not released until he gave up Burgundy to Charles, Wolsey led his royal master to become an ally of Francis. Thus Henry gave his sympathy and help now to one, now to the other, but only to exhaust the treasury and to be obliged to exact benevolences from his subjects.

The Church: Heresy: Protestantism.—As this reign is specially noted for the separation of England from the unity of the Catholic faith, brought about by the so-called "Reformation," it is necessary that we go somewhat minutely into the causes and consequences of the unhappy and, to the English people, disastrous event.

When the Popes had decided to rebuild the Church of St. Peter at Rome, they appealed to the charity of Christians throughout the world for contributions in aid of this great work in which all Christendom was interested. Leo X., the successor of the Fisherman, to whom Christ had promised "Whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth shall be loosed also in heaven" (Matt. xvi. 19), proclaimed *indulgences* in favor of all the faithful who, by their alms, should take part in the good work. The enemies of the Catholic faith have described the granting of an indulgence as a par-

Henry's
Vacillating
Friendships.

The "Reformation."

doning of past sin and a licensing of sin in the future. There can be no grosser perversion of truth. An indulgence is neither a remission of past sin, nor a permission of future sin. It is a remission in whole or in part of the temporal punishment that remains due to sin, the guilt and eternal punishment of which had already been remitted in the Sacrament of Penance. As a necessary condition for gaining an indulgence we must be free from mortal sin. There can be no discharge of the temporal punishment where the guilt and the eternal punishment are still unremitted. So far from the granting of an indulgence being an encouragement to sin, the prospect of gaining it is a powerful incentive with some to abandon sin by having recourse to the Sacrament of Penance, that the sinner having received the pardon of his sin and the discharge of the eternal punishment due to it, he may be in a condition to receive the remission of the temporal punishment to which he may still be liable.

Martin Luther, an Augustinian monk and a professor in the University of Wittenberg, a man of an irritable and turbulent disposition, began in 1517 by exclaiming against the abuses which were said to have been practised in the publication of the Indulgences granted by Pope Leo X., already referred to. But soon after, he arbitrarily set himself up as a reformer of the Church, inveighed against the ecclesiastical authorities, especially against the Pope, whose supreme power he denounced as usurpation and tyranny, and which he said he would

Indulgences defined.

Neither Remission of Past Sin nor Permission of Future Sin.

Indulgences Powerful Incentives to abandon Sin.

Martin Luther.

1517 A.D.

bring to a miserable end. In pursuance of his wrong views, he rejected many articles of faith which the Church had received from Christ and His Apostles. He discarded the Holy Sacrifice of the Mass, Fasting, Confession, Prayers for the Dead, and many other pious practices; he declared good works to be useless, and taught that man is justified and saved by faith alone. He presumed to award to princes and sovereigns the right of confiscating the property of churches and convents, and of assigning it to any use they pleased. Luther boasted that he took his doctrine from the Bible only; but being misled by the false rule of private judgment in its interpretation, he soon fell into the most palpable contradictions and errors. Thus he asserted that "man has no free will, and consequently can neither keep the commandments nor avoid evil;" "that sin does not condemn man, provided he firmly believe," etc., etc. Nevertheless he soon obtained many followers; for the thoughtless multitude were very much pleased with such easy doctrine, which allowed them to lead a dissolute life; and covetous princes found nothing more conformable to their wishes than the suppression of churches and monasteries. Luther eagerly embraced any opportunity of increasing his party, and for this purpose he permitted the Landgrave of Hesse to contract a second marriage while his first wife was still living. The way of innovation and revolt being once opened by Luther, several others soon followed him; and they went even farther than he did.

The Elector of Germany and Charles V. saved Luther from punishment; this made him bolder and

**Many
Articles of
Faith
rejected.**

**The False
Rule of
Private
Judgment.**

**Luther's
Large
Following.**

prouder than ever. He promised over and over again to submit to the Pope, but when asked to do so he refused submission, becoming more and more obstinate. He therefore added broken promises to heresy.*

Henry VIII. was at first opposed to the new doctrines. He wrote a book against Luther's innovations, so able that it was popularly supposed to be in part the work of the Bishop of Rochester and Cardinal Wolsey. On the occasion of the presentation of this work to the Pope, Henry declared that the whole of England was Catholic and in full allegiance to the Holy See. The Pope conferred on Henry the title "Defender of the Faith," which is still retained by the English sovereigns.

The cause of Henry's withdrawal from the Church was his desire to marry Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honor. To attain this end, though he had been for eighteen years¹ married to Catherine of Aragon, he pretended to be troubled in conscience because she had been his brother's widow.

The greatest man in the kingdom at this time was Thomas, Cardinal Wolsey. He had risen from humble station to be Chancellor, Archbishop of York, and Cardinal; and, as is said, aimed at the Chair of Peter. At first he was inclined to favor Henry in his scruples; but the matter was referred to the Pope, who sent Cardinal Campeggio to England to form with Wolsey a court of investigation. The queen refused to acknowledge the jurisdiction of this court, and appealed to the

* *Heresy*, any doctrine opposed to the teaching of the Church. *Heretic*, one who propagates his private opinion in opposition to the Church.

**Luther's
Protectors.**

**Henry's
Early Op-
position to
the New
Doctrines.**

**Cause of
Henry's
With-
drawal
from the
Church.**

**Cardinal
Wolsey.**

Pope. He suspended the investigation, and summoned Henry and Catherine to Rome.

It is needless to say that this made Henry very angry; and Wolsey saw but too plainly that he was held responsible for the failure of the king's application for a divorce. Wolsey was stripped of

his chancellorship, and banished from the court. After a time he returned to his arch-
**Fall of
Wolsey.**

bishopric; but Anne now reigned supreme, and her vengeance was not satisfied. A few months later Wolsey was arrested on a charge of high treason. On his way to London he was seized by a fatal illness and obliged to rest at Leicester Abbey, where, after three days' sickness, he died. His last words were: "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served my king, he would not have given me up in my gray hairs." A modern historian, commenting on these words, says: "No words could paint with so terrible a truthfulness the spirit of the new despotism.

All sense of loyalty to England, to its freedom, to its institutions, had utterly passed away. The one duty which a statesman owed was a duty to his 'prince,' a prince whose personal will and appetite was overriding the highest interests of the state, trampling under foot the wisest counsels, and crushing with the blind ingratitude of Fate the servants who opposed him." But even Wolsey, while he recoiled from much that had been apparent to his sagacious mind, could scarcely have dreamed of the work of destruction which, in the course of a few years, was to be accomplished by his royal master.
**The Spirit
of the New
Despotism.**

In the mean time, Thomas Cranmer, a doctor of divinity of Cambridge, had expressed an opinion

that the king should submit the question of divorce to the learned men of Europe, and his belief that the decision would be favorable to his sovereign's wishes. Henry was duly informed of this, and sending for Cranmer, committed the matter to his care and study.

A fit colleague for Cranmer in the king's service and favor was Thomas Cromwell. At the time of Wolsey's disgrace Cromwell was a member of the Cardinal's household, to which distinction he came after a stormy and adventurous life in the continental wars and in England. On the retirement of the Cardinal to Esher before his return to his archdiocese, Cromwell accompanied him, and after some time desired permission to go to London, where he would "make or mar," to use his own expression, and put an end to the troubled state of affairs in the kingdom. In a private interview with the king, Cromwell boldly advised him to get rid of the difficulty about the divorce by the simple exercise of his own supremacy. The advice showed the character of the man; and his whole after-conduct was in keeping with this daring scheme. His creed was, that a statesman is one who knows how to rise by pandering to all the wishes of his sovereign; that morality and religion are nothing more than names.

1532 The death of Archbishop Warham enabled Henry
A.D. to place in the See of Canterbury a man who would help him in all his evil purposes. Thomas Cranmer was the man. He is usually styled "The Father of the English Reformation." Let us examine the character of the parent, and then we may judge

Cranmer
the "Father
of the Eng-
lish 'Refor-
mation.'"

the character of the offspring. By ordination a Catholic priest, in religious belief a Lutheran, already privately married a second time, he scrupled not to receive consecration as a Catholic archbishop and to take an oath of inviolable fidelity to the Holy See, when he knew well that his main object was to destroy the authority of that See. On the morning of his consecration he called four witnesses into St. Stephen's Chapel, and in their presence declared that, by the oath he was about to take, he did not intend to bind himself to anything which would prevent him from hereafter assisting the king in the work of Church reformation. He then proceeded to the altar, took the oath with all possible solemnity, received the sacred unction, celebrated the Holy Sacrifice of the Mass whose doctrine he secretly blasphemed, and loaded his miserable soul with the double guilt of sacrilege and perjury. Such was the father of the English "Reformation." He wished to have referred to himself the question of the king's marriage; and wrote a letter to Henry asking him "for the good of his soul" to agree to this. Henry consented; but Catherine refused to appear. Judgment was given against her; the marriage between her and Henry was declared to have been null and void from the beginning. Cranmer's next letter to the king was couched in terms of grave severity. Henry must no longer persist in a marriage condemned by the law of God and now declared unlawful by "Holy Church," which here meant Cranmer himself. Let the king, therefore, bow with resignation to the will of God. Such were the blasphemous words of advice given by Cranmer to Henry. Four months previous

**Cranmer's
Blasphem-
ous Advice
and
Actions.**



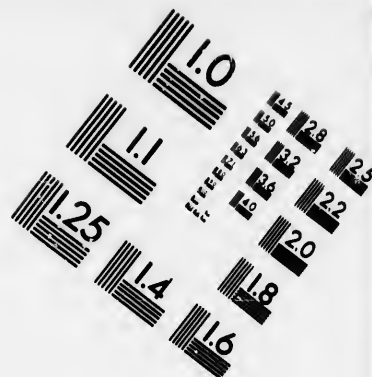
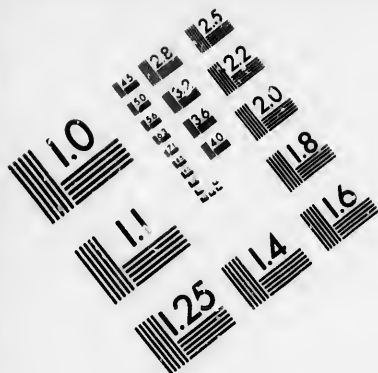
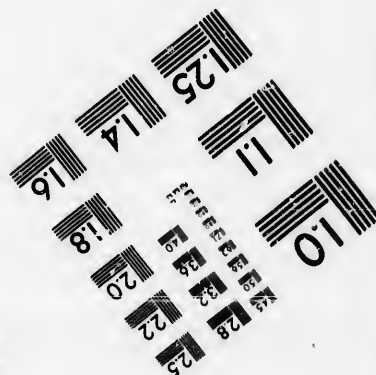
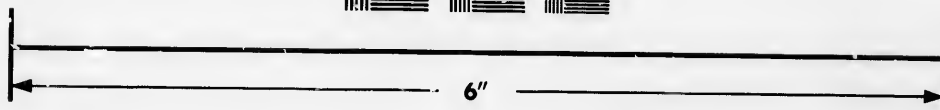
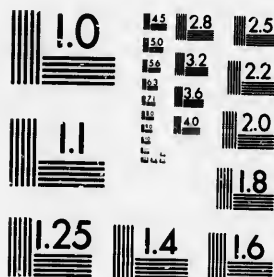


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to this a marriage had actually taken place between the king and Anne. Another court was now assembled, in which Cranmer hesitated not to confirm by his pastoral authority the marriage, celebrated as it had been before the king's union with Catherine had been dissolved. So strange a proceeding,

**The King's
Attempted
Justification.**

Henry attempted to justify by declaring that he had examined and decided the question in the court of his own conscience, "which was enlightened by the Spirit of God, who possesseth and directeth the hearts of princes." Four months later, on the 1st September, 1533, a princess was born, who received the name Elizabeth, and who lived to complete the work of evil which the sinful union of her parents had begun.

1534 These proceedings hastened the decision of the
A.D. Holy See; and on the 2d March, 1534, the sentence was pronounced which declared the marriage of Henry and Catherine valid and indissoluble, and which charged the king to restore her to her rights under pain of excommunication. But when that

1534 sentence reached the Court of Henry, England had already severed herself from the communion
A.D.

**Henry constituted
Head of the
Church in
England by
Parliament.**

of the Church. Acts of Parliament had been passed making Henry the head of the Church in England, and his subjects were called on, under the penalty attached to high treason, to acknowledge his supremacy and the lawfulness of his late marriage. Inquisitorial power was given to the government to call on any one they pleased and oblige him to express his convictions on these points. The cruel work began with the monasteries. Henry hated them for their refusal to acknowledge him as head

of the Church, and he coveted their revenues. His agents trumped up false charges against the monks and nuns. The Protestant historian Green says: "The character of the visitors, the sweeping nature of their report, and the long debate which followed on its reception, leave little doubt that the charges were grossly exaggerated." The state of the country at this time is described by Green as follows: "From the enslavement of the clergy, from the gagging of the pulpits, from the suppression of the monasteries the bulk of the nation held aloof. It is only through the stray depositions of royal spies that we catch a glimpse of the wrath and hate which lay seething under this silence of a whole people. For the silence was a silence of terror. Before Cromwell's rise and after his fall the reign of Henry VIII. witnessed no more than the common tyranny and bloodshed of the time. But the years of Cromwell's administration form the one period in our history which deserves the name given to the rule of Robespierre. It was the 'Reign of Terror' in England."

**"Reign of
Terror" in
England.**

The order for the suppression of the monasteries led to the destruction of six hundred and forty-five religious houses, one hundred and ten endowed hospitals, two thousand three hundred and seventy-four chantries and chapels, and ninety colleges. The revenue which thus went to the king and his favorites, to whom he gave the house and lands, amounted to one hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling a year besides the value of the movable property. Cromwell himself received thirty abbeys as his share of the plunder.

**Destruction
of Monas-
teries, etc.**

The destruction of the monasteries caused great

discontent among the people. The monks had been good landlords and hospitable entertainers of all travellers; and had been accustomed to give away corn, fruit, meal, and other things to all comers. Soon risings took place, especially in the north; the whole country from Scotland to the Humber was aflame. A vast multitude appeared in the field, marching under a banner whereon was displayed the crucifix, the chalice, and the Sacred Host, while on their sleeves they wore badges of the Five Wounds. This they called the "Pilgrimage of Grace." Wherever they came the monks were restored to their abbeys. Henry was so alarmed that

**Henry's
Specious
Promises.**

he thought it advisable to treat with the insurgents. Deceived by his fair promises, the people returned to their homes. But after a few months, finding that Henry failed to keep his promises, they again took the field. The king was prepared for them on this occasion, having in the mean time placed garrisons over the whole country. The poor people were taken and hanged in scores, martial law prevailing for the time.

John Fisher,* Cardinal Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More* next fell victims to Henry's tyranny. Both were executed for denying the king's supremacy.

Henry's religious opinions were very strange. Immediately after the suppression of the monasteries he ordered a law to be passed, sometimes called, from the persecutions which followed, the "Bloody Statute." This visited the severest penalties on those who denied the Real Presence, Confession, Masses for the dead, celibacy of the clergy, obligations of monastic vows, and Holy Communion in both kinds.

* Cardinal John Fisher and Sir Thomas More were beatified in 1886, by Pope Leo XIII.

The last to suffer from Henry's tyranny was the Earl of Surrey; his father, the Duke of Norfolk, escaped a similar fate by the death of Henry.

Constitutional History.—This may be summed up very briefly. Parliament assembled only to sanction acts of unscrupulous tyranny, or to build up by its own statutes the great fabric of absolute rule. All the constitutional safeguards of English freedom were swept away. Arbitrary taxation, arbitrary legislation, arbitrary imprisonment, were powers claimed without dispute and unsparingly used by the Crown.

Subser-
viency of
Parliament.

Henry's Character and Death.—Henry had six wives, of whom some he divorced, others he caused to be executed on charges brought against them. Three of these wives bore him children: Mary, daughter of Catherine of Aragon; Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn; and Edward, son of Jane Seymour. The character of Henry it is unnecessary to sketch in formal words. His acts, recorded in the preceding pages, tell but too plainly what he was. He died as he had lived. Historians tell of the dark

cloud of despair that hung over his last moments, his fearful cry of "Monks! monks!" either because he saw the spec-

The King's
Dread Last
Moments.

tres of his stained and slaughtered victims round his couch, or because the remorse and terror which were gnawing his soul were crying out for repentance, for confession, ere it was too late. They tell how in the last moments, when, scorched with the burning thirst of death, he called for a cup of wine, and, turning to his attendants, uttered in accents of unspeakable terror the words, "All is lost!" and immediately expired. As his body, which was one mass of disease and corruption, was carried to Windsor, it

rested during the night amid the broken walls of Sion Abbey, one of those which had been desecrated by his sacrilegious hands. Here the coffin burst; and the blood of the spoiler was licked up by a dog, fulfilling the prophecy made by one of the friars who had been expelled from his monastery.

We have dwelt at some length on this reign; but the unhappy movement which led to the severance of England from the Rock of Peter is too grave in itself and in its consequences to permit our passing over it briefly.

It has been claimed that the new faith gave to the people in this reign, and for the first time, an "open Bible." The open Bible in the sense in which it is here used has resulted in the confusion of sects into which the Protestant system has resolved itself. But, as has been seen, from the days of Alfred certain portions of the Bible were translated for the use of the masses. Blessed Thomas More speaks of exact and faithful reproductions of the sacred text in use in England before the time of Wycliffe. It was only erroneous translations of the Bible, favoring heresy or schism, which had been condemned by the Church. It must be remembered that in more primitive times most of those who could read at all could read the Latin Bible. A knowledge of Latin was much more widely diffused than at present, so that the Bible chained to the wall in many of the parochial churches of mediæval England gave a large number of people access to the Sacred Scriptures. Moreover, the study of Holy Writ was a part of the education given in the parochial and cathedral schools.

**Henry's
Blood
licked up
by a Dog.**

**Result of an
"Open
Bible."**

**The Bible in
Mediæval
England.**

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CHAPTER III.

EDWARD VI.

A.D. 1547 to A.D. 1553.

Edward's Accession: Regency.	Fate of Somerset.
Proposed Marriage: Consequences.	Northumberland: the Succession.
Protestantism Established.	Constitutional History.
Discontent of the People.	Edward's Character and Death.

Edward's Accession: Regency.—Edward, only son of Henry, succeeded to the throne in the tenth year of his age. In accordance with the will of the late king, a council of sixteen was appointed to manage the affairs of government during Edward's minority. The president of this council was Edward's uncle (brother to Queen Jane Seymour), the Earl of Hertford. The first act of the council was to create new peerages and raise the rank of old ones. Hertford became Duke of Somerset; his brother, Baron Seymour. But as titles without revenues were of little value, the nobles were enriched out of the church lands. Having made *themselves* comfortable, the council proceeded to look after the nation. Somerset caused himself to be raised to the dignity of Protector of the kingdom, with power equal to that of a king.

The Council of Regency enrich themselves.

Proposed Marriage of Edward: Consequences.—As we saw in the last reign, Henry desired a marriage between Edward and Mary the young Queen of Scots. The Protector made another attempt to bring about this union; but the Scotch Parliament refused

1547 its sanction. This so displeased the Protector that he invaded Scotland, and defeated the Scotch army in the battle of Pinkie. Mary was sent to France, where, in course of time, she was married to the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II.

Protestantism Established.—The work of "Reformation" went on. Cranmer and Somerset were resolved that Protestantism should be the religion of the State.

The Parliament met and placed all offices, including bishoprics, in the king's hands. The bishops, after acknowledging the king's supremacy and the new doctrines, were reappointed *during pleasure*. The statute of "Six Articles" was repealed. All the remaining ecclesiastical property was vested in the crown, nominally for learning and religion, but really to be divided among the new nobility. The work thus begun was continued by the council, which had already regulated preaching by the publication of twelve "homilies" or sermons to be read in all the churches. A committee of bishops and divines was appointed to "amend" the offices of the Church. They produced the "Book of Common Prayer," which was to take the place of the Missal. The use of the new book was enjoined by Parliament, which now passed

The Offices of the Church "amended."

1549 the first "Act of Uniformity." Thus was the greatest and most worthy of all acts of worship—sacrifice—banished from the new creed. The altars were removed, there was no longer any need for them; the sanctuary lamp was extinguished, the Real Presence had fled to other shrines; crucifixes, images of the

A.D.

Scotland invaded.

1549 A.D.

Blessed Mother of God and the saints, were cast out; confession was abolished.

All the bishops except two—Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and Bonner, Bishop of London—silently acquiesced in these measures, which, however, met with stern opposition from the people. It soon became apparent

**Acquies-
cence of the
Bishops.
Persecu-
tions.**

that strong measures must be taken with those who clung to the old faith. The country was divided into districts; wandering preachers were sent into them to preach blasphemies against the Holy Sacrifice and other Catholic doctrines. Many persons were executed. Great efforts were made to induce the Princess Mary of England to give up the Catholic faith; but her own steadfastness and the power of her cousin Charles V. of Germany protected her from the persecution of the times.

Discontent of the People.—The change of religion was not the only cause of discontent among the people. They were in sore distress. The rapacious nobles who had taken the property of which the Church had been robbed, enclosed great quantities of land for the feeding of sheep. This, on account of the high price of wool, was more profitable than growing crops. Hence, thousands of laborers and tenant-farmers were reduced to beggary. The mendicants who had formerly obtained relief from the charity of the monks now swarmed over the country, often obtaining assistance from travellers under threats of violence. The savage law that any man who lived idly and loitered about for three days together should be burned with the letter V (Vagrant) on his breast, made a slave, and wear an

**Distress of
the People.**

**Vagrancy
Law.**

iron fetter, still further exasperated the people and drove them to revolt. The Protector became alarmed; and bands of foreign soldiers hired for a war against Scotland were sent to quell the disturbance. It is needless to follow the events of this dreadful time. Deeds of violence and massacre were followed by scenes of wholesale plunder of the remaining property of the Church. "Revolt was stamped out in blood."

Fall of Somerset.—The blame for these disturbances was laid on Somerset, and prepared the way for his downfall. His brother, Lord Seymour, who held the post of High Admiral of England, had married Catherine Parr, widow of Henry VIII. On her death, Seymour aspired to the hand of the Princess Elizabeth. Secretly jealous of the power of his brother, he worked quietly for his overthrow. His designs were discovered; he was committed to the Tower and executed. Somerset was now in a dangerous position. The execution of his brother excited a general feeling of hatred against him; his sympathy with the people estranged the nobles; and his destruction of churches and other religious houses, which he pulled down to build his house in London—still known as Somerset House—increased his unpopularity.

Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of Dudley who was put to death by Henry VIII., was now the formidable rival of Somerset. So successful were his schemes that the Protector was arrested on charges of treason and plotting against the lives of certain members of the government. He was acquitted on the first charge; but was found guilty on the second, and was beheaded.

Northumberland.—Warwick, made Duke of North-

Lord
Seymour.

Somerset's
Powerful
Rival.

1552

A.D.

Northumberland, now became Protector; and, owing to the declining health of the king, ruled the king and kingdom with absolute authority. The great ambition of Northumberland was to secure the crown for his own family. To this end he caused the marriage of his son, Lord Guilford Dudley, to Lady Jane Grey, great granddaughter of Henry VII. (see genealogical table). By working on the religious prejudices of the king and stirring up his fears that a Catholic sovereign would succeed him, Northumberland induced him to set aside the claims of Mary, Elizabeth, and Mary Queen of Scots, and make Lady Jane Grey his successor. At first Edward was not willing to do this; but when he summoned the judges to draw up the deed and they pointed out to him that his intended action was illegal, requiring an Act of Parliament to authorize it he became angry, and was now as anxious to sign away his kingdom from the rightful heir, Mary, as he was before opposed to it. The document was drawn up, and immediately received the signature of the king.

Northumberland's Great Ambition.

Edward signs away the Kingdom from the Rightful Heir.

Constitutional History.—The Parliament of this reign was, as usual, the creature of the king in passing laws for the oppression of the people and for the establishment of the new religion.

Edward's Character and Death.—Edward has received extravagant praises from Protestant historians; but the character of a boy of sixteen can scarcely be looked on as formed. He was attentive and industrious in his studies; made a great show of statesmanship; was pious according to his light; was warmly attached to the

An Ardent Protestant.

Protestant cause, and hated the old faith with a violent hatred. The last prayer on his lips was that God would defend the nation from "papisty" and maintain "His true religion."

For some years Edward had been in delicate health. Consumption finally seized on his weak frame, and he was placed under the care of a woman who pretended to be able to cure him. He died on 6th July, 1553 A.D. 1553.

CHAPTER IV.

MARY I.

{ A.D. 1553 to A.D. 1558.

Mary's Accession.	Mary's Marriage.
Re-establishment of the Catholic Faith.	Religious Troubles.
Proposed Marriage of Mary:	War with France.
Consequences.	Mary's Character and Death.

Mary's Accession.—The scheme for placing Lady Jane Grey on the throne was destined to prove a failure. The temper of the whole people rebelled against so lawless a usurpation. The Council no sooner saw the popular reaction than they proclaimed Mary Queen. The fleet and the levies of the shires declared in her favor. Northumberland's courage gave way; he retired to Cambridge, where he was one of the first to throw up his cap and shout, "Long live Queen Mary!" She entered London among the acclamations of the people. Her first act was to liberate those eminent persons who had been imprisoned in the last reign. Among these were Bishops Gardiner, Tonstal, and Bonner, the Duke of Norfolk, and Lord Courtney.

Mary's
First Act.
Her
Clemency.

From a list of twenty-five persons who had been leaders in the attempt to deprive her of the throne, who had thus been guilty of treason, and who, by the law of the land, deserved death, she struck off sixteen names with her own hands. Of the remaining nine, only three were executed—Northumberland and two of his associates. They died professing themselves Catholics and exhorting the people to return to the true faith. Lady Jane Grey and her husband, Bishops Cranmer and Ridley—all of whom had taken part in Northumberland's rebellion—were committed to the Tower.

Re-establishment of the Catholic Faith.—As was perfectly natural, Mary's next step was the re-establishment of the Catholic faith. Until the consent of Parliament had been obtained none were to be interfered with on account of their religion; but in the mean time five Catholic prelates who had been deprived of their sees were restored. Mass was solemnly celebrated in Canterbury Cathedral. Mary was crowned with all the pomp of Catholic ceremonial by Bishop Gardiner, who was now raised to the dignity of Chancellor. In October following, Mary opened her first Parliament. In accordance with the ancient form, all the peers assisted at the Mass of the Holy Ghost. This Parliament once more affirmed the validity of the marriage between Henry VIII. and Catherine of Aragon, and passed an act restoring the Catholic religion. Mary's next step was to bring England once more into communion with the Holy See. But here came her first difficulty. The Lords and Commons, who were willing enough to see the Catholic religion the religion of the State,

Prelates
restored
and Mass
celebrated.

1553
A D.

Mary's
First
Difficulty.

did not like so well the establishment of the Pope's authority. They had been enriched with the spoils of the Church; and they had a very natural fear that the first act of a papal legate would be to oblige them to make restitution of the ill-gotten goods. They swore they would never part with their church lands so long as they could wield a weapon. Mary, therefore, had to postpone this part of her plan until she consulted the Pope.

Proposed Marriage of Mary: Consequences.—In the mean time the question of Mary's marriage disturbed the kingdom. It was the desire of Charles V., Emperor of Germany, that she should marry his son, Philip II. of Spain; Mary's own inclinations were in favor of the match. With many this marriage was

**Insurrec-
tion.**

unpopular, and it led to insurrection. Two risings under the Duke of Suffolk and Sir Peter Carew were easily quelled; but another under Sir Thomas Wyatt, a Catholic by profession, was more formidable. Opposed to the match on purely national grounds, he was desirous to bring about a marriage between Lord Courtney and the Princess Elizabeth, and to place the latter on her sister's throne. The insurgents were defeated; Wyatt was taken prisoner and sent to the Tower. This rebellion had the sympathy, if not the help, of France. It led to the execution of Suffolk, and sealed the fate of his daughter, Lady Jane Grey, who with her husband was executed.

1554
A.D. Union of
England
with the
Holy See.

Mary's Marriage.—Some months later Mary was married to Philip of Spain. The ceremony took place in Winchester Cathedral, and was marked by extraordinary magnificence. Soon after this the great desire of her

life was accomplished—the union of England with the Holy See. Cardinal Reginald Pole was appointed Papal Legate, and was empowered by the Pope to assure to all holders of church property undisturbed possession of their lands.

Religious Troubles.—Now began those shameful acts of the Protestant party—acts which, unhappily, led to the execution of great numbers. The agents of that party were busy stirring up the people to sedition and exciting them to the grossest irreverences.

Shameful
Acts of the
Protestant
Party.

Those who had fled from England on Mary's accession poured into the country floods of literature, which, with disgusting profanity, boldly advocated the dethronement of the queen. Mary's death was especially prayed for by some of them, and the vilest calumnies were circulated regarding her. Men were hired to sing abominable ballads, to disseminate Protestant doctrines, and to mimic in ale-houses and other places of public resort the most sacred ceremonies of the Catholic faith. In one church the priest was attacked at the altar and stabbed as he was giving Holy Communion; in another the Blessed Sacrament was taken from the tabernacle and trampled under foot. The queen's chaplains were often fired at in the streets. Gardiner and his colleagues proceeded, therefore, to put into execution the law of the land against heresy. This statute was passed one hundred and fifty-four years before, and had been occasionally enforced. The severity with which this law was carried out cannot be excused; but it must be remembered that the punishment was inflicted by the civil law, not by the Church, and that these exe-

The Statute
against
Heresy en-
forced.

cutions were not general throughout the kingdom. Many Catholics opposed the executions. But, unfortunately, the spirit of the times was a bloody spirit. Henry VIII. began the inhuman work; and the spirit of persecution seemed to have grown in the very nature of the rulers of the age. The insulting and treasonable attitude of the Protestants towards Mary, described before, while it does not palliate the executions, shows the deep provocation for them.

War with France.—The intrigues of the French Court with the English Protestants, and the enmity of Philip against France, led to a war with that country. An army of Spaniards and English invaded Flanders and defeated the French at the battle of St. Quentin. But this victory was insignificant compared with the loss of Calais, which took place not long after. This city, which had been in the possession of the English for two hundred and eleven years, and which was their only possession in France, was now taken by the French. Its loss was looked upon by the English people as a great national calamity and disgrace, and Mary felt it to the last moment of her life.

Mary's Character and Death.—The religious persecutions which marked Mary's reign were the chief blot on her character. That they were the work of her ministers rather than her own is scarcely a justification. But this much may be said for Mary—she acted in harmony with the spirit of the times, and she at least believed in the faith she professed. She held the sincere conviction that the propa-

Bloody
Spirit of
the Times.

1557
1558

A.D.

Calais taken
by the
French.

Religious
Persecu-
tions the
Chief Blot
on Mary's
Character.

gation of what she knew to be erroneous doctrines was injurious to the best interests of her subjects at large. In this she compares favorably with her sister Elizabeth, who persecuted without the merit of sincere belief. The private life of Mary was beyond reproach, and she had at heart the good of her kingdom. She was a lover of the poor, a lover of children, a lover of prayer and mortification, and of the practice of her religion. She stood almost alone in her adherence to the true faith when so many others in high places abandoned it, and spent her life in fruitless efforts to bring back her country to that faith.

**Her Private
Life beyond
Reproach.**

In September, 1558, the fever then prevalent attacked the queen. She lingered a while, and on the 16th November, 1558, died, fortified by the sacraments of Holy Church.

CHAPTER V.

ELIZABETH.

A.D. 1558 to A.D. 1603.

Elizabeth's Accession.
Re-establishment of Protestantism.
The Puritans.
Mary Queen of Scots.
Risings: The Bull of Excommunication.
Penal Laws.

Protectorate of the Netherlands.
The Spanish Armada.
Affairs in Ireland.
Constitutional History.
Progress of the Country.
Literature.
Elizabeth's Character and Death.

Elizabeth's Accession.—Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, succeeded to the throne. In her accession she had the good-will of all classes, Catholics as well as Protestants.

Re-establishment of Protestantism.—During the last reign Elizabeth had professed the old faith ; but she now saw that its continuance as the religion of the state would at once raise the question of her own legitimacy. Supported by a party of able councillors, the leader of whom was Sir William Cecil, better known as Lord Burleigh, she determined to re-establish Protestantism and make herself supreme head of the Church of England. Cecil, who was a zealous "reformer" in Edward's reign and a no less zealous Catholic in Mary's reign, was now once more an ardent Protestant. The first thing done was to administer to the council the oath of supremacy. All the bishops and many of the other members refused. Then a difficulty arose about Elizabeth's coronation. The bishops declined to take any part in this ceremony so long as the queen persisted in assuming the title "Head of the Church." At last the Bishop of Carlisle was induced to officiate, but on condition that Elizabeth took the ancient oath "to maintain the laws and privileges of the Church as they had existed under Edward the Confessor." With this oath she was crowned. Her next step was to call a parliament, carefully packed by Cecil. This parliament confirmed Elizabeth's title, declared her supreme head of the Church in England, and empowered her to entrust her jurisdiction to a commission, known as the Court of High Commission. It suggested to Elizabeth the advisability of her marriage. It once more abolished the Holy Sacrifice of the Mass, restored the Book of Common Prayer, and by a new act of uniformity prescribed its use under heavy penalties. The bishops, with

**Elizabeth's
Change of
Faith, and
the Reason.**

**Acts of Par-
liament.**

one exception, refused the oath of supremacy ; they were at once dismissed from their sees, and their places filled by persons of the new faith. From this time we have the name, *non-jurors*, applied to those who refused the oath.

Dr. Matthew Parker, formerly Chaplain to Anne Boleyn, was made Archbishop of Canterbury. An important question now arose—
 who would consecrate these bishops? To save appearances, some show of consecration was thought necessary. After considerable delay there were chosen three men, who had held dioceses under Edward VI., and to these were added another—all four, therefore, without episcopal jurisdiction. Whether any of the four had received episcopal consecration is extremely doubtful ; but they now proceeded to consecrate Parker, who, a few days later, inducted two of them into sees, and consecrated other bishops according to the form of King Edward's prayer-book. The nullity of these "consecrations" was plain even to Elizabeth's government, which accordingly attempted by act of Parliament to supply what was wanted, declaring that all which had been done had been done aright, and that the queen by *her supreme power and authority* dispensed with all disabilities and imperfections which might exist in the consecration of her bishops. Thus was the Protestant hierarchy of England first established, not by Divine authority acting through His Church, the Holy Catholic Church, but on the authority of Queen Elizabeth and an act of Parliament. The inferior clergy, most of whom refused to give up the old faith, were le-

"Consecration" of Bishops.

The Protestant Hierarchy.

prived of their living and thrown into prison, while their places were filled by others.

The Puritans.—Of the Protestant party there was a certain portion who considered that the "Reformation" had not gone far enough. They objected to government by bishops, to all outward forms and ceremonies, such as the sign of the cross, surplices for the clergy, etc., and to the new prayer-book, which, they said, was made up of "the rags of Popery." They called themselves *Puritans*. For a time they were permitted to hold their opinions undisturbed; but at length they were called on to comply with the form of worship established in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Many refused, and were consequently driven from their churches, their books condemned, the congregations broken up, and the worshippers dispersed. They were called *Non-Conformists* or *Dissenters* by their enemies; one branch was afterwards known as the *Independents*. Most of

A Subservient Bishop. the bishops were opposed to more severe measures; but Archbishop Whitgift, who became head of the Court of High Commission, was just the man Elizabeth wanted. Many of the Puritans were convicted of treason against the queen's supremacy, and were hanged at Tyburn. Many Catholics suffered death by these laws, and we shall see presently that for them there were greater severities in store.

Mary Queen of Scots.—Mary Queen of Scots was married at the age of eighteen to the Dauphin of France, son of Francis I., mentioned in the reign of Henry VIII. The Dauphin soon afterwards succeeded to the throne as Francis II. On his death Mary returned to Scot-

Married to the Dauphin of France.

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land, where the worst features of the change in religion disturbed the country. Her strong attachment to the Catholic faith drew upon her the enmity of the Protestant party, at the head of which was that violent Puritan, John Knox. Conspiracies which were secretly encouraged by Elizabeth were formed to drive Mary from the throne. The events of her unhappy life are too numerous to record here. We can barely mention her marriage with her cousin, Lord Darnley (after her, heir to the throne of Scotland); the birth of a son, afterwards James I. of England; Darnley's assassination by Bothwell and the confederate lords; their artful scheme of throwing the odium of their crime on Queen Mary herself; the rebellion which followed, and which ended by making her a prisoner in Lochleven Castle, where she was forced to resign the crown in favor of her infant son, who was crowned at Stirling as James VI., in the second year of his age, with Murray as regent. From this captivity Mary escaped, and at the head of an army met the forces of the traitor Murray at Langside near Glasgow, where she was defeated. As a last resource she fled to the protection of Elizabeth, who, jealous of Mary's better right to the throne of England, and terrified at the thought of a Catholic successor, kept her in imprisonment for eighteen years, finally signing the warrant for her execution on the false charge of plotting against Elizabeth's life. Mary was beheaded. James of Scotland blustered a good deal over the murder of his mother, and Elizabeth pretended great grief; but Walsingham, one of her ministers, came to the rescue and pointed out to

1565
A.D.

Marriage
with Darn-
ley, and Re-
sulting Mis-
fortunes.

1567
A.D.

1567
A.D.

1568
A.D.

Mary flees
to Elizabeth
for Protec-
tion. Is
imprisoned,
and
eventually
beheaded.

1587
A.D.

both that the security of their crowns and of the Protestant religion depended on their friendship.

**Protestant
Historians
on the
Execution
of Mary.**

Some Protestant historians justify Mary's death by saying that, "while she lived, England was always in trouble from conspiracy and threatened invasions." But the same historians very carefully keep this argument out of sight in the case of Lady Jane Grey. Collier, in speaking of Mary, says: "Whatever may have been her faults and follies, she received a tenfold punishment in the slow torture of her nineteen years' captivity, and her violent death is a foul stain on the memory of Elizabeth."

Risings: The Bull of Excommunication.—The persecution of the Catholics caused great discontent: the imprisonment of Mary Queen of Scots drove them into rebellion. In the northern counties large numbers took the field, but at the approach of the royal troops under the Earl of Sussex the insurgents fled.

**New
Severities.**

This rising was made a pretext for new severities. Three hundred villages were wasted with fire and sword; the orders of Sussex were that two hundred should be put to death in each. Pardon was offered to the survivors on condition that they would take the oath of supremacy.

Up to the present the Pope looked sadly on the unhappy state of affairs in England; now he could no longer remain silent. Accordingly Pius V., who then sat in the Chair of Peter, issued a bull which, after enumerating the crimes of Elizabeth, pronounced against her the solemn sentence of excommunication. Elizabeth, professing Protestant though she was, took this so much to heart that she applied to the Emperor to

**Elizabeth
excom-
municated.**

1569
A.D.

use his influence with the Pope for the withdrawal of the excommunication.

Penal Laws.—The reign of Elizabeth is specially noted for the cruel "Penal Laws" against Catholics. These savage laws were multiplying on the statute-book. It was death to a priest to come to England; death to harbor him; death to confess to him; death for him to execute any of his priestly functions, particularly to reconcile any one to the Catholic faith. Non-attendance at the Protestant Church service was punished by a ruinous fine; those who could not pay it were imprisoned and their ears bored with a hot iron. Still the Faith lived on in spite of hate, gibbet, and rack. Fresh bands of devoted priests came from the continental colleges to England, many of them to die a martyr's death on the scaffold. The history of the lives of these priests is the history of the Church at this period.

The Faith
lives on
despite Per-
secution.

Protectorate of the Netherlands.—The Netherlands or Low Countries, now forming the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium, belonged first to the House of Burgundy, but were afterwards, by marriage, transferred to the House of Austria. They were thus inherited by Charles V. from his father, and were now ruled by his son, Philip II. of Spain. The religious troubles of the time led to a series of attempts at independence, chiefly under the leadership of the Prince of Orange, afterwards known as William the Silent. Elizabeth pretended friendship for each party; but many of her subjects joined the insurgents. The struggle in these states is of interest to us only in so far as it led to Elizabeth's acceptance of the

Struggle
for Inde-
pendence.
Elizabeth
accepts the
Protector-
ate.

1585 protectorate of the Netherlands, and her sending
A.D. over an army under her favorite, Robert Dudley,
 Earl of Leicester.

The Spanish Armada.—In the year following the death of Mary Queen of Scots, England was threatened by a Spanish invasion. Philip of Spain became exasperated by the conduct of the English government. They assisted his rebellious subjects in Flanders, pillaged his treasure-ships returning from the New World, and sent Captains Drake and Hawkins to ravage and destroy his American colonies. He fitted out a great fleet of one hundred and thirty large vessels, carrying thirty thousand men, for the invasion of England.

Philip fits out the Armada.

The loyalty of the whole nation, Catholics and Protestants, was aroused; a land force under Leicester and a fleet under Lord Howard, Drake, and Hawkins were organized to meet the foe. On the 20th July, **1588**
A.D. 1588, the Spanish Armada entered the Channel. The English ships sailed out to meet them; and for some days there were bloody conflicts, the English ships holding their own. But the credit of defeating the Spanish Armada is not due to the English fleet, but to a storm which scattered the Spanish vessels and wrecked many of them. The Spanish admiral was obliged to return to Spain with the remnant of the large armament, and reported to Philip that the Invincible Armada was all but totally destroyed. England rejoiced over this defeat. Public celebrations were held: among these were a few executions of Catholics to more effectively mark the victory. From this to the end of Elizabeth's reign the scaffold streamed with blood and the jails overflowed with prisoners.

The Armada defeated.

1588
A.D.

Affairs in Ireland.—The evils of religious strife were even greater in Ireland than in England.

English tyranny, and the fines, tortures, and murders by which it was attempted to force the new religion on the Irish people—the most Catholic people on earth,—drove

**Religious
Persecution
and subse-
quent
Rebellion.**

them into rebellion. Another of Elizabeth's favorites, the Earl of Essex, was sent to quell the disturbance, but he was obliged to make a truce with O'Neill, Earl

1598

of Tyrone, and return to England. The rising was

A.D.

afterwards quelled by Lord Mountjoy in the usual

1601

manner—the murder of men, women, and children,

A.D.

the burning of houses and crops, so that there

was nothing left to save the survivors from star-

vation. Essex fell into disgrace, was led into con-

spiracy against the Queen, was condemned and exe-

cuted.

Constitutional History.—The changes which led to the conflict between the Crown and the people in later

reigns showed themselves in the reign of

Elizabeth. She was just as arbitrary as her

**Monopolies
abandoned
by the
Crown.**

Tudor predecessors. There was the same

straining of statutes, the same arbitrary

power; but she endeavored to soften down all, and to

retrace her steps if she felt she had ventured too far.

The *Monopolies* with which she fettered trade, she

abandoned at the request of Parliament.

Though the Parliament met but rarely, it gained

power. It established the freedom of its members

from arrest, and its own right to punish

them if occasion required it. It also regu-

**Increased
Power of
Parliament.**

lated the manner of holding elections. It

passed laws for the support of the poor—laws heard

of for the first time in English history, as in the old

Catholic times there were no poor: the monasteries prevented this.

Progress of the Country.—Farming and manufacturing were now carried on with vigor. English commerce was rapidly developed, English ships being found in all parts of the world. Thus the wealth of the country increased; but unfortunately with this spread of commerce came the slave trade, which continued so many years to the disgrace of those civilized communities which tolerated it.

The Slave Trade.

Literature.—In this reign we find some of the brightest names which have adorned the roll of English authors. This was the age of Spenser, Shakespeare, Sydney, and Bacon.

Elizabeth's Character and Death.—Elizabeth was an able ruler and raised England to a high position among European nations. Of her private and personal character it is unnecessary to speak here.

Zeal for Protestantism the Marked Feature of Elizabeth's Reign.

Zeal for the Protestant religion is the marked feature of her reign—a zeal which almost always ran into cruelty and bloodshed. The times of “good Queen Bess,” as her admirers call her, are times of the sorest trouble and suffering for all who would not conform to the Church “by law established,” particularly for Catholics. Elizabeth died unmarried, leaving no direct descendant of Henry VIII. to succeed to the throne.

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STUART PERIOD.

A.D. 1603 to A.D. 1714.

James I. A.D. 1603 to A.D. 1625
Charles I. (son)..... A.D. 1625 to A.D. 1649
Commonwealth... A.D. 1649 to A.D. 1660
Charles II. (son of Charles I.) A.D. 1660 to A.D. 1685
James II. (brother)..... A.D. 1685 to A.D. 1688
William III. (nephew) A.D. 1688 to A.D. 1702
Anne (daughter of James II.) A.D. 1702 to A.D. 1714

CHAPTER I.

JAMES I.

A.D. 1603 to A.D. 1625.

James's Right to the Throne:	The King's Favorites: the
His Coronation.	Spanish Match.
Plot in Favor of Arabella Stuart.	Colonization: Confiscation of
Treatment of Catholics and	Irish Lands.
Puritans: Gunpowder Plot.	Constitutional History.
Foreign Relations.	Character and Death of James.

James's Right to the Throne: His Coronation.—By the death of Elizabeth the family of Henry VIII became extinct. Two of the descendants of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., came next in the succession—James VI. of Scotland, descended from Margaret by her marriage with James IV. of Scotland;

and Lady Arabella Stuart, descended from the same Margaret by her marriage with Archibald Douglas, Earl of Angus. The English people recognized the right of James, and he was proclaimed king a few hours after Elizabeth's death.

At every stage of his journey from Edinburgh to London he was received with warm demonstrations of loyalty; but his personal appearance and demeanor were not kingly, and by the time he reached his new capital his popularity was considerably diminished.

Even the lavish distribution of titles—he conferred the honor of knighthood on seven hundred persons in three months—did not impress the people in his favor. James and his queen were crowned at Westminster. Thus were England and Scotland united under one monarch; and James assumed the title "King of Great Britain and Ireland." For the present, Scotland retained its own Parliament, its own form of religious worship, and its own laws.

Plot in Favor of Arabella Stuart.—Immediately after the coronation, a conspiracy was formed in favor of Lady Arabella Stuart. Sir Walter Raleigh, Lord Cobham, and Lord Grey were accused of being the leaders. They were sentenced to death; but the capital penalty was commuted to one of imprisonment. Raleigh spent over twelve years in captivity, when, on his return from an unsuccessful expedition to South America, which James permitted him to take, he was beheaded on the old charge of conspiracy. The general belief that Lady Arabella was ignorant of this plot caused the king to retain her in his favor;

**James's
Appearance
and De-
meanor not
kingly.**

**1603
A.D.**

**England
and Scot-
land united
under one
Monarch**

**Leaders of
the Plot.**

but her marriage with Seymour, a descendant of Mary, daughter of Henry VII., and Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, whose succession to the throne Elizabeth had rejected with scorn, offended James. She was committed to the Tower, where she died insane. Her death left James and his children sole representatives of the House of Stuart.

Arabella,
committed
to the
Tower, dies
insane.

Treatment of the Catholics and Puritans: Gunpowder Plot.—In the last reign we saw that the Catholics and Puritans suffered by Elizabeth's cruel persecutions under the penal laws. Both parties hoped that the accession of James would bring some relief—would bring repeal of at least the severest of the enactments against them. The Catholics very naturally thought that the son of a Catholic mother who had suffered martyrdom for the faith would sympathize with them. The Puritans hoped for sympathy from one who had been brought up in the religion of the Scottish "Reformers," a religion which was even gloomier and barer than that of the Puritans themselves.

Both Catholics
and
Puritans
hope for
Relief.

But James disappointed both parties. As King of England he became "head of the Church," a position which suited his vanity as a fancied theologian and his arbitrary power as a ruler. For a time he treated the Catholics and the Puritans with apparent friendliness, inviting some of the former to court and conferring knighthood on them; but the cruel laws were not repealed, and a rumor of his own conversion to Catholicity, set afloat by the Puritans for their own purposes, so angered him that the laws were put into

James
disappoints
both
Parties.

active operation with even more severity than of old.

1604
A.D. To the Puritans he was a little more gracious. He appointed a conference, composed of a number of bishops and the chief Puritan divines, to meet at Hampton Court to discuss the leading points of difference between the two parties. James himself took an active part in the discussion, and made a vast parade of his learning. Viewing the Puritan demands in a purely political light, he met all their reasoning by the maxim "No bishop, no king," and the conference broke up, leaving the two parties where they were. But soon followed severer measures for obliging the Puritans to conform to the ritual of the "Established" Church.

The dissatisfaction of the Catholics at the harsh treatment to which they were subjected drove a few desperate men into a conspiracy commonly called the "Gunpowder Plot." Its object was to blow up the Houses of Parliament on the first day of the session, 5th November, thus destroying with one stroke the King, Lords, and Commons. A desire to save the Catholic

The Gunpowder Plot.

peers led one of the conspirators to send a letter to Lord Monteagle, warning him to absent himself from the House on the fatal day. This letter he carried to Cecil, who laid it before the king in Council. Suspicion was aroused, and search was made in the vaults of the House. Here a number of barrels of gunpowder were found. Guy Fawkes, a Spanish officer and one of the conspirators, was in charge of the premises. He was arrested and put to death. The other conspirators were

Guy Fawkes.

chased from county to county, and either killed or sent to the block.

The result of this plot, which, even if successful, could not have helped the cause of the Catholics, was the passing of still more cruel laws against them. Though but sixteen appear to have been engaged in the conspiracy, all the Catholics of England were held responsible, and suffered accordingly. It was of no avail that the king himself publicly acknowledged in Parliament that the Catholics as a body were innocent of all participation in the plot; it was of no avail that they publicly execrated the deed; it was of no avail that the Pope published a brief declaring that all such conspiracies are utterly unlawful: a new penal code was enacted, and the old laws were executed with the utmost severity. Nothing was too bad to be believed of Catholics: to tolerate them was, in the language of Abbot, Archbishop of Canterbury, to commit a deed "hateful to God," and to persecute them to death was to "advance His glory."

The Catholics further oppressed.

Foreign Relations.—In 1618 began on the Continent **1618 A.D.**

the struggle known as the "Thirty Years' War." The Bohemians who had embraced the doctrines of the "Reformers," and who were very aggressive in their Protestantism, revolted against the Catholic House of Austria. When Ferdinand of Austria succeeded his cousin as Emperor of Germany, the Bohemians chose Frederick, Elector Palatine, son-in-law of James I., as their king. James at first held aloof from the contest between Ferdinand and Frederick, because he did not wish to offend the King of Spain, with whom he had made a treaty in the second year of his reign, and because he

The Thirty Years' War.

hoped to bring the war to an end by the marriage of his son Charles with the Infanta. Aroused, however, by the popular indignation, he sent some troops to the Continent, not to aid Frederick in Bohemia, but to defend the Palatinate. Meanwhile Frederick was defeated at the battle of Prague and fled to Holland, while the Spanish and Austrian troops ravaged the Palatinate, meeting but little resistance from the English forces there.

1620
A.D.

The King's Favorites: The Spanish Match.—The death of Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, the leading minister of James as he had been of Elizabeth, brought into power Robert Carr, a young Scotchman who had come to court in the early part of the reign. He had been raised by James to the dignity of Viscount Rochester and Earl of Somerset. His vicious conduct led to his downfall and his retirement into private life. He was succeeded in the king's favor by George Villiers, afterwards Duke of Buckingham, whose influence over the king and court made it a sink of vice and corruption. Nor did the halls of justice escape the contamination, for we find the judges of the land, even the great Lord Bacon himself, accepting bribes for unjust judgments.

Baleful In-
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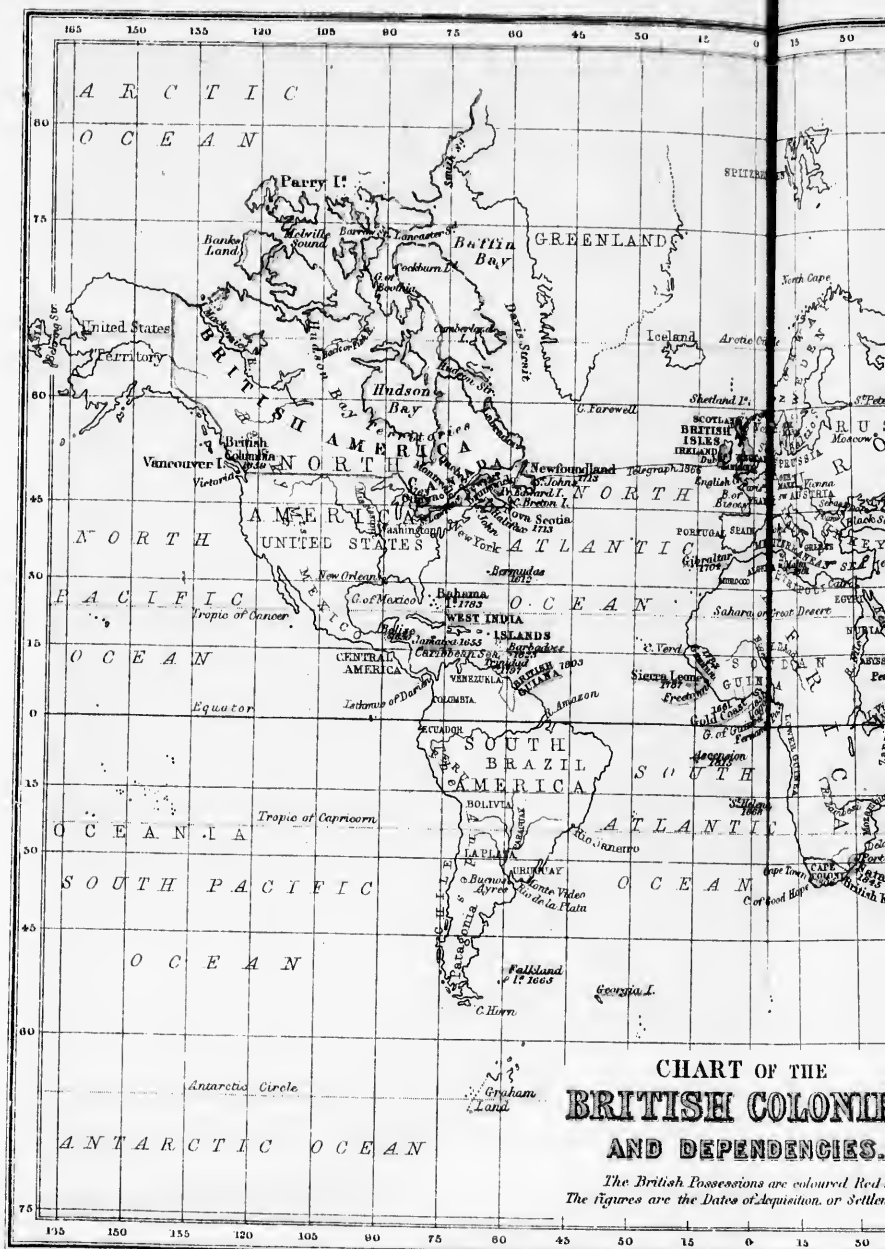
Buckingham warmly supported the Spanish match, and proposed to Prince Charles that they give the Court of Spain the pleasant surprise of a visit. The prince and Buckingham travelled in disguise. Reaching Madrid, their conduct there was of such a character as to give deep offence to the Spanish Court, and indeed to the English people. They left

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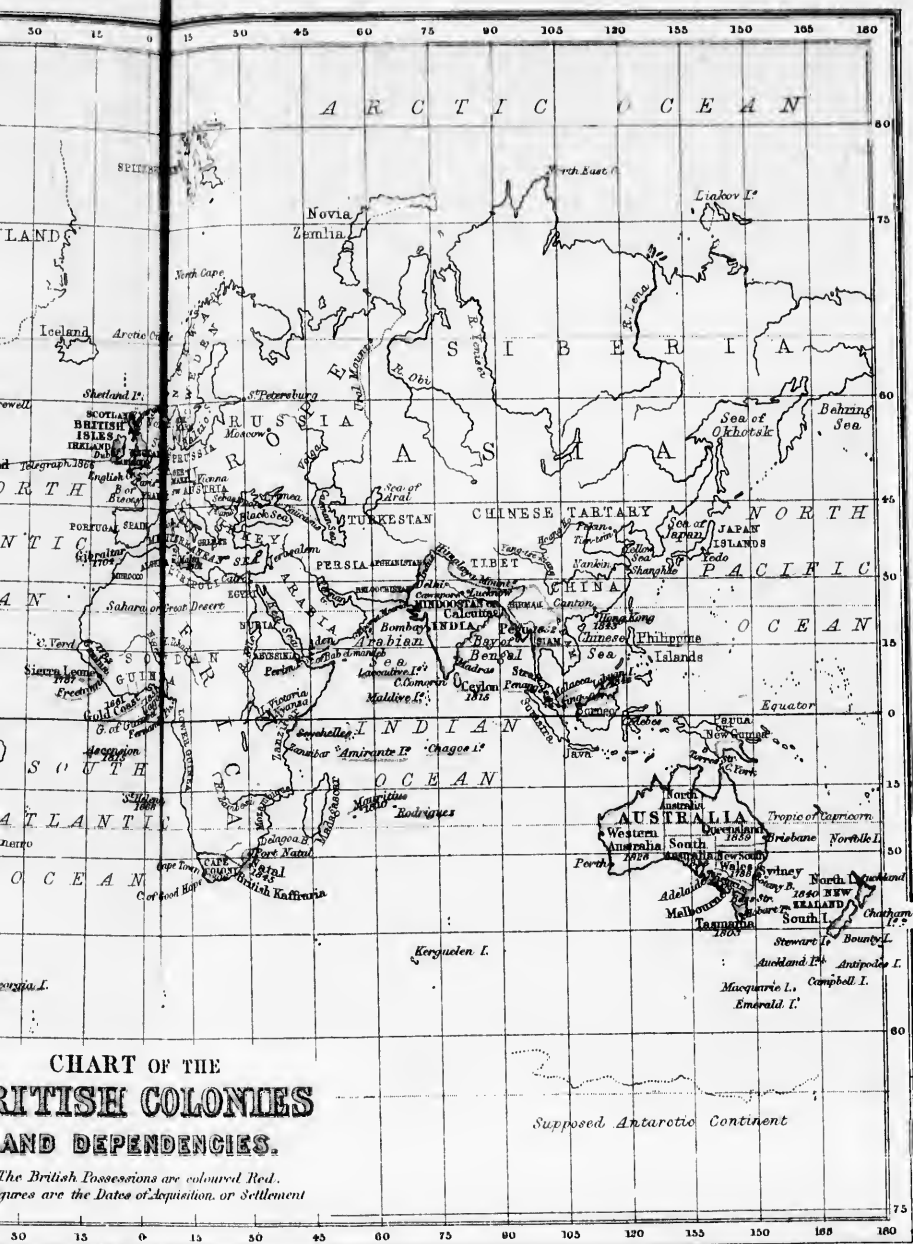
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Spain hurriedly; and Charles, who had met in Paris Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII., was determined to marry her in preference to the Infanta. Buckingham now saw that his safety lay in opposing the Spanish match; and Parliament, though not pleased with the French alliance, was so well satisfied with breaking off the Spanish marriage that it passed over Buckingham's conduct.

Colonization : Confiscation of Irish Lands.—In this reign was laid the foundation of the great English colonies. A permanent settlement was made at Jamestown in Virginia; a charter was granted for the colonization of Newfoundland; and a band of Puritan exiles, known as the "Pilgrim Fathers," landed in Massachusetts, where they formed the germ of the New England States. The charter granted by Elizabeth to the East India Company was renewed in perpetuity.

1607
A.D.

American
Settlements.

1620
A.D.

In Ireland, by "a vast policy of spoliation, two thirds of the Province of Ulster was declared to have been confiscated to the Crown, and the land which was thus gained was allotted to new settlers of Scotch and English extraction." By this robbery "all faith in English justice was torn from the minds of the Irish, and the seed was sown of that fatal harvest of distrust and disaffection which was to be reaped through tyranny and massacre in the age to come."

Spoliation
of Ulster.

Constitutional History.—James I. came to the throne with the loftiest notions of kingly power; and in his reign began the struggle between the king and Parliament which caused the death of his son Charles and the overthrow of the Stuart dy-

James's
Lofty
Notions of
Kingly
Power.

- nasty. His ideas of kingly power implied the monarch's freedom from all control by law and from responsibility to anything but the royal will. James was very extravagant, was always in debt, and when every illegal means he adopted for raising money failed, he had to apply to Parliament. His first Parliament granted him supply, but passed a bill forbidding illegal exactions by the king's sole authority. His second Parliament declined to grant supplies until the illegal impositions and other grievances were redressed. After an interval of seven years the want of money obliged him to call another Parliament. This granted him a small subsidy, and then set about the redress of grievances. The system of granting monopolies and the venality of the judges were dealt with. The Parliament of 1620 having sent a petition to James respecting the defence of the Palatinate and the Spanish alliance, received a message from him forbidding them to meddle with any matter which concerned his government or the mysteries of state, as things far above their capacity. To their renewed claim of liberty of speech, he replied that their privileges were derived from the grace and permission of his ancestors and himself. Upon this the Commons drew up their celebrated *Protest*, asserting that "the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdictions of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the people of England." James sent for the Journals of the House, and in full Council tore out the record with his own hand, at the same time dissolving the Parliament. The authors of the *Protest*, Coke, Pym, and Shelden, were imprisoned. "In this Parliament
- 1604
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- The "Protest" of the Commons.
- 1622
A.D. with his own hand, at the same time dissolving the Parliament. The authors of the *Protest*, Coke, Pym, and Shelden, were imprisoned. "In this Parliament

the die was cast, and that contest was fairly begun between the Crown and the country, in which James had sown the wind, and his son, trained in his principles, was to reap the whirlwind."

Character of the King: His Death.—James was called by his courtiers "the modern Solomon;" by Sully, the witty French ambassador, "the most learned fool in Christendom." An overweening conceit in his own wisdom and in his royal authority was the chief characteristic of James. He died after a short illness, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. **1625 A.D.**

Conceit
James's
Chief Characteristic.

CHAPTER II.

CHARLES I.

A.D. 1625 to A.D. 1649.

Accession of Charles: State of Parties.	Absolute Government: Strafford.
The First and Second Parliaments of Charles.	Ship-Money: John Hampden.
The Third Parliament: Petition of Right.	The Short Parliament: The Long Parliament.
Ecclesiastical Affairs: Laud: Scotch Presbyterianism.	Civil War.
	Trial and Execution of the King.

Accession of Charles: State of Parties.—Charles I. succeeded. He had many kingly qualities; but he had his father's weakness for favorites and his love for absolute power. On coming to the throne he found a kingdom in debt, two ruinous wars with Spain and Austria, a bitter dislike to his Catholic queen, and to Buckingham, his favorite minister.

Before entering on the history of the troubled times which followed, it may be said, that for the unhappy state of affairs which marked this reign the despotism of Charles and his refusal to grant just concessions until they were wrung from him are mainly responsible; but the ungenerous advantage which the Commons took of every mistake made by the king is no less responsible. Through all the differences between them and the king they never met him "half-way." Had not their first step been an intentional mark of want of confidence in Charles, had they, as representatives of the people and loyal subjects of the king, discussed matters temperately with him instead of at once placing themselves in studied antagonism to him, most of the disasters which followed might have been avoided.

The First and Second Parliaments of Charles.—

1625 A.D. The first Parliament, composed chiefly of Puritans, voted him a sum quite inadequate to the wants of the Government and to meet the obligations incurred by his father. They put a marked slight upon the king by granting him, for a year only, certain customs duties of tonnage and poundage, which were always granted to new sovereigns for life. Charles looked on this as an insult, dissolved the Parliament, and endeavored to raise money by forced loans and other arbitrary measures.

The failure of an expedition led by Buckingham against Cadiz, and the want of money to pay expenses, obliged the king to call a second Parliament. But this was not more tractable than the last. It began its session by impeaching Buckingham; and to save

**Cause of the
Unhappy
State of
Affairs in
this Reign.**

**Action of
Charles's
First Par-
liament.**

his favorite, Charles again dissolved it. Illegal taxation and other unconstitutional means of raising money followed. A war with France, begun at the instigation of Buckingham to help the Protestants there, ended in failure, and caused universal indignation.

Charles's
Second Par-
liament as
Intractable
as the First.

Third Parliament: Petition of Right.—Charles having again exhausted his treasury, found it necessary to call a third Parliament. The Commons at once proceeded to draw up the famous *Petition of Right*, to which under pressure of his necessities **1628 A.D.**

Charles gave the royal assent. The *Petition of Right* thus passed into the statute which bears the same title (3 Chas. I. c. 1). It is called the Second Great Charter of English liberty. It declares illegal (1) taxation without the consent of Parliament, (2) penalties for resisting such taxation, (3) billeting soldiers and sailors in private houses, (4) inflicting punishment by martial law. The Commons now voted five subsidies, and Parliament was prorogued. Buckingham was thus saved from impeachment; but two months later he fell by the hand of an assassin.

The Second
Great
Charter of
English
Liberty.

Although Charles had received large subsidies and had pledged himself to abide by the terms of the *Petition of Right*, he continued during recess the illegal system of raising money. In church affairs also, as will be seen presently, he deeply offended the Puritans. When Parliament reassembled next year they drew up a strong *Remonstrance* against the king's acts. Charles **1629 A.D.** imprisoned nine of the members and dissolved the House.

"Remon-
strance" of
Parliament.

Ecclesiastical Affairs: Laud: Scotch Presbyterianism.—Two parties were now contending for the mastery within the Protestant Church. On the one side were the Puritans with their austere and gloomy religion and their republican ideas in politics; on the other, what would now be called a "High Church" party, aping Catholic ceremonial, and simulating the former power of the Catholic Church.

The "High Church" Party.

With the High Church party the royal authority was a sacred thing: resistance to the rule of the sovereign was nothing short of sacrilege. Charles, thoroughly imbued with these ideas, appointed to the See of Canterbury a man who was prepared to go any length in defence of the royal prerogative and the ascendancy of the Protestant Church. This man was William Laud. He carried out his principles with the utmost rigor, and the Puritans suffered much from his oppression.

An attempt to force on the Scotch nation the ritual and form of government of the Protestant Episcopal Church set the whole country in a blaze, and led to the formation of a "Solemn League and Covenant" for the maintenance of the Presbyterian form of worship. The Scotch went so far as to take up arms; but a temporary peace was made.

The Scotch Covenanters.

Absolute Government: Strafford.—To aid him in state affairs, Charles found a minister who was a fitting colleague for Laud. This was Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford. We find him a stout opponent of the king in the third Parliament, and a warm supporter of the Petition of Right; but on the death of Buckingham the king won him over.

Strafford a Fitting Colleague for Laud.

This was the more easily accomplished as Wentworth saw on the side of the king a wider field for his ambition. He desired to fill the place of Buckingham, whom he surpassed in ability and boldness. Wentworth's motto, "Thorough," he tried in Ireland, of which country he was appointed Lord Deputy. Here by his tyranny and oppression he made the king's power absolute; and he was prepared to do the same in England.

**Oppression
in Ireland.**

Royal proclamations now took the place and had the force of statutes; the taxes condemned by Parliament were levied; the king himself proclaimed peace with France and Spain; the Court of High Commission and the Star Chamber, in the former of which Laud presided, in the latter Strafford, became more active and arbitrary than ever, imposing heavy fines and inflicting cruel punishments for sedition, libel, and nonconformity. Thus did the king, Laud, and Strafford, instead of the king, Lords, and Commons, rule England for eleven years.

**England
under the
King,
Laud, and
Strafford.**

Ship-Money: John Hampden.—Among the many ingenious schemes for filling the treasury, devised by Charles and his advisers, was the revival of the tax called ship-money. This was originally intended for the support of the navy; but Charles now wanted it for general purposes. John Hampden, a private gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused to pay the tax, and brought the matter before the courts. A majority of the judges decided against him; but from that hour he was regarded as the champion of popular liberty.

**Hampden
refuses to
pay the Tax.**

The Short Parliament: The Long Parliament.—**Jan. 1640 A.D.**
At last all the resources of Charles failed; the

Scottish Covenanters were in open rebellion; and he was obliged once more to call a Parliament. It refused all supplies, and, led by Pym, sternly called for redress of grievances. It was dissolved on the 10th of March, and three of its members were imprisoned. This is sometimes called the "Short Parliament."

1640 A.D. Pressing difficulties surrounding him on every side, Charles called his fifth Parliament in November of the same year. To this were elected all his strongest opponents, among the rest, Hampden, Pym, Vane, and Cromwell. It is called the "Long Parliament," as it was not dissolved until 1660, although turned out by Cromwell in 1653.

The Commons began their work, as usual, by resolutions against the Catholics. Their next step was to impeach Strafford and Laud for high treason. Strafford was found guilty and died on the scaffold: Laud suffered the same fate a few years later. An act was passed requiring the assembling of Parliament at least once in three years, and what was quite as illegal as any of the acts of Charles, depriving the king of the power of dissolving them without their own consent. This made the Commons supreme over King and Lords, a principle in direct opposition to the constitution. Statutes were passed forbidding all illegal levies, and abolishing the courts of High Commission and Star Chamber.

There were now two great parties in the State—the Cavaliers, or king's friends, and the Round-heads (so called from their manner of clipping their hair), the friends of the Parliament.

**The Long
Parliament.**

**Strafford
and Laud
impeached
and
executed**

**Cavaliers
and Round-
heads.**

A grand *Remonstrance* was brought forward in the House, complaining of the king's misgovernment since he had come to the throne, and expressing their want of confidence in his acts and policy. An unsuccessful attempt made by the king to arrest five of the leading members brought matters to a crisis. It was resented as an open breach of privilege; and a revolution had begun even before the royal standard was raised at Nottingham, and the signal thus given which was to plunge the nation into the horrors of civil war.

Matters
between
Charles and
Parliament,
brought to
a Crisis.

1642
A. D.

Civil War.—Most of the nobility, gentry, and clergy were in favor of the king; the inhabitants of London and the larger towns, chiefly merchants, tradesmen, and shopkeepers, were for the Parliament. The royalist generals were the king's nephews, Maurice and Rupert; those of the Parliamentary army, Fairfax and Cromwell. The Parliament held the public purse, while the king could be supplied only by his loyal subjects, chiefly Catholics, who, notwithstanding all the penal laws against them and the persecutions they met with, continued eminently loyal and attached to the king, from the first conflict at Edgehill to the Restoration of Charles II. Their numbers in the royal cause were so conspicuous, that notice is taken of it in several declarations, and from them the whole royal army received the name "the Popish army;" whilst, on the other hand, not one Catholic officer appeared in the army of the Parliament. During this cruel war ten battles were fought. In those of Edgehill, Brentford, Chalgrove—where Hampden fell, 1642
A. D.
Atherston Moor, in the siege of Bristol, and at New-

Catholics
Loyal to
the King.

bury, the advantage was slightly on the side of the king. But at Marston Moor, in Yorkshire, Charles was totally defeated, chiefly by Oliver Cromwell's regiment of horse, known as Cromwell's "Ironsides."

1644 The following sketch of Cromwell and his army by
A.D. a Catholic historian is worth quoting: "Coarse and

Cromwell heavy in appearance, slovenly in dress,
and his and homely in his manners, Oliver Crom-
Army. well had already made himself known in

the Commons by his bold eloquence; and now, at the head of a thousand horse, he was becoming remarkable for his courage and military skill. His penetrating eye had discovered that to the enthusiasm of cavalier loyalty some other enthusiasm must be opposed; his burgesses and tradesmen were no match for Rupert's gallant horse; they wanted the soldier's discipline and the soldier's mad impetuosity; but Cromwell's genius supplied them with all they needed. He armed religious fanaticism against royal romance; his soldiers were the 'godly,' the elect, warring against Philistines and the men of Belial; he drilled them, prayed with them, fought with them, till at last Cromwell's Ironsides had established themselves on many a bloody field, where the cavaliers, in spite of all their reckless courage, were routed and dispersed." Fairfax and Cromwell had now remodelled the army. Owing to the Self-

The Self- Denying Ordinance, by which it was de-
Denying clared that Members of Parliament could
Ordinance. not hold commissions in the army, several officers retired, and their places were filled by men whom Cromwell chose for their ability.

Again at Naseby, in Northamptonshire, the king's

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troops were utterly routed and his hopes destroyed. 1645
 Charles fled to Oxford, and afterwards to the Scottish army at Newark, near Nottingham. The Scotch offered him their support if he would sign the "Covenant." This he refused to do; and for the sum of four hundred thousand pounds they handed him over to the Parliamentary Commissioners appointed to receive him. He was next seized by the army under Cromwell, and was kept a close prisoner.

The King's
 Forces
 routed.

1645
 A.D.

Charles a
 Prisoner.

The Parliament was divided into two parties—Presbyterians and Independents. The former only wished to limit the king's power, not to destroy it; the latter, of whom Cromwell was the leader, wished to destroy the king and monarchy. Cromwell, the better to secure the condemnation of the unhappy Charles, sent Colonel Pride with a number of troops to surround the House of Commons and prevent the entrance of all members unfavorable to his design. "Two hundred Presbyterian members were thus turned away; forty Independents were allowed to enter. The sword had fallen, and the two great powers which had waged this bitter conflict—the Parliament and Monarchy—suddenly disappeared; while the House of Commons dwindled into a sham, the House of Lords passed away altogether."

Presby-
 terians and
 Independ-
 ents.

1648
 A.D.

Trial and Execution of the King.—The "Rump" Parliament, as the Independents were called, at once voted thanks to Cromwell and resolved on the death of the king. A "High Court of Justice" was formed to try Charles. It consisted of the forty Independent Members of Parliament, together with some officers of the army. Brad-

The Rump
 Parliament.

shawe, a lawyer, was President. The Lords refused to take any part in the proceedings. The king made his only defence by denying the authority of the court, and refused to plead. It was not composed of his *peers*; and by Magna Charta no freeman could be arrested, imprisoned, or punished except by the judgment of his peers. But this unassailable position was of no avail. After a mockery of a trial lasting

Charles con-
demned to
Death and
executed.

for five days, Charles Stuart, King of England, was condemned to death as a "tyrant, traitor, murderer, and enemy of his country." He was executed on the 30th January, 1649. Thus did he die in the forty-ninth year of his age and the twenty-fourth of his reign. He was buried at Windsor.

CHAPTER III.

COMMONWEALTH.

A.D. 1649 to A.D. 1660.

Form of Government.
Cromwell in Ireland.
Cromwell's Victories over the
Scotch.
Expulsion of the Long Parlia-
ment: New Parliament.

Home and Foreign Policy.
Cromwell's Death: His Suc-
cessor.
Committee of Safety: General
Monk: Monarchy Restored.

Form of Government.—On the death of Charles, the fag-end of the Long Parliament, which now sat and which did not represent the people, forbade the proclaiming of a king and abolished the House of Lords. The Government was vested in a Council of thirty-eight members, of whom five were peers. Bradshawe was President; John Milton, Secretary.

In England, therefore, there was no longer hope for royalty; but in Scotland and Ireland Prince Charles was proclaimed King.

Cromwell in Ireland.—Cromwell was now appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and crossed over with a large army to repress the loyalists.

Then began a series of awful massacres unparalleled for cruelty in any country of the world. Cromwell took by storm Drogheda, Wexford, Clonmel, and Kinsale, the streets

of which ran with the blood of innocent people. He offered quarter to the garrison of Drogheda if they surrendered; but no sooner had they done so than he gave orders for a general massacre. One thousand unarmed inhabitants took refuge in the church and were mercilessly slaughtered. Of the soldiers who opposed Cromwell every tenth man was put to death, and the rest were sent away to Barbadoes. In Wexford five thousand were massacred in cold blood; among the rest, three hundred frightened and defenceless women who

had gathered for protection round the market cross. "And so Cromwell marched through the land, giving up her cities to murder and pillage, hanging her bishops and priests in their sacred vestments, slaughtering women and even children if they belonged to the 'Papists;' and all the time praying and expounding the gospel to his soldiers, or writing despatches in which each fresh iniquity is detailed in choice phrases from Scripture;" and God is thanked for the success of the bloody deeds.

The movements of the royalists in Scotland called him away from Ireland, where he left his son-in-law Ireton as Lord Deputy.

Cromwell
becomes
Lord Lie-
tenant of
Ireland.

1649
A.D.

Cromwell's
Atrocities.

Cromwell's Victories over the Scotch.—Cromwell returned to London, and was immediately appointed "Captain General and commander-in-chief of all the forces raised or to be raised within the Commonwealth of England." The refusal of Fairfax, who up to this time had been commander-in-chief, to lead an army against the Scotch, left no other course open to the Parliament. Cromwell at

Cromwell,
now Com-
mander-in-
Chief, pre-
pares to
invade
Scotland.

once made preparation to invade Scotland. The Scotch army was now under Leslie, who had succeeded the gallant Duke of Montrose. The duke had made an attempt to establish the authority of Charles in Scotland; but was treated as a public enemy. He was taken prisoner, and, under an old act of attainder,

1650 A.D. was hanged at Edinburgh with the most cruel insults.

The armies met at Dunbar, where Leslie, following the imprudent advice of the preachers who filled the Scottish camp, and contrary to his own judgment, left a strong position to give battle to Oliver on his own ground. The Scotch army was totally routed.

The Scotch
Army
routed at
Dunbar.

1650 A.D. Four thousand of them were killed and ten thousand taken prisoners. Edinburgh surrendered, and Cromwell became master of all the country south of the Forth.

1651 A.D. Next year, Charles, having sworn to observe the Solemn League and Covenant, and to uphold Presbyterianism, having also signed a declaration acknowledging the tyranny of his father and the "idolatry" of his mother, was crowned King at Scone.

Charles
crowned
King at
Scone

Raising an army, he managed to outflank Crom-

well's forces, and marched rapidly into England. 1651
Cromwell, leaving General Monk in command in Scotland, followed, and overtook Charles at Worcester, where a battle was fought, in which almost the whole of the king's followers were either killed or captured. For six weeks Charles was in constant danger of falling into the hands of his enemies; but through the loyalty of his Catholic subjects, among whom his hiding-places were made, he escaped to Normandy.

Cromwell
pursues
Charles,
who, his
Army de-
stroyed,
flees to
Normandy.

A.D.

War with Holland.—The Navigation Act forbidding the importation of goods in foreign vessels except those of the country that produced them, threatened ruin to the commerce of the Dutch, who were at this time the carriers of Europe. A naval war followed.

Effect of the
Navigation
Act.

A.D.

Many battles were fought, but after a severe engagement off the Texel, in which the Dutch were defeated, peace was made. The chief commanders in this war were Admiral Blake on the side of the English and Van Tromp on the side of the Dutch.

1652

A.D.

Expulsion of the Long Parliament: New Parliament.—"The Parliament was now a scene of confusion and muddle in public business; and against its members many charges of malversation and corruption had been brought. Some of them were accused of using their power to further their own interests. The one remedy, as the army now saw, was the assembling of a new and complete Parliament; but this was the one measure which the House was resolute to avert." Cromwell resolved that it would sit no longer. He went down to the House with a body of

The Parlia-
ment a
Scene of
Confusion.

1653 soldiers, who quietly turned out the members. He
A.D. locked the door and declared Parliament dissolved.

A new Parliament was formed, not by the constitutional way of election, but from lists of "godly" men sent up to Cromwell by the ministers of the different Puritan congregations. This is known as Barebone's Parliament.

1653 after one of its leading members; but as it was inclined to be troublesome, it also was dissolved. This
A.D. Parliament had appointed many committees "to consider the needs of the Church and nation." It had named a fresh Council of State; and this body drew up a constitution under the name "Instrument of Government." It conferred on Cromwell the title "His Highness the Lord Protector." It was provided that a Parliament be called on the basis of representation—four hundred members from England, thirty from Scotland, and thirty from Ireland. Catholics and "malignants," as those who fought for the king were called, were not allowed to vote or to sit in Parliament. The acts of this Parliament were to become law even if Cromwell withheld his assent.

Cromwell
constituted
"Lord Protector."

1654 It was the first Parliament in English history
A.D. where members from Scotland and Ireland sat side by side as they do now. The first business was to consider the question of government. The "Instrument" was taken as the groundwork of the new constitution. That Cromwell should rule as Protector was unanimously agreed to; that he should possess a legislative power co-ordinate with the Parliament was strongly opposed. This opposition angered him so much that he dissolved the Parliament, and with it ended all show

The Protectorate
becomes a
Tyranny.

of constitutional rule. The protectorate now became a simple tyranny.

Home and Foreign Policy.—For the last five years 1657 of his rule Cromwell was supreme in the state. True A.D. he called Parliaments, but only to dissolve them again. That of 1657 offered Cromwell all but King. him the title of king; but the opposition of his generals induced him to decline after long hesitation.

The country was divided into the military districts, each with a major-general at its head, with power to disarm "Papists" and royalists. Cromwell boasted of his toleration; but this did not include the Catholics. By his vigorous rule insurrections were put down everywhere. In Scotland General Monk had brought about tranquillity. In Ireland "the work of conquest had been continued by Ireton and completed by Ludlow as mercilessly as it had begun. Thousands perished by famine or by the sword. Ship-load after ship-load of those who surrendered were sent over the sea and sold as slaves in the West Indies. No such doom had ever fallen on a nation as fell on Ireland at this time. Among the bitter memories which part Ireland from England, the memory of the bloodshed and confiscation which the Puritans wrought is the bitterest. By the pitiless policy pursued, the whole native population lay helpless and crushed."

The Merciless Work of Conquest in Ireland.

Cromwell, however, did much good in England. He kept down insurrection with a strong hand; he restored confidence in the financial standing of the government; he reformed the laws, and regulated the police. Abroad, his power was no less felt. The

pirates of Barbary were driven from the Mediterranean Sea. Spain was humbled, and gave up Jamaica. The French ministry sought the friendship of Cromwell, and gave up to England Dunkirk, which they had taken from the Spaniards, and which was a seaport almost equal in importance to Calais. Many of the West India Islands came into English possession.

Cromwell's Death.—The troubles at home, particularly with the Parliament, the dread of assassination, domestic affliction in the loss of his favorite daughter, told on the health and spirits of Cromwell. "To the weariness of power were added the weakness and feverish impatience of disease." He had suffered from intermittent fever and ague, which eventually carried him off. He died on the anniversary of his great victories of Dunbar and Worcester, just seven years after Dunbar. On the night before his death there was a terrible storm. Trees were torn up by the roots and houses unroofed by the hurricane. Cromwell was buried with royal honors in Westminster Abbey.

Cromwell's Successor.—His son Richard succeeded as Protector; but he was weak, and the struggle between the army and Parliament broke out once more. Before a year passed, Richard retired into private life.

Committee of Safety: Gen. Monk: Restoration of Monarchy.—The Government was now assumed by a "Committee of Public Safety," composed of twenty-three military officers. Their rule was tyrannical, and hastened the reaction in favor of monarchy. Suspense and fear were ended by Gen. Monk, who, marching from Scotland, soon reached London. He

Sept. 3
1658
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reinstated the Long Parliament, which now dissolved itself, after summoning a new one, called the "Convention Parliament," because not summoned by the king. This assembly, inspired by Monk, agreed to call Prince Charles to the throne of his father. He lost no time in responding to the call. Landing at Dover, he was received by Monk and escorted to London, which he entered on his birthday **1660 A.D.** amid the joyful welcome of all classes.

The "Convention Parliament" calls Prince Charles to the Throne.

CHAPTER IV.

CHARLES II.

A.D. 1660 to A.D. 1685.

Accession of Charles: Convention Parliament.

New Parliament: Special Acts.

The Court and Society.

Foreign Policy: Great Plague and Fire.

Clarendon: The Cabal.

England and France.

Triple Alliance: Treaty of Dover.

Declaration of Indulgence: The Test Act.

Plots: Persecution of Catholics.

Exclusion Bill: Habeas Corpus Act.

Monmouth: Pye House Plot.

Death of the King

Accession of Charles: Convention Parliament.—
 "With the entry of Charles II. into Whitehall modern England begins. . . From the moment of the Restoration, we find ourselves all at once among great currents of thought and activity, which have gone on widening and deepening from that time to this."

Beginning of Modern England.

Charles ascended the throne by the double title of

free election and hereditary right. He was king *de jure* from the time of his father's death, so Charles's Title. His that the first year of his actual reign is Early Acts. numbered in the statutes as the twelfth. All revenues of the feudal system were abolished; and an annual grant of one million two hundred thousand pounds sterling, as well as the old duties of tonnage and poundage, was made to the king. A "Bill of Indemnity and Oblivion" was introduced; a general pardon was proclaimed and extended to all except

The Bodies
of Crom-
well, Ireton,
and Brad-
shawe ex-
humed and
hanged.

those immediately concerned in the death of Charles I. Twenty nine were brought to trial: ten were executed. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshawe were exhumed and hanged in chains at Tyburn.

The army was disbanded, except a thousand horse and four thousand foot, which formed the beginning of a standing army. The Convention Parliament was dissolved by the king at the close of the year.

1660 A.D. New Parliament: Special Acts.—In this Parliament, which was elected according to constitutional form, the Cavaliers predominated—the Presbyterians numbering about fifty. The royalists were ably led by Sir Edward Hyde, now Earl of Clarendon and Lord Chancellor. The Parliament showed a servile devotion to the Protestant Episcopal Church and to the Crown. Episcopacy was re-established; the bishoprics were filled up; and the clergy ejected by Cromwell were restored to their livings. Many important Acts were passed. The Corporation Act excluded from municipal offices all but the Episcopalians. The Act of Uniformity required all clergymen to renounce the

The Act of
Uniformity.

1662

A.D.

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Covenant. Two thousand Presbyterian ministers who refused lost their livings. Charles, however, issued a royal proclamation which expressed his resolve to exempt from the penalties of the Act all those who, from religious scruples, could not conform to the ritual of the Episcopal Church. A Bill introduced into Parliament confirmed this power; but when it was found that it would bring even a slight relief to the oppressed and persecuted Catholics, the king was forced to withdraw his proclamation. The Convention Act declared seditious all religious meetings not in conformity with the established church; and the Five Mile Act required all "dissenting" ministers who refused to take the oath of *non-resistance* (that is, refused to swear that it was unlawful to take up arms against the king under any circumstances) to keep at a distance of five miles from any corporate town. In the disabilities of the Test Act, passed later in the reign and aimed specially against Catholics, the dissenters were included.

1663

A.D.

1664

A.D.

The Con-
venticle
Act, and
the Five-
Mile Act.

1673

A.D.

In Scotland Episcopacy was restored, and a fierce persecution against the Covenanters raged for over twenty years.

The Court and Society.—The king unhappily set the example in idleness and vice. The court became the most profligate in Europe. The nation feeling the reaction from the intolerable rigor of Puritanism, and the hypocrisy which it fostered, passed into the opposite extreme; the stage, the literature, and society in England, became shamelessly impure.

The Most
Profligate
Court in
Europe.

Foreign Policy: Great Plague and Fire.—The old

commercial jealousy between the Dutch and the English broke out into war. Parliament unanimously voted a large supply, which the king spent on his own pleasures, thus sending old and badly equipped ships to sea. Three battles were fought, the advantage being on the side of the English.

1665
A.D. Meantime, calamity at home was added to the suffering of war. In the year 1665, a hundred thousand Londoners died of the Plague, which broke out in the crowded streets of the capital. It

**Ravages of
the Plague,
and of the
Great Fire,
in London.**

1666
A.D. Catholics were accused of setting this fire, and for over two hundred years the stupid and malicious untruth might be read on the "Monument" erected by Sir Christopher Wren to mark the spot where the fire began.

"The loss of merchandise and property was beyond count. The treasury was empty, and neither

1667
A.D. ships nor forts were manned when the Dutch fleet sailed unopposed up the Thames, burned three English men-of-war which lay anchored in the river, and withdrew only to sail proudly along the coast, the masters of the channel." Peace was shortly afterwards concluded by the Treaty of Breda.

**The Dutch
Fleet sails
up the
Thames.**

**Clarendon
banished
to the
Continent.**

Clarendon : The Cabal.—To appease the national indignation at this disgrace, a victim was found in the Earl of Clarendon, Lord Chancellor. He had all the power of a modern minister; and had given offence to the king

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and his party by outspoken condemnation of the scenes at court and the conduct of the king. By the marriage of his daughter Anne to the Duke of York he was grandfather to two Queens of England, Mary and Anne. He was banished to the continent.

In the government which succeeded Clarendon we have the first resemblance to the more modern "Cabinet." It consisted of Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley and Lauderdale; and was called the "Cabal," a word meaning a secret committee.

England and France.—In the second year of this **1661** reign Louis XIV. assumed the government of France. **A.D.**

Succeeding to the throne in 1643, he was well trained in state-craft by the celebrated Cardinal Mazarin; and "kept

France in awe and Europe in alarm for over half a century." A close alliance was now made between the courts of France and England, and both united to support Portugal against Spain. Charles married

Catherine of Braganza, daughter of the King of Portugal, a woman of sense, spirit, and virtue, whom he treated with heartless

neglect. Her chief value in the king's eyes was her dowry of five hundred thousand pounds with the fortresses of Tangier in Africa and Bombay in India. This money was squandered, and Charles was led to sell Dunkirk to the King of France.

Triple Alliance: Treaty of Dover.—Louis had **1668** married the daughter of the King of Spain, and on **A.D.**

the death of that king laid claim to the Spanish Netherlands in right of his wife. Upon this, Charles, by the advice of the Cabal, entered in the Triple Alliance of England, Holland, and Sweden, against France. But

Charles becomes
Louis' Pensioner.

Charles, for the sake of money, which he always needed, made a secret treaty with Louis—the Treaty of Dover—becoming the pensioner of the King of France.

In consequence of this treaty war was declared against Holland. The Duke of York commanded the royal fleet. Louis invaded Holland. William, Prince of Orange (afterwards King of England), made a gallant defence of his country.

War with
Holland.

Peace was concluded; and William married his cousin Mary, daughter of the Duke of York.

Declaration of Indulgence: The Test Act.—By virtue of ecclesiastical powers the king ordered “that all manner of penal laws on matters ecclesiastical against whatever sort of non-conformists or recusants should be from that day suspended,” and gave full liberty of public worship to all dissidents save Catholics, who were allowed to have Mass celebrated

Penal Laws
against
Non-con-
formists
suspended.

only in private houses. This Declaration of Indulgence raised a storm; and the Commons refused supplies until it was recalled. Among the busiest in opposing the king’s merciful designs were Lord William Russell, Lord Cavendish, and others.

The king yielded, and the Declaration of Indulgence was no sooner recalled than the Test Act was passed. It required that every one holding a civil or a military position in the state take the

The Decla-
ration re-
called and
the Test
Act passed.

oath of allegiance and supremacy, declare against transubstantiation, and receive the “Sacrament” according to the rites of the Episcopal Church. Hundreds of Catholics were deprived of office by this Act, among the rest James Duke of York, against whom it was particularly

aimed. It was long suspected that James had been privately reconciled to the Church. He was not a man to deny his principles; and at once he resigned all offices which he held under the Crown, refusing to take the test.

Plots: Persecution of the Catholics.—This open avowal of the Faith by James, and his marriage with a Catholic princess which took place about the same time, worked the Protestant party into a fury. Charles had no children by his Queen, Catherine of Braganza; and James was therefore heir apparent. "It was of this general panic that one of the vile impostors that are always thrown to the surface at times of great public agitation, was ready to take advantage by the invention of a 'Popish' plot." Titus Oates, a man of infamous character, now came forward to give information of a certain horrible plot for the subversion of Protestantism, the murder of the king, and the placing of James on the throne. Five Catholic peers were sent to the Tower; two thousand suspected persons were hurried to prison. A proclamation ordered every Catholic to leave London. Another villain, named Bedloe, came forward with tales besides which those of Oates seemed tame. "The two informers were now pressed forward by an infamous rivalry to stranger and stranger revelations. Bedloe swore to the existence of a plot for landing a Catholic army and for a general massacre of Protestants. Oates capped the revelations of Bedloe by charging the queen herself at the bar of the Lords with knowledge of a plot to murder her husband. Monstrous as such charges were, they revived the waning frenzy of the people

Titus
Oates.

1678
A.D.

Another
Informer.

and the Parliament. The peers under arrest were impeached. A new proclamation enjoined the arrest of every Catholic in the realm. With the trial and execution of Father Coleman, began a series of judicial murders which even now can only be remembered with horror."

The Waning Frenzy of the Protestants revived.

1679 A.D. Dangerfield invented another plot—this time a Presbyterian one—called the Meal Tub Plot, from the place in which the compromising papers were discovered. Among those who suffered death in consequence of the fanatical feelings worked up by these stories, were Oliver Plunkett, Archbishop of Armagh, and Lord Stafford, a venerable peer over eighty years of age.

The Exclusion Bill: Habeas Corpus Act.—The efforts of the Protestant party were now directed to obtain the exclusion of the Duke of York from the succession. By the influence of Ashley, Earl of Shaftesbury, a Bill to this effect was brought into Parliament; but its progress was stopped by dissolution. This Parliament had been in power since 1661, the longest unbroken life in our Parliamentary annals.

1681 A.D.

1679 A.D.

To it we owe the *Habeas Corpus* Act, which forbids the judges under severe penalties to refuse to any prisoner a writ of Habeas Corpus, directing the jailer to produce the body of the prisoner in court, and to certify to the cause of his imprisonment. It requires that every prisoner shall be indicted in the first term after his commitment, and tried in the subsequent term in that court which is competent to try him.

In two succeeding Parliaments the Exclusion Bill failed to pass. During the debates on this measure

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the names *Whig* and *Tory* first came into use. The Tories were the court party; the Whigs, the opposition. These names were first used in contempt; but they have since lost their uncomplimentary meaning.

**Whigs and
Tories.**

Monmouth: Rye House Plot.—The resolute stand taken by Charles in upholding the rights of his family, led to a reaction in his favor, and he was thus able to punish many of the Whig leaders. Some of them formed a conspiracy to place on the throne the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles. Lord William Rus-

**Conspiracy
of the Whig
Leaders.**

sell and Algernon Sydney took an active part in the plot. A number of their subordinates formed another plot, the object of which was to murder the king and his brother. This is called the Rye House Plot, from the place where the murder was to be committed. Thus there was a plot within a plot; but Russell and Sydney do not seem to have had any knowledge of the second. Both plots were discovered and most of the conspirators were executed. Russell and Sydney died on the scaffold; Monmouth fled to the Continent.

**1683
A.D.**

Death of the King.—On the 2d of February, 1685, Charles was seized with a fit of apoplexy; and in spite of all remedies he died four days after. Through a merciful Providence and the devoted attention of his brother James, a priest was brought to the king's deathbed. He made his confession; showed a hearty repentance for all his sins; received the last sacraments of Holy Church; and died in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the twenty-fifth of his reign. He was buried at Westminster.

**A Priest at
the King's
Deathbed.**

CHAPTER V.

JAMES II.

A.D. 1685 to A.D. 1688.

Accession of a Catholic King:	Religious Matters: Declaration
Popular Feeling.	of Indulgence.
Monmouth and Argyle.	William of Orange: Flight of
Punishment of the Rebels.	James.
William and Mary: Declaration of Rights.	

Accession of a Catholic King: Popular Feeling.—

We saw that in the last reign the Test Act was passed as a special mark of Protestant ill feeling against James. Consequently, when he came to the throne, a large and powerful faction was opposed to him on the simple ground that he was a Catholic. Unfortunately his zeal for the restoration of the Catholic Church in England was not tempered with discretion or prudence. His reign began like that of his father Charles I., in antagonism between himself and his Parliament and people.

Oates and Dangerfield, the perjured inventors of the vicious plots of the last reign, were tried, found guilty, and imprisoned—the former for life.

James promised his council to maintain the church and government of the country as by law established; but his first act seemed to those who were ready to

seize on anything to his disadvantage, a violation of this promise. He went to Mass publicly, attended by his guards and chief officers of state. Protestantism was roused; and the opportunity seemed to have come for a suc-

**The King's
First Act.**

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cessful effort in favor of Monmouth as champion of the Protestant cause.

Monmouth and Argyle.—The discovery of the Rye House Plot and the execution of the leaders caused many who were sympathizers, if not active conspirators, to flee from the country. Among the rest Monmouth and Argyle took refuge in Holland. Simultaneous risings in England and Scotland under these as leaders were planned at Amsterdam. Both expeditions were unsuccessful. Argyle landed in Scotland; but meeting little help, and the government through secret information being aware of his intentions, he was defeated by the royal troops, taken prisoner, and beheaded at Edinburgh. Monmouth landed in England, and soon found himself at the head of six thousand men. At Taunton he caused himself to be proclaimed King as James II.—“James Duke of York” being, in the words of the proclamation, a “Popish” usurper. Monmouth came upon the royal troops at Sedgemoor in Somerset. Here a battle was fought—the last on English soil. Monmouth was defeated, taken prisoner, and executed, notwithstanding his pitiful appeal to the king for mercy.

Risings in
England
and Scot-
land.

1685
A.D.

1685
A.D.

Punishment of the Rebels.—Then followed the most cruel proceedings against the rebels. Colonel Kirke's soldiers ravaged the country, putting many to death. Judge Jeffreys, by his harshness on the bench, was a fitting colleague for Kirke. Whether James was directly responsible for these severities will never be known; but he had a full share of the odium attached to them.

Judge
Jeffreys.

Religious Matters: Declaration of Indulgence.—

James now began to put in practice his great idea of restoring the Catholic Church to her ancient position, and Catholics to the dignities which

**Catholic
Restoration.**

they formerly held in the kingdom, but from which they were debarred by their religion. He appointed Catholic officers to the

army; sent an ambassador to Rome; caused Catholic churches and convents to be opened in London; he even revived the Court of High Commission to help him in ecclesiastical affairs. And, as if to awe the people into submission, an army of sixteen thousand men was encamped on Hounslow Heath. Magdalen College, Oxford, was required to elect a Catholic president; twenty-five fellows were ejected for their resistance. It was in vain that the wisest of the Catholic party advised James against going so fast with his changes; in vain the Holy Father himself advised prudence. James proceeded with his

**1687
A.D.**

**Declaration
of Indul-
gence pub-
lished and
the Test Act
virtually
repealed.**

work. He published a Declaration of Indulgence, by which all penal laws for religious offences were suspended, and all tests imposed as qualifications for holding office were forbidden. This was a virtual repeal of the Test Act, but done by the authority of the king alone. In the freedom of worship thus proclaimed by James, *all* his subjects were to share—nonconformists or “dissenters” as well as Catholics. This showed the sincerity of his tolerant spirit. But

**Dissenters
decline to
take
Advantage
of the
Indulgence.**

the Indulgence, although a prerogative which had been exercised by previous sovereigns, was contrary to law; and the dissenters, with a new-born zeal for the law, declined to take advantage of the liberty offered to them. The fact is, they would rather

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themselves suffer, than see Catholics relieved from disabilities.

Next year James issued a proclamation ordering the Declaration to be read in all the churches. Seven Protestant bishops refused to obey the order. They were committed to the Tower; but after trial were acquitted. This result was received as a great triumph over James; and the Protestant party were proportionately jubilant.

William of Orange: Flight of James.—Meantime William of Orange was watching every act of James. Mary and Anne, the king's daughters, were leagued with their father's enemies. The birth of a son to James brought matters to a crisis. The Protestants were alarmed at the prospect of a Catholic succession. A forged petition, purporting to be in the name of the Protestants of England was sent to William of Orange, asking him to come to England and rescue the country from James. William gladly seized an opportunity for which he had long been looking. His preparations for the expedition were made known to James by the English minister at the Hague; but the unhappy king could do nothing to save himself; he could trust no one; he had to wait for results as patiently as he could.

**Protestant
Alarm.
William's
Oppor-
tunity.**

William landed at Torbay in Devonshire, and marched to Exeter, which, however, shut its gates against him. He remained there several days, only to discover that his welcome was not so cordial as the petition led him to expect. He had almost made up his mind to turn back, when several persons of distinction rallied round him. James, alarmed at

**William
enters the
Kingdom,
and James
quits it.**

**1688
A.D.**

the prospect of a general defection of his subjects, and remembering the fate of his father, resolved to quit the kingdom. William of Orange was not incapable of becoming a second Cromwell. James first sent his queen and the young prince to the Court of France, following them soon after.

William and Mary Proclaimed King and Queen; Declaration of Right.—

William entered London on the day of James's leaving it. He was met by a number of peers and commoners, who requested him to assume the government and call a "Convention" to settle the affairs of the nation. The Convention, composed of those from each county and borough who were most opposed to James, met and drew up the "Declaration of Right." It affirmed the illegality of royal dispensation or suspension of the laws, and of keeping up a standing army in time of peace, the right of petition, of free election, of free parliamentary debate, of impartial impanelling of juries, and of the pure administration of the laws. It declared that James had abdicated the throne; and it settled the Crown on William and Mary; on their issue; and failing them, on Anne and her issue. William accepted; and William and Mary were proclaimed King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland. "The great English 'Revolution' was now complete. Thus terminated the grand struggle between the sovereign and the parliament, not in the establishment of a wild democracy, but in the adjustment and firm foundation of the three great estates of the realm—the King, the Lords, and the Commons, upon whose due balance and mutual check the strength of the English constitution mainly depends."

1689
A.D.

Provisions
of the
Declaration.

1689
A.D.

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Estates.

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CHAPTER VI.

WILLIAM AND MARY.

A.D. 1688 to A.D. 1702.

Parliamentary Proceedings:
Coronation of William and
Mary: Bill of Rights.

Scotland: Massacre of Glen-
coe.

Ireland: William and James;
Penal Laws.

France: The Treaty of Rys-
wick.

National Debt: Triennial
Act: Freedom of the Press.

Death of Mary: William
Sole Ruler: The Act of
Settlement: Party Govern-
ment.

The Spanish Succession.

Death of William: His
Character.

Parliamentary Proceedings; Coronation of William and Mary; Bill of Rights.—As soon as William and Mary were proclaimed King and Queen of England, the Convention declared itself a Parliament. It proceeded to settle the revenue of the king; and in voting him supplies it assumed for the first time the right to *appropriate* them, that is, the right to say how they should be expended. Heretofore the king was permitted to do with them what he pleased. The mutiny of a Scotch regiment led to the passing of the Mutiny Act, which placed the troops under martial law. The army was remodelled, and brought more under Parliamentary control. Half the regiments were Dutch guards.

At the coronation of William and Mary a new oath was used. Instead of swearing to maintain the Church as in the days of Edward the Confessor, they now swore to maintain the Protestant religion, at the same time abjuring the Holy Sacrifice of the Mass,

Feb. 13
1689
A.D.

Appropriations.

1689
A.D.

The Army.

New Oath
used at the
Coronation.

the doctrine of the Real Presence, and the veneration of the Blessed Virgin and Saints.

Freedom of Worship was secured to Protestant dissenters by the Toleration Act, but no relief was granted to Catholics or Unitarians. Seven bishops of the established church refused to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, and were suspended. Their example was followed by four hundred of the clergy, who were deprived of their livings, and under the name of non-jurors, formed a class devoted to the House of Stuart. The followers of that House are known in history as *Jacobites*. William, by the Act of Grace, granted a general pardon for political offences.

1689
A.D. Later in the year, on the reassembling of Parliament, the Declaration of Right, with some enlargement, passed into law as the Bill of Rights. Its chief provisions were given in the last chapter. "William, Mary, and Anne were sovereigns, simply by virtue of the Bill of Rights."

Scotland: Massacre of Glencoe.—In Scotland a Convention settled the crown on William and Mary. Presbyterianism quietly took the place of Episcopacy, as the established form of worship.

But the whole nation was not inclined to accept the new rulers. The Duke of Gordon held the Castle of Edinburgh for James; and the Highland clans, to support his cause, sent to the field three thousand men under the gallant Viscount Dundee, John Graham of Claverhouse. He defeated the troops of William at Killiecrankie, near Blair Athol, but fell in the moment of victory. Edinburgh had already surrendered; and

The High-
land Clans
Loyal to
James.

1689
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with the death of Dundee all resistance to William ceased.

Some time afterwards pardon and indemnity were granted to all those who would lay down their arms and take the oath of allegiance before the last day of the year. All submitted in good time but McDonald of Glencoe. Dalrymple, Master of Stairs, in whose hands the government of Scotland mainly rested, and who was a bitter enemy of the McDonalds, eagerly seized on this pretext, and an order "for the extirpation of that sect of robbers" was laid before William and received his signature. The troops were chosen from the Campbells, the deadly foes of the clansmen of Glencoe, and were quartered peacefully among the McDonalds for twelve days, till all suspicion of their end had passed away. At daybreak, on the thirteenth day, they fell on their hosts, and in a few moments thirty of the McDonalds lay dead in the snow. The rest, sheltered by a snow-storm, escaped to the mountains, to perish for the most part of cold and hunger. "The massacre of Glencoe set the stamp of execration on William's name; and though he was doubtless imposed upon by Dalrymple, it is impossible to acquit him of culpable negligence, if he were not guilty of direct connivance."

1691
A.D.

The McDon-
alds and
Dalrymple.

1692
A.D.

The
Massacre.

Ireland: William and James: Pena! Laws.—But a bloodier and more prolonged struggle had begun in Ireland. James landed there, having been furnished with a small army by the King of France. He was joined by Tyrconnell, the Lord Lieutenant, and the first important event was an unsuccessful siege of Londonderry, which held out for William. Schomberg, at the

James lands
in Ireland
with a
small
Force.

1689
A.D.

head of a Williamite army of ten thousand men, landed in the north, and was soon followed by William, who now took command in person. In the battle of the Boyne the army of James was totally routed. Its

1690
A.D.

**Battle of
the Boyne.
James's
Army
routed.**

opponents advanced from the north under command of William, who in point of leadership was unsurpassed. James, on the other hand, was deficient in the qualities which constitute a successful general. He was wavering and uncertain. At one moment he decided to retreat, at the next he would risk a battle; then he sent off his baggage and six of his field-pieces to Dublin for his own protection; and while thus so remarkably careful of himself, he could not be persuaded to allow the most necessary precaution to be taken for the safety of his army. No one can be surprised that under such circumstances the Irish were defeated: the only wonder is that they had the courage to fight for a single hour under so wretched a leader. Well can we understand the cry of O'Regan, one of the Irish captains: "Change kings and we'll fight the battle over again." James fled to Dublin before the battle was over, and thence to France.

William next took Waterford and laid siege to Limerick, which made a stubborn resistance of six weeks notwithstanding the sneering opinion of the French general, Lauzun, that the ramparts might be "battered down with roasted apples." Brave men and brave women were behind these ramparts; and the defence of Limerick is one of the glories of the Irish people. The capture of Athlone, the defeat and death of the French General St. Ruth at Aughrim, where through

**Siege of
Limerick.**

1690
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jealousy of the Irish leaders he kept the whole plan of battle to himself, thus leaving the troops helpless on his fall, were followed by the surrender of Limerick. Honorable terms of capitulation were offered to the garrison, and Sarsfield, who held command, saw that further resistance was hopeless and useless. A parley took place, and after negotiations "The Treaty of Limerick" was signed. Its most important provisions were, perfect freedom of religious worship for the Catholics, and peaceable possession of their estates, both of which were violated almost before "the ink was dry" on the parchment. In the following year royal letters patent confirming the treaty were issued, signed by William and Mary.

**Limerick
surrenders.**

**1691
A.D.**

**Terms of
the Treaty.**

All who wished to retire to France were at liberty to do so. It is said that fourteen thousand availed themselves of this permission; and such of them as were soldiers entered the service of France, forming the famous "Irish Brigade" whose deeds of valor on the continent of Europe have made them renowned the world over.

**1692
A.D.**

Three years later Lord Capel was appointed Vice-roy. He summoned a Parliament to meet in Dublin. It sat for several sessions and passed many penal laws against Catholics.

**A Parlia-
ment in
Dublin.**

**1695
A.D.**

All the miseries of Elizabeth's and Cromwell's reigns were revived. As it is important that we should know what these penal laws were, a brief summary will not be out of place here. Catholic peers were deprived of their right to sit in Parliament. Catholics could not be elected as members of Parliament.

**Summary
of the
Iniquitous
Penal Laws
enacted
against
Catholics.**

Catholics were denied the liberty of voting, were

excluded from all offices of trust, and from all *remunerative* employment, however insignificant. They were fined sixty pounds sterling a month for absence from Protestant worship. They were forbidden to travel five miles from their houses, to keep arms, to maintain suits at law, or to be guardians or executors. Any four justices of the peace could, without further trial, banish any man for life if he refused to attend the Protestant service. Any two justices of the peace could call before them any man over sixteen, and if he refused to abjure the Catholic religion, they could bestow his property on the next of kin. No Catholic could employ a Catholic teacher to educate his children; and if he sent his child abroad for education he was subject to a fine of one hundred pounds, and the child could not inherit any property in England or Ireland. Any priest who came to the country and was caught, was hanged. Any Protestant suspecting another Protestant of holding property in trust for any Catholic (many kind-hearted and liberal Protestants helped their Catholic neighbors in this way) might file a bill against the suspected trustee, and take the estate or property from him. Any Protestant seeing a Catholic tenant-at-will on a farm which in his opinion yielded one third more than the yearly rent, might enter on that farm, and by simply swearing to his opinion, take possession. Any Protestant might take away the horse of a Catholic, no matter how valuable, by simply paying him five pounds. Horses and wagons belonging to Catholics were in all cases to be seized for the use of the militia. Any Catholic gentleman's child who became a Protestant could at once take possession of his father's

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property. Any Catholic who exercised a trade, except seamen, fishermen, or day-laborers, forfeited his goods and was imprisoned. The Protestant historian Green, in speaking of this dark and unhappy period, says: "For a hundred years the country remained at peace, but it was a peace of despair. The most terrible legal tyranny under which a nation has ever groaned avenged the rising under Tyrconnel. The conquered people, to use Swift's bitter words of contempt, became 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' to the conquerors."

A Peace of
Despair.

France: The Treaty of Ryswick.—The great ambition

of William was to humble Louis of France; and the active sympathy of the latter with the cause of James intensified William's desire. While the struggle between William and James was going on in Ireland, a

William's
Ambition
to humble
Louis of
France.

French fleet, under Tourville, defeated the English fleet off Beechy Head. Many of the chief men of England were favorable to James; and when, two years later, Tourville again put to sea with a large fleet, he expected that the English would not fight against him. In this, however, he was mistaken, for in a battle off Cape La Hogue he was defeated by the combined English and Dutch fleets. The French lost twenty-five vessels. James, who was ready to embark an army for England, gave up the project for the present.

1690
A.D.

1692
A.D.

Meanwhile William had gone to Holland to arrange for a grand European coalition against Louis. For five years the war lasted on the Continent, with little or no advantage to William. Both parties being tired of the

1691
A.D.

William's
Title ac-
knowledged
by Louis

1697 contest, peace was made by the Treaty of Ryswick,
A.D. by which it was agreed that Louis should acknowl-
edge William's title to the throne.

National Debt: Triennial Act: Freedom of the Press.

—To meet the expenses incurred by this war, Parlia-
ment had recourse to borrowing money
from the people on the security of future
taxes, so that the payment might be spread
over future years. Thus was established the *National
Debt*, which during William's reign increased from
three to seventeen millions of pounds sterling.

The Bank of England was incorporated at the same
time, and loaned large sums of money to William.

The pressure of war taxes became severe; and
Parliament seized the opportunity to carry the
Triennial Act. This provided for a new Parliament
every three years. During the same session the
Freedom of the Press was established by the non-
renewal of the act to restrain unlicensed printing.

Death of Mary: William Sole Ruler: Act of Settle- ment: Party Government.

1694 attack of small-pox. After her death William's
A.D. unpopularity increased; several plots
against his life were formed; and his
Parliament showed little confidence in
him. It insisted that his Dutch guards
should be sent back to Holland, and compelled him
to take from his Dutch friends some lands in Ire-
land, so that these lands might be sold to pay the ex-
penses of the war. Mary had died childless; death
had carried away all the children of Anne;
consequently a new arrangement for the
succession became necessary. The *Act
of Settlement* was passed, fixing the crown on the

William's
Unpopu-
larity.

The
Succession.

1701

A.D. of *Settlement* was passed, fixing the crown on the

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Protestant heirs of Sophia of Hanover (see genealogical table). It was enacted that the sovereigns of England must be in communion with the Protestant Episcopal Church as by law established. All future kings were forbidden to leave England without the consent of Parliament. The independence of justice was established by a clause that no judge should be removed from office save on an address from Parliament to the Crown. The two principles, that the king acts only through his ministers, and that these are responsible to Parliament, were asserted.

Various
Enactments
of Parlia-
ment.

The plan of a ministry drawn from among the members of the *party* which was *strongest* in the lower House was suggested by Lord Sunderland soon after the accession of William and Mary, and was gradually carried into practice by William.

The Spanish Succession.—Meanwhile a difficult question was agitating Europe. This was the succession to the throne of Spain. Charles II., King of Spain, had no children; and as his sister was married to Louis XIV. of France, their son was the nearest heir to the throne. The prospect this opened up was not pleasing to William. Consequently he tried to make, by *Partition Treaties*, such a division of the Spanish kingdom as would prevent an increase of Louis' power. By the last of these the crown was to pass to the son of the German emperor. When Charles died, leaving the throne to the grandson of Louis, the latter, ignoring the treaties, placed his grandson on the throne of Spain. Parliament refused to help William; and all that he was able to accomplish was a Grand Alliance of England, Holland, and Germany

1698
A.D.

Partition
Treaties.

1700
A.D.

against France. Next year, however, when, on the death of James II., his son James Francis was publicly recognized as King of England by Louis, contrary to the provisions of the Treaty of Ryswick, Parliament cheerfully voted supplies to equip an army to make war on France.

Death of William: His Character.—William, whose health had been declining, died before war was declared. As he was proceeding to Hampton Court his horse fell, and William sustained a fracture of the collar-bone. This brought on a fever, of which he died.

Ambition was William's ruling passion. The one object of his life was to humble Louis of France; and he had little care for England or the English people beyond that which he felt for them as aids in carrying on his foreign wars. He left as his legacy to his successor and the English people a bloody and ruinous war.

**William's
Ruling
Passion.**

CHAPTER VII.

ANNE.

A.D. 1702 to A.D. 1714.

Accession of Anne: War of the Spanish Succession.

Political Parties: Fall of the Whigs and Marlborough.

Political Dissensions: Death of Anne.

Close of the War: Treaty of Utrecht.

Legislative Union of England and Scotland.

Accession of Anne: War of the Spanish Succession.—Anne, daughter of James II. and sister to the late Queen Mary, succeeded to the throne.

As we said at the close of the last chapter, William left a bloody and ruinous war to his successor. He recommended John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough, as the fittest person to lead her armies and guide her enthusiasm. But she needed no urging. When Parliament met she expressed her intention of continuing the war. Two months after her accession war was declared against France and Spain by England, Austria, and the Netherlands. In the first campaign a number of towns were taken. The second campaign was marked by similar successes. The third campaign is memorable for the victory of Blenheim and the capture of Gibraltar. Marlborough, fearing that the French would reach and capture Vienna, hastened into Bavaria and met them at Blenheim, where the first great battle was fought. The French were defeated with immense loss. For this great victory—and in the language of old Kaspar, “What they killed each other for I never could make out”—Marlborough received the thanks of the Houses of Parliament; was created a Duke, with a pension of five thousand pounds sterling a year; and had settled on him and his heirs the manor of Woodstock, on which was erected, at the public expense, a magnificent mansion, named Blenheim from the famous victory.

Sir George Rooke, who had been sent on a cruise to the Mediterranean, attacked and captured Gibraltar, a most important possession, which England has retained ever since. The following year is marked by the capture of Barcelona by the Earl of Peter-

Marlbor-
ough.

1702

His
Successful
Campaigns. 1703

1704

A.D.

1704

A.D.

Battle of
Blenheim.

Other Suc-
cesses of the
English.

borough with an army of Dutch and English troops. Three other important battles were fought and won by Marlborough—Ramilies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709).

Political Parties: Fall of the Whigs and Marlborough.—While the war was raging on the Con-

Strife
between
the Parties.

continent the strife between the two political parties—the Whigs and the Tories—was carried on with much bitterness. The Whigs desired the continuance of the war; the Tories desired peace. Anne was a Tory at heart; but, inspired by her friend Sarah Duchess of Marlborough, she at first favored the Whigs. The influence of the Duchess over Anne helped them to retain power. A quarrel between the two friends led to the introduction of a new favorite at Court, —Abigail Hill, afterwards Mrs. Masham, through whose efforts two Tory ministers, Robert Harley and Henry St. John, were admitted to the Cabinet. The former being accused of plotting against the ministry was dismissed from office; the latter resigned.

Two sermons were preached by a Tory Churchman, Dr. Sacheverell, advocating passive obedience to the Sovereign, abusing the Whigs and all dis-

Dr. Sa-
cheverell.

senters, and even the Revolution itself. He was impeached by the Whigs, found guilty, suspended for three years, and his sermons were ordered to be burned by the common hangman. This trial and sentence led to the downfall of the Whigs. A Tory Cabinet was now formed, of which Harley as head of the Government, and St. John (a decided Jacobite) as Secretary of State, were members. The general election which followed was

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influenced by the Sacheverell trial and sent a Tory majority to the Commons.

When the new Parliament met, Marlborough, instead of receiving a vote of thanks for his services in the late war, was deprived of all his offices. He was accused of appropriating to his own use large sums of money voted to pay his army; and ere long he was obliged to leave England and retire to the Continent. Harley was made Earl of Oxford; St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke.

Marlborough deprived of his Offices and obliged to leave England.

1710
A.D.

Close of the War: Treaty of Utrecht.—The Government now resolved to bring the war to a close. This was done by the Treaty of Utrecht, by which Louis agreed to uphold the Protestant succession in England; abandon the cause of James Francis, called by his enemies the "Old Pretender;" demolish the fortress of Dunkirk; and cede to England Nova Scotia, Hudson Bay Territory, and Newfoundland.

Terms of the Treaty.

1713
A.D.

Legislative Union of England and Scotland.—An Act of Union between England and Scotland was passed in this reign. Its chief provisions were, that Sophia of Hanover and her heirs, being Protestants, should succeed to the crown of the United Kingdom; that there should be one Parliament sitting in London; that Scotland should be represented in this Parliament by sixteen elective peers and forty-five commoners; that all British ports and colonies should be open to Scottish traders; and that Scotland should retain the Presbyterian form of worship, and her own ecclesiastical and civil courts.

Provisions of the Act of Union.

1707
A.D.

Political Dissension: Death of Anne.—Many of the

Jacobite
Effort in
Favor of
James
Francis.

Tories wished to place James Francis on the throne. Bolingbroke was leader in this movement; and he so won the confidence of the queen that Oxford was dismissed.

Bolingbroke had now everything his own way; but before he could take a single step towards

1714 perfecting his plans the queen died suddenly, having, A.D. the very day before her death, appointed the Duke of Shrewsbury, a Whig noble, Lord Treasurer and leader of the government. He took prompt measures for the recognition of George, son of Sophia of Hanover, as king; and before the Jacobites had time to even think of resistance, George had taken peaceable possession of the throne.

CHAPTER VIII.

NOTES OF PROGRESS.

THE country was still to a great extent uncultivated, and consisted chiefly of marsh land and forest. Arts, manufactures, and mining, were yet in their infancy; but were beginning to show healthy signs of growth. Communication between distant places was very difficult for want of good roads. This backward state of the country was due to the long wars and other troubles.

Commerce was greatly extended by rival companies of merchant adventurers, and it received a vast impulse from the naval successes of the Dutch.

Taxation gradually took more of its modern form in the duties of customs and excise.

Education was much neglected during this period. Out of London and the two university towns there was scarcely a printing-press in the kingdom. Latin, the language of state papers, of the traveller and the diplomatist, was spoken and written with ease and accuracy.

Art received some encouragement, chiefly by the employment of foreign artists, among whom the greatest was Vandyke.

Art and
Architec-
ture.

The Italian style of architecture was introduced and developed with magnificence by Inigo Jones and Sir Christopher Wren.

In literature Shakespeare belongs to James as well as to Elizabeth, if he can be said to belong to any special epoch. Carlyle declares him to be the "outcome of the Catholicism of the whole Middle Ages." He found a worthy successor in Ben Jonson. Bacon wrote upon history and law, and the advancement of learning and philosophy.

Shake-
speare.

He stands at the head of the prose writers of the century. John Locke gave to the world a celebrated essay on the Human Understanding.

Bacon and
Locke.

Both, however, are responsible for laying the foundation of that Materialism of which Voltaire and Spencer are among the latest exponents. Science was pursued by Boyle, Wren, Hooke, Harvey, and other worthy associates, who formed the Royal Society under Charles II.; and its achievements were crowned by Sir Isaac Newton.

Science.

Newspapers began to flourish in the reign of William; the coffee-houses and clubs disseminated news previous to this.

Milton, Dryden, and Pope were the great poets of this period. Milton is the poet of the Commonwealth; but his great epic belongs to the Restoration.

Queen Anne's reign has been styled the Augustan Age of English literature, from the number and elegance of its writers. To it belong Pope, Addison, Steele, and Swift. The "Tatler," the "Spectator," and the "Guardian," published from 1709 to 1713, with the worthy object of correcting the taste and improving the morals of the day, were eminently successful. Addison and Steele were the originators and chief contributors.

In the reign of William and Mary, Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia, visited England, and worked in the Deptford dockyard as a carpenter and shipwright, that he might learn the art of shipbuilding. His knowledge and experience he put to good use when he returned to Russia.

The Augustan Age.

Peter the Great.

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HOUSE OF HANOVER OR BRUNSWICK.

A.D. 1714 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

George I.	A.D. 1714 to A.D. 1727
George II. (son)	A.D. 1727 to A.D. 1760
George III. (grandson).....	A.D. 1760 to A.D. 1820
George IV. (son).....	A.D. 1820 to A.D. 1830
William IV. (brother).....	A.D. 1830 to A.D. 1837
Victoria (niece)	A.D. 1837 to the present.

CHAPTER I.

GEORGE I.

A.D. 1714 to A.D. 1727.

Accession of George I.: Whig Ministry: England and Europe.	Foreign Affairs: Quadruple Alliance.
Disturbances: Riot Act.	The South Sea Scheme: Walpole.
"The Fifteen."	Death of the King: His Character.
The Septennial Act.	

Accession of George I.: Whig Ministry: England and Europe.—George I., eldest son of the Electress Sophia of Hanover, grand-daughter of James I. (see genealogical table), succeeded to the throne by virtue of the Act of Settlement. Immediately on the death of Anne he was proclaimed King; but he did not reach England until seven weeks had passed away. During this time the affairs of government were managed by a Council of State; and the Tory ministry, suspected of sympathy with the Stuarts, was dismissed.

On George's arrival in England a new cabinet was formed, composed entirely of Whigs, including Robert Walpole as a leading member. When the new Parliament met, Whig members were in the majority. Oxford, Bolingbroke, and Ormond were impeached on the charge of having advised Anne to make peace with France through the Treaty of Utrecht. Bolingbroke and Ormond fled to the Continent; Oxford refused to flee, and was committed to the Tower. Two years later he was liberated.

"The accession of George I. marks a change in the position of England among European nations. The Revolution forced England to join the great alliance of the European peoples, and it assigned her a special place among them. The result of the alliance and the war had been to establish a 'balance of power' among European nations. Of this balance of power England became the special guardian."

Disturbances: The Riot Act.—The violent measures adopted by Parliament caused disturbance in many parts of the kingdom, and to meet the trouble, the Riot Act was passed. This provides that if any twelve or more persons, unlawfully assembled, to the disturbance of the peace, continue together for one hour after the reading of the Act, they shall be scattered by military force.

1715 A.D. "The Fifteen."—Prince James was at this time residing in Lorraine under the name Chevalier de St. George. With the hope of aid from France he published a manifesto claiming the throne of England; but the death of Louis XIV. a few days later crushed all his hopes.

A Whig
Parliament

The "Bal-
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Power."

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Meanwhile some of the Jacobites in Scotland and England rose in arms. The Earl of Mar with ten thousand clansmen held the Highlands for James. The Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Foster raised his standard in the north of Eng-
Rising of
the
Jacobites.
 land. Foster surrendered to the royal troops, at Preston, in Lancashire; and on the same day, at Sheriff-Muir, in Perthshire, the Earl of Mar, leaving a strong position which he held, gave battle to the royal troops under Argyle. Both sides claimed the victory; Mar retired to Perth. 1715
A.D.

James now landed in Scotland, and was solemnly proclaimed at Scone. But his cause was already lost. Perth surrendered; James and Mar fled to the Continent. The Earl of Derwentwater, Lord Kenmuir, and many others were executed.

The Septennial Act.—The Whigs, fearing from the state of the country that a general election would bring a Tory majority to the House, succeeded in repealing the Triennial Act and passing the Septennial Act, extending the duration of Parliament to seven years—its present limit. 1716
A.D.

Foreign Affairs: Quadruple Alliance.—The Duke of Orleans, Regent of France, having designs on the throne of that country, and fearing the claims of Philip V. of Spain, found it his interest to make an alliance with Eng-
England,
France,
Germany,
and Spain.
 land. A treaty was made which afterwards merged into the Triple Alliance 1717
A.D.
 of England, France, and Holland. Germany soon entered the league, thus forming the Quadruple Alliance. 1718
A.D.
 Meanwhile the Spanish took Palermo and Messina; but their fleet was destroyed off Cape Pesaro by Admiral Byng. The Chevalier was received

with royal honors at Madrid; a fleet was equipped to convey him to England, but it was destroyed by a storm; and Philip of Spain soon joined the Quadruple Alliance.

The South Sea Scheme: Walpole.—For a long time foreign trade had been carried on by companies, to whom monopolies were granted. Amongst these was the South Sea Company, founded by Harley in 1710. The national debt was now pressing on England; and this company, on condition of receiving a monopoly of trading in the South Seas, paid over seven millions of

The National Debt.

1720 pounds for the unredeemable government annuities, A.D. and induced the annuitants to take stock in the company. Large profits were guaranteed—at least fifty per cent. The stock was greedily bought, one hundred pound shares selling as high as a thousand pounds. But the crash soon came. On a sudden the stock fell to three hundred, and thousands were ruined.

Walpole now came to the rescue, and by his skill and prudence brought something like order out of the panic and confusion. By distributing the burden of liabilities he helped the country through the crisis.

Death of the King: His Character.—The king had left England on his usual visit to Hanover, when he was stricken down by apoplexy, and died in his carriage before he reached the palace of his brother, the Bishop of Osnabruck.

1727 A.D.

“The character of the two sovereigns who followed Anne as nearly approached insignificance as it is possible for human character to approach it. Both were honest, straightforward men, who frankly ac-

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cepted the irksome position of constitutional kings. But neither had any quality which could make their honesty attractive to the people at large. The temper of George I. was that of a gentleman usher, and his one care was to get money for his favorites and for himself. The temper of George II. was that of a drill-sergeant, who believed himself master of his realm, while he repeated the lessons he had learned from his wife, and which she had learned from the minister."

Honest and straightforward but insignificant.

George I. was ungainly in manner, cold in disposition, coarse and low in his tastes and habits. He could not speak the English language.

CHAPTER II.

GEORGE II.

A.D. 1727 to A.D. 1760

Accession of George II.

Walpole: Excise Bill.

Spanish War.

War of the Austrian Succession.

Second Jacobite Rising: "The Forty-five."

The Seven Years' War: Co-

lonial War: America and

India: Pitt.

State of Religion and Morality.

Death of the King.

Accession of George II.—George II., only son of the late king, now ascended the throne. He had married Caroline of Anspach, a woman of considerable ability, who after her coronation as queen took an active part in political affairs. His oldest son, Frederick, was called to England from Hanover, and took his place at Court as Prince of Wales.

Walpole: The Excise Bill.—Walpole was still Prime

Minister, and held that office for fifteen years of this reign. His policy was one of peace, which "fell in with the temper of the nation at large," and of bribery, through which he held a majority in the House. His boast was that he knew every man's price.

When the new Parliament met, the Whigs were still largely in the majority. Walpole made an unsuccessful attempt to pass an Excise Bill. To prevent smuggling he proposed the establishment of bonded warehouses, and the collection of duties from inland dealers in the form of excise instead of customs.

The Bill
fails to pass.
Walpole's
Downfall.

This led to a violent agitation; and to avoid bloodshed he withdrew the bill. His power was thus considerably shaken; and his arrogance turned against him a number of his own friends who called themselves "patriots." While the queen lived he had in her a warm friend and strong supporter. Her death, the sympathy of Frederick Prince of Wales with the Opposition, and the Spanish war, which began soon afterwards, led to his downfall.

Spanish War.—The efforts made by Spain to exclude English vessels from trading with her South American possessions,—a privilege which, it is but just to say, England abused by pushing contraband articles on the Continent—and the right which she claimed to search English ships suspected of this smuggling, made the English people so angry, that

William
Pitt.

Walpole, much against his will, declared war against Spain. William Pitt, of whom we shall hear more, distinguished himself by the eloquence of his attacks on Walpole's inaction. Portobello, on the Isthmus of Darien, was taken by

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the English; but the failure of an attack made by land and sea on Carthagen, and the great loss of life through the unhealthy climate, caused much discontent in England. An expedition under Anson to assist Admiral Vernon, who commanded the English fleet at the siege, proved a failure. These disasters, together with Walpole's well-known opposition to England's taking any active part in the support of Maria Theresa of Austria, were used against him, and the general election which followed returned a House in which he had only sixteen of a majority. Next year his majority fell to three. He now resigned office and was created Earl of Orford, which gave him a seat in the Lords.

**English
Disasters.**

1741

A.D.

1742

A.D.

War of the Austrian Succession.—Charles VI. of Germany having no son to succeed him issued a *pragmatic sanction*, by which he provided that his hereditary dominions—the Duchy of Austria and the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia—should descend unbroken to his daughter Maria Theresa; but no European state had yet consented to guarantee her succession. After a time Spain promised support for certain considerations; and England gave a nominal guarantee, more in the way of “diplomatic pressure” than actual help. The other nations of Europe held aloof.

**Maria
Theresa.**

1725

A.D.

The death of Charles brought matters to a crisis. Frederick, surnamed “the Great,” King of Prussia, seized Silesia; the Elector of Bavaria assumed the title Duke of Austria, and was conducted by a French army to Vienna. He was soon afterwards elected emperor as Charles VII. Maria Theresa fled with her infant son to Hungary, where an army was soon raised in her cause. Charles was driven from

1742 Bohemia and Austria. He retired to Frankfort, where,
A.D. some time after, he died in obscurity.

With the retirement of Walpole a change from his policy of peace had at once taken place. The control of foreign affairs was given to Lord Carteret, a man of great power, and skilled in Continental matters. Carteret and the

Carteret in
Control of
Foreign
Affairs.

Court of Vienna now determined not only to set up the pragmatic sanction, but to undo the encroachments of France, which had quietly annexed Alsace and Lorraine during the Spanish war. George II., who warmly supported Carteret's policy, put himself at the head of forty thousand men—

1743 English and Hanoverians—and marched from the
A.D. Netherlands to the Main. Here he defeated the

Battle of
Dettingen

French and Bavarians in the battle of Dettingen, the last battle in which an English king in person commanded the army. The French withdrew from Germany; but the King of France, Louis XV., declared war against England.

Louis took the field in person, with Marshal Saxe next in command. An attempt on Bohemia made by Frederick of Prussia led to an alliance of England, Holland, Austria, and Saxony. Frederick soon concluded a peace.

Marshal Saxe now invested Tournay in Flanders; and an army consisting of English, Dutch, and Austrians under the Duke of Cumberland, second son of George II., marched to its relief. The armies met at the village of Fontenoy, where, after a long and bloody battle, the French, aided by the valor of the "Irish Brigade," routed the allied army, which lost ten thousand men. This

1745
A.D.

Battle of
Fontenoy.

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victory gave Flanders to France. The war lingered on for some time; but the danger to Holland by the new victories of Saxe over the English and Dutch, and the financial exhaustion of France, brought about the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which England surrendered its gains at sea and France its conquests by land; but Frederick was permitted to keep Silesia. "Not a single point was gained for which England had been fighting France and Spain for eight years." The national debt had now reached eighty millions of pounds.

**Treaty of
Aix-la-
Chapelle.**

1748
A.D.

Second Jacobite Rising: "The Forty-five."—

Charles Edward, son of James Francis and grandson of James II., considered the time favorable for another effort to recover the throne of his ancestors. His first attempt was made with the support of a large French fleet and army under Marshal Saxe; but the expedition was totally wrecked off Dungeness by a great storm, and the French Government abandoned the enterprise. Next year Charles, deprived of their support, pawned his jewels and borrowed money from his friends to fit out two ships. Contrary to the advice of the Highland chiefs he set sail for Scotland. One of his vessels was disabled by an English cruiser; the other reached Scotland in safety. Charles landed at Moidart in Inverness-shire with seven followers. But he was soon joined by Cameron of Lochiel, the Macdonalds, and other Highland clans. Sir John Cope, commander of King George's forces in Scotland, marched northward to Inverness, thus leaving the south open to Charles, who did not fail to take advantage of

**"Prince
Charlie."**

1744
A.D.

1745
A.D.

**Charles
reaches
Scotland,
and is
joined by
Highland
Clans.**

Cope's mistake. He marched to Perth, where he made a short stay; thence to Edinburgh, where he took possession of Holyrood Palace, and caused his father to be proclaimed king as James VIII. Cope in the meantime had moved his troops by sea and

**Battle of
Preston
Pans.**

1745

A.D.

landed his forces at Dunbar. Charles met him at Preston Pans near Edinburgh, and by the dash of his Highlanders totally routed the English. This was the turning-point of Charles' fortune. Had he pushed on to London the Stuart dynasty might have been restored. But his army was small, and reinforcements came slowly. His Scotch supporters wished him to be content with the conquest of Scotland. Aid from France, which might have proved decisive, was withheld; and consequently much valuable time was lost. After a delay of six weeks, of which the English Government made good use, Charles marched into England.

**Charles
marches in-
to England,
but few
rise to his
support.**

Hardly a man rose to his support as he passed through districts where Jacobites boasted of their strength. The fact was, the severities which had followed the rising of 1715 were fresh in the minds of the people; they were really tired of war, and wished for peace and quiet to till their lands and reap their harvests, not minding very much who was on the throne or who had the best right to it.

1745

A.D.

Charles reached Derby. Here a council of war was held; his chieftains refused to go farther; and very reluctantly he was obliged to retreat to Scotland. He defeated the royal army at Falkirk; proceeded northward, and passed the remaining part of the winter in the neighborhood of Inverness. The Duke of Cumberland followed; and the decisive battle was

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fought on Culloden Moor, nine miles from Inverness. **1746 A.D.**
 The army of Charles was utterly routed.

The barbarous cruelty of the Duke of Cumberland towards the insurgents—the wounded were murdered in cold blood after the battle—has earned for him the title by which he is universally stigmatized—*The Butcher*.

After adventures even more exciting than those of Charles II., Charles Edward escaped to France. Many noblemen who took part in the rebellion, and many of lesser note, were put to death. No serious effort was again made to restore the Stuarts to the throne. James Francis died in 1765; Charles Edward in 1788; and the last of the ancient and ill-fated line, Henry, Cardinal York, in 1807.

Seven Years' War: Colonial War: America and India: Pitt.—The ambition of Frederick the Great provoked a European coalition, of which the main-spring was the prime-minister of Maria Theresa. He made a secret treaty with France, and another with Russia, Poland, Saxony, and Sweden, for the partition of Prussia. Frederick, discovering the plot, at once seized Dresden, the capital of Saxony, and so began the "Seven Years' War." As his Hanoverian kingdom was threatened, George II. resolved to support Frederick; and England was therefore once more opposed to France on the continent of Europe. But besides these European complications there were other causes for dispute between France and England in their rivalry for supremacy on this continent and India, and in the question of the boundaries of their respective colonies in these countries.

End of the
Stuart
Line.

Cause of
the Seven
Years' War.

**1756
A.D.**



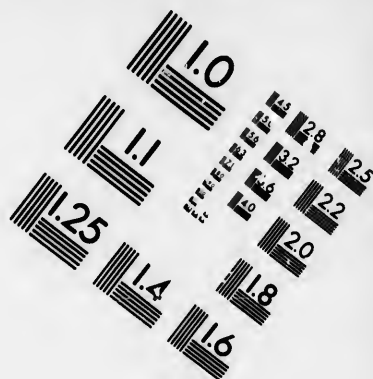
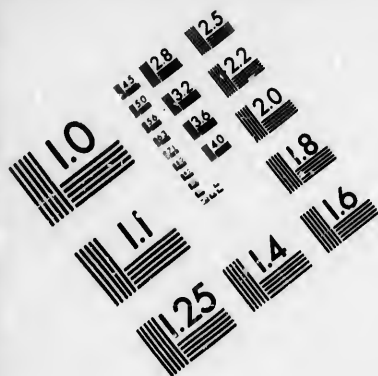
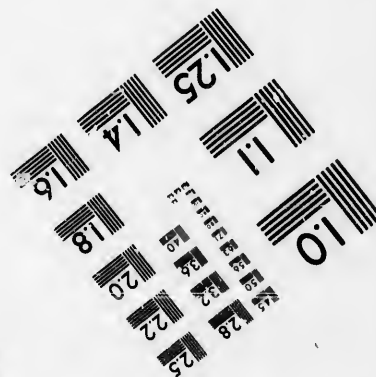
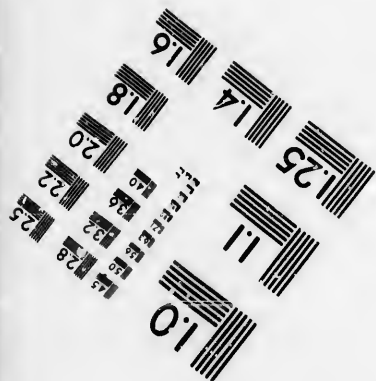
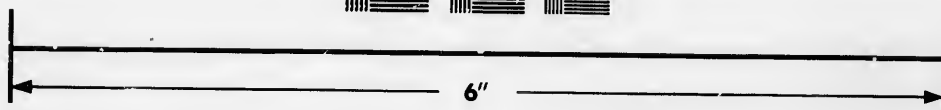
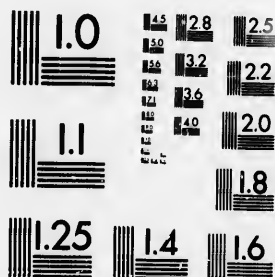


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On this continent the French held Canada and Louisiana—the English the country and seaboard between. To connect Canada and Louisiana, and to cut off the English from the fur trade of the interior, the French began to build a chain of forts along the river Ohio. The English attempted to stop this, but were unsuccessful. They suffered a severe defeat while

**Beginning
of the Co-
lonial War.**

1758 **A.D.** Braddock, who was mortally wounded. In this year, however, Admiral Boscawen and Lord Amherst, with
1758 **A.D.** Wolfe as second in command, took Louisburg in Cape Breton, thus placing the island in possession of the English.

William Pitt, the "Great Commoner," was now chosen to preside in the British Cabinet. His clear judgment, bold and lofty spirit, and unswerving honesty roused in the nation at large a temper which made ultimate defeat impossible. The selection of Wolfe and Amherst showed his contempt for "family" and his inborn knowledge of men.

**Pitt be-
comes Prime
Minister.**

1759 **A.D.** Next year General Wolfe captured the city of Quebec. This was followed by the surrender of Canada to the English.

Besides the East India Company, chartered, as we remember, by Elizabeth in 1600, and since that time gradually increasing in power and in the extent of its operations, there were trading colonies of French, Dutch, and Portuguese. The rivalry between the English and the French, and the gradual encroachments of the latter, brought on war. Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, hoped, by aid of the native princes, to

**War in
India.**

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set up a great French empire in India. He took Madras from the English and overran the Carnatic. But his career of conquest was stopped by Robert (afterwards Lord) Clive, who from a clerkship in the East India Company's service went to the army as ensign. He captured Arcot, and passed from victory to victory. Dupleix was recalled to France. 1751 A.D.

Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, had captured Calcutta. He thrust one hundred and forty-six prisoners into a narrow cell The "Black Hole" of Calcutta. eighteen feet square, known as the Black Hole of Calcutta, which in that hot climate was scarcely fit to hold more than one. Next morning only twenty-three were found alive, the rest having been suffocated or trampled to death. But this cruelty was avenged by Clive in the great battle of Plassey, which placed Bengal in possession of the English and laid the foundation of the British Empire in India. 1757 A.D.

French Power in India destroyed.

The last remnant of French power was destroyed by Clive's capture of Pondicherry. 1761 A.D.

The Seven Years' War was closed by the Treaty of Paris, which will be referred to in the next reign. 1763 A.D.

State of Religion and Morality.—The Protestant historian Green gives the following sketch of the spiritual and moral condition of Protestant England in the time of George II. It is most instructive, as showing what a "reformed" church gave to the people in place of the old Faith, its wise restraints and practical piety, and its care for the poor. "The system of pluralities turned the wealthier and more learned of the Protestant clergy into absentees, while the bulk of them were indolent, poor, and without social con-

Effect of a "Reformed" Church.

sideration, A shrewd, if prejudiced, observer brands the English clergy of the day as the most lifeless in Europe, 'the most remiss of their labors in private, and the least severe in their lives.' There was a revolt against religion and against churches in both the extremes of English society. In the

**Religion a
Laughing-
stock, and
Society
grossly
Immoral.**

higher circles of society 'every one laughs,' said Montesquieu on his visit to England, 'if one talks of religion.' Of the prominent statesmen of the time the greater part were unbelievers in any form of Christianity, and distinguished for the grossness and immorality of their lives. Drunkenness and foul talk were thought no discredit to Walpole. Marriage was no longer held sacred; and a morality which savors of paganism was openly inculcated by authorities on manners. At the other end of the social scale lay the masses of the poor. They were ignorant and

**Ignorance
and Brutal-
ity of the
Masses.**

brutal to a degree which is hard to conceive, for the increase of population which followed on the growth of towns and the development of commerce had been met by no effort for their religious or educational improvement. The rural peasantry, who were fast being reduced to pauperism by the abuse of the poor laws, were left without much religious or moral training of any sort. 'We saw but one Bible in the parish of Cheddon,' said Hannah More at a far later time, 'and that was used to prop a flower-pot.' The criminal class gath-

**The Crim-
inal Class.**

ered boldness and numbers in the face of ruthless laws which only testified to the terror of society,—laws which made it a capital crime to cut down a cherry-tree, and which strung up twenty young thieves of a morning in front

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of Newgate ; while the introduction of gin (which came over with George I.) gave a new impetus to drunkenness. In the streets of London at one time gin-shops invited every passer-by to get drunk for a penny, or dead drunk for two pence."

The Catholics were suffering from extreme depression, and every means of education was well-nigh denied them. They were forbidden by law to open seminaries at home, or to send their children to foreign schools. Under these cruel disadvantages, however, they were still able to produce many men of learning, such as Hawarden, Walmesley, Alban Butler, and Dr. Richard Challoner, Vicar Apostolic of the London District, author of many works of piety in use at the present day.

The
Catholics
oppressed.

In Ireland the penal laws against the Catholics continued with unabated vigor. Fear that they would give assistance to Charles Edward led the Lord Lieutenant, Lord Chesterfield, to conciliate them by some relaxation of the severe laws ; but when the danger passed away they were left to their sufferings as before.

Irish Penal
Laws.

Death of the King.—In the midst of the victories attending the English army and navy all over the world, a fairly contented people, and an able and trusted ministry, the king died suddenly of heart-disease. His character has been told with that of his predecessor at the close of the last chapter. Frederick, Prince of Wales, with whom he had lived on bad terms, died before him, and the throne passed to Frederick's son.

1760
A.D.

CHAPTER III.

GEORGE III.

A.D. 1760 to A.D. 1820.

(First Period to A.D. 1789.)

Accession of George III.

Political Parties.

End of Seven Years' War:

Treaty of Paris.

John Wilkes: Parliamentary

Reform.

American Revolution.

Ireland: Legislative Independence.

The Gordon Riots.

Changes in the Cabinet.

India: Regulating Act: Board

of Control.

The Royal Family.

Accession of George III.—The grandson of George II. now ascended the throne as George III. He was born in England, and, to use his own words, gloried in the name of Briton. He was well received by the people, whose loyalty and enthusiasm were freely offered to him as a native sovereign. Events so many and so important took place in his long reign of sixty years—the longest in English history—we shall find it convenient to divide it into two periods, the second beginning with the French Revolution.

Political Parties.—During the last two reigns the great Whig families had gradually drawn to themselves almost all power in the state, often encroaching on the prerogatives of the crown itself. "To this usurpation George was determined not to submit. His resolve was to govern; not to govern against law, but simply to govern, to be free from the dictation of parties and ministers, and to be in effect the first minister of state."

The Earl of Bute, a Scotch Tory, who had been George's tutor and was now his chief friend and ad-

George's
Resolve.

Well re-
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viser, was placed in the Cabinet. The Tories had by this time returned to political life, and joined the party of the king.

End of the Seven Years' War: Treaty of Paris.—

France was now showing a disposition for peace, to which the king, advised by Bute, was inclined. But Pitt was in favor of continuing the conflict; and as a treaty of alliance had been made by France, Spain, and Naples, known as the "Family Compact," since the three royal houses were of the Bourbon family, he advised that war be declared against Spain also. His colleagues dissented from his views; he resigned in consequence, receiving an annual pension of three thousand pounds, and his wife the title Baroness Chatham. Later in this reign he was created Earl of Chatham.

The
"Family
Compact."

1761
A.D.

The Earl of Bute succeeded Pitt as Secretary of State; and on the resignation of the Duke of Newcastle, who had been nominal premier for some time, he became Prime Minister. "He took office simply as an agent

Bute
becomes
Prime
Minister.

of the king's will; and the king's will was to end the war." Circumstances, however, obliged the government to carry out the aggressive policy of Pitt. The war with France continued, and hostilities were commenced against Spain. The struggle was carried on chiefly in the East and the West Indies, and many of the latter islands were taken by the English. At last peace was made by the Treaty of Paris, 1763, by which an interchange of forts and islands took place; England retaining her conquests in North America. The English people looked on this treaty as a disgraceful surrender; and

Is forced to
resign.

Bute, unable to withstand the storm of popular in-

dignation, was obliged to resign. He was succeeded by George Grenville.

John Wilkes: Parliamentary Reform.—The part which this man played in English history shows how even a very worthless person may be brought into prominence when he is looked on as the representative of some great principle. John Wilkes was a member of Parliament, talented but profligate. "By a singular irony of fortune he became the chief instrument in bringing about three of the greatest advances which the British Constitution has ever made.

**Wilkes the
Chief In-
strument in
effecting
Three Great
Reforms.**

He woke the nation to a conviction of the need for parliamentary reform, by his defence of the right of constituencies against the despotism of the House of Commons; he took a lead in the struggle to put an end to the secrecy of parliamentary proceedings; and he was the first to establish the right of the press to discuss public affairs."

Wilkes was also editor of a paper called the *North Briton*. In a certain number of that paper he attacked the speech from the throne, and charged the king with uttering a falsehood. Grenville caused a general warrant to be issued—that is, one in which no name is mentioned—for the apprehension of "the authors, printers, and publishers of the seditious libel." On this warrant Wilkes was arrested and committed to the Tower; but claiming his privilege as a member of Parliament, he was at once released. The matter was referred to the courts, which decided that general warrants are illegal. Wilkes was then expelled from the House, found guilty of libel, and, having fled to France, was outlawed. Returning to England he was

**General
Warrants
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elected for Middlesex; but the House refused to admit him. Four times he was returned, and as often refused admission. But he afterwards took his seat, and, later, filled the offices of Sheriff and Mayor of London.

It was during these exciting times that the "Letters of Junius" appeared, attacking the misgovernment of the king and his ministers.

American Revolution.—The National Debt had increased enormously—it was now one hundred and forty millions of pounds—and Grenville sought anxiously for means to raise money. He conceived the scheme of taxing the New England colonies; and the Stamp Act was passed, by which it was enacted that every document used in trade or legal proceedings, to be valid,

The Stamp Act. 1765 A.D.

should have affixed to it a stamp, the lowest in value costing a shilling, the duty increasing in proportion to the amount set forth in the document. This raised a storm in the colonies. Taxation and representation, they said, go hand in hand. No representation, no taxation.

Grenville was obliged to give way, and repealed the Act, but he did not abandon the principle. To this he held strongly, and he put it in force next year by imposing duties on paper, glass, tea, and some small articles. Later, these taxes were partly repealed, the only one retained being a tax of three pence on the pound of tea, on which the original duty was one shilling.

The Tea Tax. 1766 A.D.

Combinations were at once formed in New England against the importation and use of tea, and measures were taken to prevent its being landed or sold. Accordingly, on the arrival of three tea-ships at Boston

1773 they were boarded by a band of men disguised as
A.D. Indians, who emptied the tea into the harbor. When this news reached England the government determined to punish the colonies in general, and Boston in particular. The port of Boston was closed, the customs being transferred to Marblehead, the seat of government to Salem. In spite of the warnings of Burke, Fox, and Pitt, further measures of coercion were adopted. The British Parliament withdrew from the colonial governments much of their power, and this gave deep offence to the people. A congress of delegates from the thirteen colonies met at Philadelphia. A Declaration of Rights was agreed to, in which was set forth, with other things, the claim of the colonists, as British subjects, to participate in making their own laws and in imposing their own taxes. Among the papers issued by this congress were a petition to the king, an address to the people of Canada inviting their alliance in resisting England, and an address to the people of Great Britain.

Cargoes of
Three Tea
Ships
thrown
Overboard
in Boston
Harbor.

Sept. 5.

1774 Declaration
A.D. of Rights.

The colonists perceived that war was inevitable, and they began quietly to prepare for the conflict. Small stores of arms and ammunition were accumulated by the provincial government of Massachusetts at Worcester and Concord. General Gage, the English governor, secretly despatched a force to destroy the stores at Concord. This led to the first engagement, which took place at Lexington, half-way between Boston and Concord, where the English troops met a small citizen army. Here the first blood was shed, and the War of the Revolution began.

1775
A.D.

Battle of
Lexington.

War of the Revolution began.

Congress now reassembled ; another petition was sent to the king ; but measures were taken to raise an army, to equip a navy, and to provide arms and ammunition. The citizen forces before Boston were adopted as the nucleus of a colonial army ; and George Washington, a member of Congress, was appointed commander-in-chief. Before he could reach his command the battle of Bunker Hill was fought, in which the British troops won the victory, but with such great loss, their army was almost disabled.

The Colonial Army.
Washington.

May 24
1775
A.D.

An invasion of Canada was now decided on, and General Montgomery was appointed to lead the expedition. He succeeded in taking Montreal, but failed to capture Quebec. After a siege of some months, during which Montgomery was killed, the arrival of British reinforcements obliged the Americans to leave Canada.

June 17
1775
A.D.

The same year saw the success of the colonial arms at Boston and Charlestown, and the "Declaration of Independence." This memorable document was based on a resolution proposed and passed in Congress "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states ; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown ; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved."

Declaration of Independence.

July 4
1776
A.D.

For seven years the war continued ; but France coming to the aid of the colonists turned the tide of fortune in their favor. The defeat of the English general Burgoyne at Saratoga may be traced to this help. The surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown in Vir-

Colonies become Free and Independent States.

1777
A.D.

1777
A.D.

1781

ginia, where he was besieged, put an end to the war.
 1783 A.D. Two years later a treaty was signed at Versailles, by which Great Britain formally acknowledged the United States to be "free, sovereign, and independent."

1779 A.D. During this war Gibraltar was besieged by the combined French and Spanish fleets. It was gallantly defended by General Elliot, who for four years baffled all attempts to capture the fortress. It has ever since remained in undisturbed possession of the English.

Ireland : Legislative Independence.—In the reign of Henry VII. an Irish Parliament was held at Drogheda under the governorship of Sir Edward Poynings. Then was passed that iniquitous statute known as "Poynings' law," which provided that, henceforth, no Parliament should be held in Ireland until the Lord Deputy and Council had first certified to the king under the great seal, as well the causes of holding such Parliament as the Acts they designed to pass, and until the same should be approved by the King in Council.

The alliance of France with the revolting American Colonies, and the success of the Revolution, made it clear to the English Government that, for the prevention of dangerous complications at home, something must be done to relieve Irish Catholics from their disabilities. Trifling commercial concessions were granted—just enough to make the Irish people believe that they need not expect justice except under the compulsion of fear, and not enough to benefit the country. A bill was passed which partly relieved the Catholics. They were now allowed a few of the rights of citi-

**Slight Con-
cessions to
Irish
Catholics.**

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zens. They were permitted to take and dispose of leases ; priests and schoolmasters were no longer liable to prosecution.

Grattan entered Parliament in 1775. In 1780 he made his famous demand for Irish inde- 1780
A.D.

pendence. The *Volunteers*, who took up arms in the north for the defence of their country when the coast was threatened by French privateers, had now risen to be a body of national importance. Delegates from all the volunteer associations met at Dungannon ; and the government dare not prevent or interrupt their proceed- 1782
A.D.

ings. Resolutions were adopted demanding civil rights and commercial freedom. The effect of this powerful agitation was decisive. In Parliament Grattan brought forward his celebrated motion for independence, which was carried. A period of unex- 1782
A.D.

amplified prosperity followed. "If the Parliament had been reformed when it was freed, it is probable that Ireland would at this moment be the most prosperous of nations. But the Parliament was not re-

The Irish
Parliament
Independent
but Unre-
formed.

formed. The prosperity which followed was rather the effect of reaction than of any real settlement of the Irish question. The land laws were left untouched, an alien church was allowed to continue its unjust exactions ; and though Ireland was delivered, her chains were not all broken, and those which were, still hung loosely round her, ready for the hand of the traitor or foe. Though nominally freed from English control, the Irish Parliament was not less enslaved by corrupt influence. Perhaps there had never been a period in the history of England when bribery was more freely used, when corruption was

more predominant." The natural consequences of such a condition of affairs we shall find later.

The Gordon Riots.—English Catholics received the benefits of the very small measure of relief granted to their coreligionists of Ireland. This aroused all the old feeling of Protestant bigotry and intolerance, and the shameful "No Popery" cry was once more heard through the land. Protestant associations were formed under the presidency of Lord George Gordon. Under his auspices a mob assembled

**Protestant
Bigotry and
Intolerance,
Doings of
the Mob in
London.**

in St. George's Field, in the neighborhood of London, and marched to the House of Commons to petition against the concessions made to the Catholics; but Parliament refused to grant their prayer. The mob then broke out into riot: Catholic churches were set on fire, the prisons were broken open and burned, as well as several private houses belonging to Catholic families. The mob was in possession of London for five days; and it was not until the military were called out and five hundred of the rioters shot down that peace was restored. These riots are graphically described by Dickens in his novel "Barnaby Rudge."

But out of this evil came good. The first step towards the restoration of Catholics to their civil and religious rights was taken; and from that day to the present the work of justice has gone forward—slowly perhaps, but surely.

**Tardy
Justice.**

Changes in the Cabinet.—The American war, carried on under the administration of Lord North, had proved a hopeless contest for the English, and had caused much loss of men and money. The king

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resolutely held to the war; but two votes in the House of Commons, one against continuing the war, the other a vote of want of confidence in North's administration, being carried by a majority of nine only, North resigned. The king was now obliged to form a Whig ministry under Lord Rockingham. It was during his term of office **Many Changes of Ministry.** that the claim for Irish legislative independence was yielded. On the death of Rockingham, after a few months' administration, **1782 A.D.** Lord Shelburne succeeded, who made the treaty acknowledging the independence of the United States. **1783 A.D.** Eminent among the Whigs were Fox and Burke. They boldly attacked the policy of the king, who by useless offices and pensions was able to bribe men to vote as he pleased. The Whigs were now divided into two parties—one following Lord Shelburne, called the Chatham party; the other, Fox. The latter joined with Lord North to overthrow the Shelburne administration. They succeeded; and a coalition government was **Fcx.** formed, Fox and Lord North being joint Secretaries of State, and the Duke of Portland Premier. Owing, however, to troubles in India, which will be explained presently, they did not remain long in office. Fox introduced his East India Bill, which placed the Government of India in charge of seven Commissioners, **1783 A.D.** who were to be named by Parliament first and afterwards by the crown. The king was very much displeased with the bill, as it seemed to be a plan to set aside the rights of the crown. By his influence the Lords threw it out; he dismissed his ministers, and called on the younger Pitt **Pitt.** to form a cabinet. A general election resulted in Pitt's

favor; and he held office for eighteen years in spite of the ability of his opponents Burke, Fox, and Sheridan. Pitt took office at a critical time; but he was a very able man, and quite equal to the difficult tasks now set before him.

India: Regulating Act: Board of Control.—We have said (page 259) that the capture of Pondicherry from the French firmly established British supremacy in India. Then began a system of tyranny, corruption, and plunder practised by the merchant-clerks and other officials of the East India Company. Clive

The East
India Com-
pany Tyran-
nous and
Corrupt.

himself was not free from complicity in this misconduct; but he saw that "the time had come when greed must give way to the responsibilities of power." He returned to India and at once set to work to put down private trading by the Company's servants, with all its vicious consequences. His exertions led to measures of reform in the government of the country. The "Regulating Act" placed the three provinces of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay under the Governor of Bengal, who was thus made Governor-General.

1773
A.D.

Warren Hastings was the first Governor-General, and did much to establish a strong government and a respect for the law. He, however, did some harsh and wicked things during his administration. He had constant quarrels with his council; and complaints against him were frequently made to the home government. It was at this stage that Fox introduced his East India Bill already mentioned. Pitt was now obliged to take up the India question. He had a bill passed appointing a *Board of Control* as

Warren
Hastings.

1782
A.D.

The Board
of Control
appointed.

a department of the English Government to manage the political affairs of India, while the Company was allowed to carry on its own business and appoint its own officials. This method of double government lasted till 1858, when the country was placed under direct control of the crown.

Hastings was impeached in the House of Commons. 1788
A.D.
His trial lasted for seven years; but ended in his acquittal. The impeachment Hastings impeached. was supported by Fox, Sheridan, and Burke, the speeches of the latter being masterpieces of oratory.

The Royal Family.—There was trouble in the royal household, chiefly through the misconduct of the Prince of Wales. He not only allied himself with the Whigs, in opposition to his father, but made his residence, Misconduct of the Prince of Wales. Carlton House, a scene of disgraceful revelry, and incurred enormous debts by reckless extravagance and gambling. He married a Catholic lady, Mrs. Fitzherbert, a virtuous, intelligent, and accomplished woman; but the law of England did not recognize the marriage as legal. A vote was passed in the House of Commons to discharge the prince's debts; and ten thousand pounds a year were added to his income. The king now suffered the first severe attack 1788
A.D. of insanity, some symptoms of which appeared over twenty years before. The Insanity of the King. opposition claimed that the Regency belonged of right to the Prince of Wales. Pitt would not admit the claim as a right; but he did not oppose the prince's appointment. The dispute was ended 1789
A.D. by the recovery of the king, who became more than ever hostile to the Whigs.

CHAPTER IV.

GEORGE III.

A.D. 1760 to A.D. 1820.

(Second Period A.D. 1789 to A.D. 1820.)

French Revolution.

Napoleon in Egypt and Syria.

United Irishmen: "Ninety-eight;" Irish Parliament.

Trafalgar: Austerlitz: Jena:

Berlin Decrees.

Peninsular War.

Prince of Wales Regent.

Napoleon's Russian Campaign:

His Abdication.

Napoleon returns to France:

Waterloo.

Death of the King.

French Revolution.—Shortly after the independence of the United States was recognized by the English Government a general peace was made with America, France, Spain, and Holland. During the rest which followed, the arts of peace were cultivated. England was becoming a great manufacturing country. Iron and coal mines were opened up; and the use of steam largely increased facilities for all kinds of industry.

In the midst of this quiet and prosperity trouble once more arose by a revolution in France. Military glory had brought that country to the verge of bankruptcy. At Paris, a mob, goaded by oppression and poverty, and by the immoral and infidel pamphlets with which Voltaire, Rousseau, and others flooded the country, rose against the king, Louis XVI., and his government. "France fell into the hands of a maddened mob, whose wild vengeance against the noble and privileged classes could only be satisfied with blood." They first destroyed the Bastille or state prison; the palace of the king was next stormed, its de-

A General
Peace.

1789
A.D.

The "Reign
of Terror"
in France.

fenders massacred, and the king and queen sent to prison. Then the "guillotine" was set up, the "Reign of Terror" began, and thousands were put to death, including the king and his queen, the beautiful Marie Antoinette. In the midst of such scenes a republic was formed, the worship of God abolished, and the Goddess of Reason enthroned on the high altar of Notre Dame. **A Nation of Atheists.** France now became a nation of atheists, and declared war against the world, offering the assistance of her armies to all people who desired liberty.

The murder of the king and queen alarmed all the crowned heads of Europe; and soon war was declared against France by England, Holland, Spain, Austria, and Prussia.

The English took Toulon, but were compelled to abandon it by the French under Napoleon Bonaparte, whose abilities as a general were fast bringing him into prominence. Prussia, Spain, and Holland now deserted England; Spain and Holland joined France. Napoleon drove the Austrians out of Northern Italy, and compelled the Germans to sue for peace. To England, left alone at this crisis, everything appeared cheerless and hopeless; but two naval victories, one over the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, and the other over the Dutch at Camperdown, opened up brighter prospects. **1797 A.D.**

Napoleon in Egypt and Syria.—Napoleon resolved on the invasion of Egypt. His object, as he afterwards declared, was "to conquer the East and take Europe in the rear." Taking Malta on his way, he landed at Alexandria, **His Scheme of Conquest.** marched to Cairo, and defeated the Egyptians in the

1798 battle of the Pyramids. But his fleet had been pursued by English ships under Nelson, who utterly defeated the French in the Bay of Aboukir—an engagement known as the battle of the Nile. Napoleon marched into Syria, took Jaffa, and laid siege to Acre.

Aug 1
1798
A.D.

Here he was defeated by a combined English and Turkish army under Sir Sidney Smith. Affairs at home demanded his immediate presence there, so, leaving his army, he returned to France. The troops which he had abandoned finally surrendered at Alexandria.

Is elected
First
Consul.

Aug.
1802
A.D.

In the same year Napoleon was elected First Consul of France for life.

United Irishmen: "Ninety-eight:" Irish Parliament.

—As we have already noted, the meagre concessions granted the Irish in 1782 did not give full Catholic emancipation or Parliamentary reform. An organization called the "United Irishmen" was

1791
A.D.

formed, in which Protestants and Catholics worked together harmoniously for the freedom of their country. The fundamental rules of the society were as follows: (1) "That the weight of English influence in the government of the country is so great as

Fundamen-
tal Rules of
the "United
Irishmen."

to require a cordial union among all the people of Ireland to maintain that balance which is essential to the preservation of our liberties and the extension of our commerce. (2) That the sole constitutional mode by which this influence can be opposed is a complete and radical reform of the representation of the people in Parliament. (3) That no reform is just which does not include every Irishman of every religious persuasion." The government made some half-hearted concessions, but not enough to satisfy the

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demands of the United Irishmen, who soon entered into a correspondence with France. This so alarmed the English Government, that Lord Fitzwilliam was sent over as Lord Lieutenant, with instructions to make still further concessions to the Irish. But he was recalled; and Lord Campden, a man of very different views, replaced him. Everything that could be done was now done to excite the Catholics to rebellion. The change of governors and change of policy so exasperated the United Irishmen, they appealed to France for aid. A French fleet, commanded by General Hoche, arrived in Bantry Bay, but finding no preparations made for them they returned to France.

The English Government alarmed.

1796
A.D.

Next year the bitter feelings of the Irish were intensified by the fact that soldiers were sent into the disaffected districts, and were billeted on the people without payment. Any murder against this treatment was punished severely—often with death. The United Irishmen were perfecting measures for a rising when an informer made their movements known to the government. Several were arrested and executed.

The Irish goaded into Rebellion.

1797
A.D.

The expected rising took place; but the leaders were gone, dead, or imprisoned; and "nothing but wild desperation could have induced the people to rise at all." Still, the insurgents met with considerable success in various parts of the country, chiefly in the County Wexford; but their defeat at Vinegar Hill by General Lake crushed the rebellion. A French army under General Humbert landed at Killala and defeated Lake at Castlebar. They marched into the country and at Ballinamuck met a large English force under Lord

The Rebellion crushed.

1798
A.D.

Cornwallis. Here they surrendered, and were treated as prisoners of war, while the Irish who had joined them were executed. In these troubled times the names of Emmet, Wolfe Tone, and Lord Edward Fitzgerald, names to be forever revered by Irishmen, stand out prominently.

1799 Next year the government proposed legislative
A.D. union between England and Ireland; but it raised

such a storm in Ireland, the measure was
The Act of defeated in the Irish House of Commons.

Pitt resigns. In the following year, however, by open
bribery, some of the Irish members were

1800 bought over to support the measure, which was
A.D. finally carried. The union went into effect on the

1801 1st January, 1801. Pitt desired to follow up this by
A.D. an Act of Catholic Emancipation; but being opposed
by the king, he resigned office, and was succeeded by
the Addington Cabinet.

Napoleon : Trafalgar : Austerlitz : Jena : Berlin De-

crees.—When Napoleon became First Con-
sul he made overtures of peace, which was
Napoleon's at length arranged by the Treaty of Amiens.
Diplomacy

1802 But the fact is, Napoleon did not so much desire
A.D. permanent peace as time for maturing his plans of
future operations. While England ceded nearly all
her conquests, France retained Belgium, the left bank
of the Rhine, and several cities in the north of Italy.
Napoleon annexed Piedmont to France, seized Par-
ma, found a pretext for keeping his troops in Hol-
land, and on a frivolous plea insulted the British
Ambassador, who immediately left France. This
1803 was equivalent to a declaration of war; and war was
A.D. accordingly declared. Napoleon then seized on the
English who had gone to France during the peace,

and formed a great camp at Boulogne for the invasion of England. Next year Pitt returned to office as Premier, and was now to conduct a war against Napoleon I., Emperor of France, a title assumed in this year. All the powers of Europe, except Prussia and Spain, joined England.

Attempted
Invasion of
England.

1804
A.D.

The watchfulness of Lord Nelson prevented the landing of a French army on the English shores; and his great victory over the combined French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar removed all fear of invasion, and established England's supremacy on sea.

Oct. 21
1805
A.D.

Eager to chastise Austria, Napoleon marched the "Grand Army" from the shores of the Channel to Vienna, which he occupied. In the battle of Austerlitz he defeated the Austrians and Russians with great slaughter; and next year Prussia was laid at his feet by the battle of Jena.

Austerlitz
and Jena.

1805
A.D.

He entered Berlin, whence he issued the famous "Berlin Decrees" against commercial intercourse with Great Britain. England in retaliation decreed that no neutral power should trade with France or her allies.

1806
A.D.

The Peninsular War.—Napoleon now began his scheme of conquest in the Spanish peninsula. A French army under Junot overran Portugal. He entered Lisbon, and the royal family fled to Brazil. Napoleon placed his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. England sent an army to Portugal under

Portugal
overrun,
and Joseph
Bonaparte
made King
of Spain.

1808
A.D.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, who defeated Junot at Vimeira. Wellesley was superseded by Burrard and Dalrymple, who by the convention of Cintra permitted Junot to evacuate Portugal. Sir John Moore ad-

vanced into Spain, but was obliged to retreat to Corunna, where he fell in the battle which he fought and won to secure the embarkation of his troops. Napoleon took part in this campaign; but his presence was required in Austria, which declared war against him. In the battle of Wagram he once more defeated the Austrians. During this campaign he declared

Napoleon again defeats the Austrians.

1809

A.D. the States of the Church annexed to the French empire; and sent the Holy Father prisoner, first to Grenoble, and then to Fontainebleau.

We shall not enter into details of the war in the Peninsula. Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, took command in Spain; and after a series of brilliant

1813

A.D. victories he drove the French across the Pyrenees.

Prince of Wales Regent.—The king finally succumbed to his mental illness; and the Prince of

1810

A.D. Wales governed as regent during the last nine years of his father's reign.

Napoleon's Russian Campaign: His Abdication.—

Before the result of the war against his forces in the Peninsula was decided, Napoleon invaded Russia. With an army of nearly half a million of men he

1812

A.D. marched into that vast country. He intended to take up his winter quarters in Moscow, and from that city dictate terms to the Russian emperor. But

The Retreat from Moscow.

the winter had now set in, and when he reached Moscow he found it in flames. He was therefore obliged to retreat; and in that awful march back the severity of the cold and the constant attacks of the Russian soldiers, who kept hovering about him all the way, destroyed almost his whole army. He hurried to Paris to prepare for one last effort.

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In the battle of Leipsic, which he fought against the combined armies of Europe, he was totally defeated. The allies entered Paris, compelled him to abdicate the throne, and retire to the island of Elba. Louis XVIII. was proclaimed king, and the peace of Paris put an end to the war.

**Battle of
Leipsic.**

1814
A.D.

1814
A.D.

Napoleon Returns to France: Waterloo.—Early next year Europe was startled by the news that Napoleon had escaped from Elba, and had landed in the south of France. He marched to Paris, all his old soldiers and many new ones flocking to his standard. He took the reins of government once more, and raised an army to meet the allies, who were now determined to crush him once for all.

The decisive engagement was fought at Waterloo in Belgium, where Napoleon was totally defeated. After a few weeks he gave himself up to the English; and by decision of the allies he was banished to the island of St. Helena, where he died six years afterwards. Wellington, who commanded the English troops at Waterloo, earned additional fame by his splendid tactics in that most obstinate fight. "Thus ended a long and terrible war, which in twenty-two years had cost hundreds of thousands of human lives, and had raised the national debt to eight hundred and sixty millions of pounds. It was happily followed by a peace which remained unbroken for nearly forty years."

**Final Defeat
of Napoleon,
and ensuing
Peace.**

June 18
1815
A.D.

1821
A.D.

Death of the King.—King George III. peacefully closed his long reign at the advanced age of eighty-two. We must condemn him for his unrelenting opposition to the claims of the Catholics; otherwise he was a plain, straightforward, honorable man, who in his private life set a good example to his subjects.

Jan. 29
1830
A.D.

CHAPTER V.

GEORGE IV.

A.D. 1820 to A.D. 1830.

Accession of George IV.
Cato-Street Conspiracy.
Queen Caroline.

Foreign Affairs.
The King's Tour.
Catholic Emancipation.

Accession of George IV.—The late king's eldest son, who, as we have seen, held the regency during the last nine years of his father's reign, now ascended the throne as George IV. As a condition for the payment of his debts he had given up his lawful wife, Mrs. Fitzherbert, and married Caroline of Brunswick. This union was not a happy one.

Cato-Street Conspiracy.—Shortly after the king's accession a conspiracy was formed, the object of which was to murder the ministers, set fire to the capital, and overthrow the government. A house in Cato Street was the place of secret meeting—hence the name. The leader was Arthur Thistlewood, an ex-officer of the East India Company's troops. But the plot was discovered, many of the conspirators were seized, and the leaders put to death.

Queen Caroline.—George had always lived an evil life, and Caroline was obliged to separate from him in the year following their marriage. She retired to the Continent, where her own conduct, to say the least, was open to censure. On George's accession to the throne she returned to England to claim her right to the position and dignity of queen. George now made certain charges against her; and at his instigation "a bill of pains and penalties," to

May 1
1820
A.D.

The Queen
obliged to
separate
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deprive her of the prerogatives of queen and to divorce her from her husband, was introduced into the House of Lords. The bill was passed by a narrow majority; but as there was no hope for its success in the Commons, it was abandoned. Caroline presented herself at the door of Westminster Abbey on the day of the king's coronation, but was refused admission. It is said that she felt this treatment so keenly she died soon afterwards of a broken heart. Even over her remains there was disturbance. The government had ordered that the funeral procession should not pass through the principal streets of London; but the people, always on her side, insisted on the most public route, and carried their point.

July 19
1821
A.D.

The King's Tour.—The king visited Ireland, Scotland, and Hanover. His visit to Ireland was a mere pageant, bringing no real benefit to the people—not even a change in his unsympathetic feeling towards his Irish subjects. In Scotland he restored a number of peerages which had been forfeited in consequence of the rebellions of 1715 and 1745.

Foreign Affairs.—A war with Burmah led to the annexation of a large portion of Further India to the British possessions.

1824
A.D.

Russia, France, and Britain entered into an alliance for the protection of Greece, which was suffering from Turkish misrule. A naval engagement in the Bay of Navarino, in which the Turkish fleet was almost wholly destroyed, led to the independence of Greece and its establishment as a separate kingdom.

Alliance to
protect
Greece.

1827
A.D.

Catholic Emancipation.—During the reign of George III. several attempts were made to gain his consent to the introduction and passing of a bill for the relief

of Catholics, but his bigoted obstinacy always stood in the way. From the time of the legislative union between England and Ireland the matter became still more pressing. George IV. was as much opposed to concessions as his father. Some measure of relief would have been provided had the Catholics agreed to give the English Government a veto or prohibitory power in the appointment of Catholic bishops. This point was very fully discussed in Ireland; and though some Catholics would have accepted the evil with the small amount of good offered to them, the proposition was as resolutely opposed by others.

In every parish in Ireland a committee was formed to keep up the agitation; and a general "Catholic Association" was formed in Dublin for the same purpose. O'Connell and Shiel lent all their energy and all their eloquence to the work. The English Government felt that this was no weak effort which could be easily crushed. The demands of seven millions of Catholics could no longer be ignored. It was felt, too, that a rebellion more formidable than any which had ever appeared, was imminent. The triumphant return of O'Connell for Clare was the herald of coming victory.

1828

A.D.

In the same year an act was passed repealing the Test and Corporation Acts. This would enable O'Connell to take his seat in the House were it not that the oath usually administered to members—the oath of supremacy—made it impossible for him to do so. Next year the Catholic Relief Bill, commonly called the "Catholic Emancipation" Act,

The "Catholic Emancipation" Act. O'Connell takes his seat.

1829

A.D.

Bigoted
Obstinacy
of the
Georges.

The "Catholic Association."
O'Connell
returned for
Clare.

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abolishing civil distinctions and giving equality of civil rights to all (with some reservation still made for Catholics), was passed. A new oath was adopted, which Catholic members could accept, and O'Connell took his seat. Catholic Emancipation was passed during the administration of the Duke of Wellington and Robert Peel, the former declaring that he assented to the measure only as an alternative against rebellion.

Next year the king died, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, leaving no heir. 1830
A.D.

CHAPTER VI.

WILLIAM IV.

A.D. 1830 to A.D. 1837.

Accession of William IV.
Reform Bill.

Abolition of Slavery.

Poor Laws: Municipal Laws.

Other Reforms.

Accession of William IV.—William Duke of Clarence, third son of George III. and the eldest surviving brother of the late king, now ascended the throne. His reign "marks the beginning of a new era in the history of civilization and political freedom. From it are to be dated those ameliorative efforts for the diffusion of knowledge and the elevation of the masses which up to the present time are only in process of greater development." Beginning
of a New
Era.

Reform Bill.—The cry for Parliamentary reform,

1830 heard so often in the past, was revived by a revolution in France which drove Charles X. from the throne and called his cousin Louis Philippe to reign as a constitutional king. William was favorable to reform; but the Duke of Wellington, Tory as he was, could not accept so democratic an idea as the reform of Parliament, and resigned office in consequence. The Whigs, for twenty years in the "cold shades of opposition," now came into power with Lord Grey as premier. A bill for Parliamentary reform was introduced. It took away the right of representation from fifty-six decayed or rotten boroughs; gave members to counties and large towns which had as yet no representatives in the House; and extended the franchise to householders or tenants of houses worth ten pounds per annum in boroughs, and in counties to all who owned land worth ten pounds, or paid a yearly rental of fifty pounds. The bill passed the Commons, but was thrown out by the Lords. The Ministry appealed to the country; and the temper of the people was shown by the fact that the ministers had a majority of one hundred and nine in the new House.

Parliamentary Reform. The Whigs come into Power.

1831
A.D.

Features of the Reform Bill.

1832
A.D.

Next year the bill was again brought forward, passed the Commons, and was again opposed in the Lords. The premier proposed to the king the creation of a sufficient number of new peers to carry the bill through the Lords. The king declined to do this, and Grey resigned. Wellington was called on to form a Cabinet, but popular feeling ran so high that the Duke was obliged to fortify his house against a London mob. Grey was recalled to office; and a well-known change in the king's opinion respecting the

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creation of new peers led the Lords to assent to the bill, which now became law. Reform bills for Scotland and Ireland were passed shortly after.

The Bill becomes Law.

**1832
A.D.**

Abolition of Slavery.—This was a period of reform. The next evil attacked was the slave-trade, which still existed in the British colonies. It was long ago proposed to abolish this inhuman traffic; but the opposition from slave-holders, planters, and merchants was so great that the question was under discussion for forty-six years—1787 to 1833—before the friends of humanity were successful in their efforts. Prominent among the workers in the cause was William Wilberforce. An act was passed liberating the slaves, and giving twenty millions of pounds to the slave-owners as compensation.

The Friends of Humanity Successful after nearly Fifty Years' Discussion.

**1833
A.D.**

Poor Laws and Municipal Laws.—We saw that on the suppression of the monasteries in the reign of Henry VIII., the poor, for the first time in English history, became a burden to the state. In the reign of Elizabeth the first poor-laws were passed. Abuses had crept in, and through the system of "outdoor relief" large numbers who should earn their living were supported in idleness. The Poor Law Act placed the local boards under government superintendence, withdrew aid from those able to work, and established poor-houses for those unable to work.

**1834
A.D.**

The Municipal Act placed the government of cities and towns in the hands of the people, giving them power to elect councillors and a chief magistrate to manage civic affairs.

**1835
A.D.**

Other Reforms.—Statutes were passed substituting equitable money payments for tithes; permitting the

marriage of dissenters by their own ministers; arranging a system of registering births, marriages, and deaths; reducing the stamp duty on newspapers; regulating the labor of children in factories, and making provision for their education. A system of national education, begun by annual grants for the erection of schools, was developed by the creation of a Committee of Council on Education.

1837 In the midst of these reforms the king died, in the
A.D. seventy-second year of his age, and within a week of completing the seventh year of his reign.

CHAPTER VII.

VICTORIA.

A.D. 1837 to Present Time.

Accession of Victoria.

The Chartists: The Anti-Corn-Law League.

Ireland.

The English Hierarchy Restored.

Crimean War.

The Indian Mutiny.

Reform Bills: Extension of the Franchise.

Foreign Wars.

Accession of Victoria.—Victoria, daughter of Edward Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III., now ascended the throne. As the Salic law prevailed in Hanover, the crown of that country, which had been worn by the English kings since George I., now passed to the queen's uncle, Ernest Duke of Cumberland, the nearest male heir.

The Chartists: The Anti-Corn-Law League.—In spite of the marked improvement in trade following

the introduction of steam in locomotion, the country still suffered from distress; and the discontent of the poorer classes showed itself in riotous demands for the "People's Charter," with its "Five Points"—Universal Suffrage, Vote by Ballot, Annual Parliament, Payment of Members, and Abolition of property qualification. Some of these have since been conceded; but the attempt made to overawe the government and force it into compliance led to its resisting the demands. The leaders were arrested, and the movement finally collapsed.

The
"People's
Charter."

An agitation for the abolition of the duties on imported corn was set on foot at the same time. These duties made bread dear, and thus weighed heavily on the poorer classes. An association called the Anti-Corn-Law League was formed under the leadership of Richard Cobden. Aided by John Bright, he carried on a peaceful but powerful agitation for several years, until Sir Robert Peel, who as leader of the Conservative or Protectionist party had long resisted the measure, introduced a bill for the repeal of the Corn Laws. The bill was passed; but Peel, having thus alienated many of his former supporters, resigned, and Lord John Russell became premier.

Abolition of
the Duties
on Corn
agitated.

1841
A.D.

The Corn
Laws
repealed.

Ireland.—The agitation for "Repeal of the Union," for the restoration of the Parliament of which Ireland was so unjustly deprived, continued with renewed vigor since the granting of Catholic Emancipation. O'Connell was now the acknowledged leader of his countrymen; and by constitutional means, that is, by

Agitation
for "Repeal
of the
Union."

public meetings, addresses, and petitions, he kept the demands of the Irish people constantly before the government. The agitation reached such a height that O'Connell and seven others were arrested, tried, found

O'Connell
Chief of the
Agitators.

1844 guilty, and condemned to imprisonment. They appealed to the House of Lords, where the verdict was reversed. Lord Denman, in condemning the manner in which the jury-lists had been prepared, said that such practices would make the law "a mockery, a delusion, and a snare."

This trial led to a change in the tactics of some of the bolder spirits, and a "Young Ireland" party was formed—a party of physical rather than moral force.

1848 Then came the famine of 1848, on which the English government looked with shameful indifference, and saw the people die in thousands, but took no steps to help them. From that time to the present the tide of emigration has set out from the shores of Ireland, carrying to foreign countries some of the best and bravest of her sons and daughters, so that in the last forty years the population has decreased over three millions.

1848 An attempt at rebellion was made by the Young Ireland party under William Smith O'Brien. It was unsuccessful; the leaders were condemned to death, but the sentence was changed to penal servitude. A later rising of the Fenians was followed by like results.

1865 Some important measures for the benefit of Ireland were passed in this reign. The Church Dis-establishment. "Disestablishment"* of the Protestant Church, which was maintained out of the public

* Up to this date the Protestant Church of Ireland was called the "Established" Church, because it was *established* and *supported* by the State. *Disestablishment* divested it of this support.

treasury, was a tardy act of justice to the Catholics, relieving them from paying for the support of a church to which they did not belong.

A Land Act was next passed, obliging landlords 1870 before dispossessing tenants to compensate them for im- A.D. provements and securing for them greater fixity of tenure. Ireland owes both these measures to Gladstone.

The country has returned to the constitutional means of forcing the Government to redress its grievances; and through the efforts of her representatives in the Imperial Parliament, aided by the great Liberal party under Gladstone, the realization of O'Connell's dream, and the hopes of the millions of the Irish race scattered over the globe—Home Rule*—may be realized in the near future.

Prospect for
Home Rule
in Ireland.

Restoration of English Hierarchy.—The restoration of the Catholic Hierarchy in England caused 1850 A.D. great joy throughout the Catholic world. The Holy Father divided the country into various dioceses, which he placed under the control of an Archbishop and twelve Bishops. The Archbishop was Cardinal Wiseman. Then appeared the celebrated "Durham letter" of Lord John Russell. He wrote to the Bishop of Durham, bitterly attacking what he was pleased to call the "Papal Aggression." He spoke of the Pope's act as "a pretension of supremacy over the realm of England, and a claim to sole and individual sway which is inconsistent with the queen's supremacy, with the rights of the bishops and clergy, and with the spiritual independence of the nation." Next year was passed

The "Dur-
ham Letter."

* Home Rule.—"Ireland to have a full, efficacious control of her local affairs."—Gladstone, March 17, 1857.

1851 the "Ecclesiastical Titles Bill," forbidding Catholic
A.D. Bishops to assume titles from any place in
 The "Ecclesiastical Titles Bill," scribed the bill as "one of the meanest,
 pettiest, and most futile measures that ever
 disgraced even bigotry itself." Mr. Bright called it
 "little, paltry, and miserable." The bill was passed
 through both Houses after a long struggle. But when
 passed it was practically a dead letter. The Bishops
 ignored it, and it was never put in force. "The his-
 tory of the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill was, therefore, a
 history of blunder, unlucky accident, and failure—
 from the moment it was brought in until its igno-
 minious and ridiculous repeal many years later (1871),
 when its absolute impotence had been not merely
 demonstrated, but forgotten."

1854 **Crimean War.**—To preserve the "balance of power"
A.D. England and France declared war against
 England, France, and Russia, which had invaded Turkey and
 Turkey allied seized the Turkish provinces north of the
 against Danube. English, French, and Turkish
 Russia. troops were landed in the Crimea, and here
 were fought the battles of Alma, Bala-
1854 klava, and Inkerman, in which the Russians were
A.D. defeated. The allies were now reinforced by a Sar-
 dinian contingent, and the battle of the Tchernaya
1855 was fought, the Russians being again repulsed with
A.D. great slaughter. Meanwhile the siege of Sebastopol
 was carried on; the city eventually fell into the
 hands of the allies, and peace was made by a treaty
1856 signed at Paris.

Indian Mutiny.—In the following year a general
 mutiny of the Sepoys or native soldiers of India
 broke out. They took possession of Delhi; then fol-

lowed the horrible massacre of Cawnpore in which men, women, and children were brutally slaughtered; and the siege and gallant defence of Lucknow. After a long and bloody struggle the rebels were brought to submission, chiefly through the bravery and skill of Sir Henry Havelock, and Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde.

Delhi and
Lucknow.

The power of the East India Company was now finally abolished, and the government of India was transferred to the crown. Queen Victoria bears the titles Queen of Great Britain and Ireland and Empress of India. 1858 A.D.

Reform Bills: Extension of Franchise.—It was felt that a still greater extension of the franchise was necessary in order to give the working classes a voice in selecting the representatives of the people. A bill introduced by Mr. Gladstone was defeated. He resigned office, and was succeeded by Mr. Disraeli, who introduced a reform bill, which, being supported by the Liberals, was passed. This bill gave the borough franchise to all householders paying rates, and to lodgers occupying rooms at a rental of ten pounds: the county franchise to occupiers of property worth twelve pounds a year. 1866 A.D.

Disraeli's
Bill.

1867
A.D.

The franchise was again extended by the Franchise Bill of Mr. Gladstone's last administration. This was accompanied by a Redistribution Bill, arranging the number of members for each part of the kingdom. (See chapter on the Constitution.) 1885 A.D.

Foreign Wars.—Besides the Crimean War and the Indian Mutiny, many foreign wars of greater or less importance in which England took part occurred

in this reign. These were: the Afghan War (1839-42), to place on the throne of Afghanistan a prince friendly to England; the war with China (1840), to force the importation of opium into that country—a disgraceful position for England to take; the Sikh war in India (1845), by which the British possessions were still further increased; the Abyssinian War (1868), to punish the king of that country for the imprisonment—somewhat deserved—of meddlesome English missionaries; a war in Egypt (1882), to put down a revolt of Egyptian troops under Arabi Pasha, whose only offence was striving for “Home Rule” for his country, but whose threatened seizure of the Suez Canal was the alleged ground for war.

CHAPTER VIII.

NOTES OF PROGRESS DURING THE BRUNSWICK PERIOD.

WE must first note the flourishing condition of the English colonies, especially Canada, India, and Australia. Under the blessing of self-government these countries are working out their destiny in comparative prosperity and power.

Increase in railway facilities has kept pace with, and added to, the progress of the country.

The development of the postal system is another mark of progress. Previous to 1840 the charge for carrying letters was in proportion to the distance. By the exertions of Mr. (afterwards Sir) Rowland Hill a uniform penny

**The
Colonies.**

**The Postal
System.**

postage was adopted. The post-card system still further reduced the rate. The telegraph system is under post-office management ; and for one shilling a message of twenty words may be sent to any part of the country.

The enormous increase of commerce is one of the chief characteristics of this period and of the present day.

Agriculture, which for a long time did not keep pace with other industries, has improved much of late years.

In material comforts, such as food, clothing, houses, etc., there is a marked advance.

The one drawback to all this prosperity is the vast increase of pauperism, particularly in large towns and cities. How to deal with it is **Pauperism.** a problem engaging the attention of thoughtful men.

The press is now an immense power. By its articles bearing on all great questions, its news, its correspondence, its readers, the **The Press.** whole nation, and, for that matter, the whole world, is, as it were, brought together for consultation.

In scientific pursuits the most wonderful progress has been made.

To improve the condition of their fellow-men was the work of Howard, Wilberforce, and Romilly. Howard's name is forever associated with reform in prison government. He visited most of the prisons of Europe, and letting in the light of public opinion on the shameful abuses of management, he brought about a radical and salutary change. Of Wilberforce we have already spoken. By the efforts of Sir Samuel Romilly the

**Howard,
Wilber-
force, and
Romilly.**

severity of the criminal laws was removed, and punishment in proportion to the crime was meted out. We saw in a former chapter that the cutting down of a cherry tree was punished by hanging.

Although in this "enlightened nineteenth century" there are still many abuses to be remedied, many evils to be removed, many grievances to be redressed, many reforms to be made, it is to be hoped that the daily increasing number of those willing and able to devote their lives and fortunes to philanthropic pursuits, may, under the guidance of the Catholic Church, have their noble efforts crowned with success.

The present state of Ireland under the severe "Coercion Act," which prohibits, under heavy penalties, freedom of speech, whether in public meeting or through the press, is engaging the attention of the whole civilized world. It is to be hoped that better days will soon come for that country.*

* "Ireland was governed one way and Great Britain was governed another way. Irishmen continued to be deprived of many liberties which English men enjoyed."—Gladstone, March 17, 1891.

CHAPTER IX.

THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.*

ALL the laws and all the customary practices which, taken together, determine the person or persons who shall constitute the supreme political authority of a State, and which ascertain the modes of legislation and the method of appointing and restricting the executive authority, are compendiously styled the *Constitution* of the State.

Constitu-
tion of the
State
defined.

The free life and energy of the English Constitution are preserved by a constant maintenance of a mutual dependence between central and local power. The functions of both these classes of authorities are: (1) legislative, that is, making laws; (2) executive, that is, securing that laws are obeyed and punishing the transgressors of them; and (3) administrative, that is, appointing public officials, controlling in detail the different parts of the public service, and making from time to time such regulations as are required for this purpose. The last two functions are frequently called by the common name, executive.

Spirit of the
English
Constitu-
tion.

The central power is compounded of two distinct elements: one legislative, the other executive and administrative. Many of the same persons form part of both elements.

The legislative authority consists of the sovereign,

* From the Primer of Sheldon Amos, M.A., Professor of Jurisprudence, University of London.

the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. The executive and administrative authority is the sovereign as represented and advised by the First Lords of the Treasury, the principal Secretaries of State, and other members of the Cabinet, judicial officers of all sorts, and the heads of the army and navy, of the police, and of various special departments, as those of education, trade, public health, and local government generally.

The local powers are very various and numerous. They are either special officers or boards appointed for different local purposes.

By the Act of Settlement it was enacted that "whosoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this crown shall join in communion with the Church of England as by law established." This simply means that the sovereigns of England must be Protestant.

The monarch may be either a king or a queen. The eldest son of the present queen, the "Prince of

**Law of
Succession
to the
Throne.**

Wales," will, if alive, succeed to the throne on his mother's death. If he be not then alive, his eldest son or grandson will succeed; and if the son be not living, nor leave children, the Prince of Wales's second son will succeed, and so on. If none of the Prince of Wales's children, or their children, are living, then the Prince of Wales's next brother, the Duke of Edinburgh, and his children successively, would come to the throne. In case of a minor (that is, for this purpose, one under eighteen years of age) being heir to the throne, a regent is usually nominated by Act of Parliament; and a regent is similarly nominated in the case of the sovereign becoming invalidated; that is to say, per-

manently incapable of discharging his proper functions.

The functions of the sovereign may be distinguished into those which are (1) in relation to Parliament, and those which are (2) executive and administrative. In both respects the sovereign is always held to act upon the advice of his Ministers, who are responsible to Parliament and the country. These Ministers, who form a compact body called the Cabinet, have entirely superseded in importance, though they have not even nominally displaced, the "Privy Council," of which they and all past Ministers, with a number of other illustrious persons, are members. The Cabinet is a sort of select and confidential committee of advisers, presided over by the Prime Minister, who is now invariably the First Lord of the Treasury.

Functions
of the
Sovereign.

The Cabinet.

The sovereign's functions in relation to Parliament may be described both negatively and positively; that is, by what he cannot do, and by what he can do. The sovereign cannot, by a mere exercise of his will, and without the assent of the two Houses of Parliament, make, alter, or suspend a law, or impose any sort of tax. But though he cannot suspend the operation of a law, yet by his "prerogative of pardon" he can relieve particular offenders from the penalty attaching to their offence; but his advisers are held responsible for any abuse of this privilege.

The Sovereign's
Functions in
Relation to
Parliament.

This "responsibility," or the grand principle of "responsible government," consists in the fact that the members of the House of Commons, for their votes and speeches in the House, are *responsible* to the people who sent them

"Responsible Gov-
ernment."

there, and who, if they see fit, may turn them out at the next election; and that the Ministers are *responsible* to the House of Commons, which by a vote on any bill, or by a direct vote of "want of confidence," can remove them from office. In this case the sovereign sends for the principal statesman of opposite politics, and entrusts him with the task of forming a new Cabinet, or, as it is frequently called, forming a "government."

The queen (acting by the advice of her Ministers) can prorogue Parliament whenever she pleases; and (except in one case) no Parliament can be assembled, prorogued, or dissolved except by her express command. If the sovereign die while Parliament is sitting, or during prorogation, it continues to exercise, or resumes, its functions until prorogued or dissolved by his successor. If the sovereign die after the dissolution of one Parliament and before the day appointed for the assembling of a new one, the last preceding Parliament meets and continues for a period of six months, unless sooner prorogued or dissolved. Except by such an accidental extension of six months in the last-mentioned case, no Parliament can last longer than seven years. The sovereign can dissolve Parliament whenever he pleases. He occasionally dissolves Parliament on the advice of his Ministers when it appears that they no longer possess the confidence of the House of Commons and it seems probable that by "appealing to the people" a new house may be returned more favorable to them, or, at the least, that they may be secure in the belief that the judgment inside the House is fully supported by that outside it.

**Prorogation
or Dissolu-
tion of Par-
liament.**

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When a Parliament either comes to a natural end or is *dissolved*, members of the House of Commons and representative peers of Scotland in the House of Lords are elected afresh. When Parliament is *prorogued*, the members of the two houses are merely dismissed to meet again. A prorogation puts an end to all business then in progress in either house, except certain proceedings of a judicial nature, such as an impeachment.

Difference between Dissolution and Prorogation as regards Members of Parliament.

The assent of the sovereign is indispensable for any bill (or proposed law) to become actual law. The royal assent can be given either in person or by commission in the House of Lords, to which the House of Commons is on such occasion summoned. The same plan is frequently pursued in presenting the "queen's speech" at the opening of a session. The sovereign's power of refusing assent to a bill was last exercised in 1707, when Queen Anne refused her assent to a bill for settling the militia in Scotland.

Royal Assent indispensable to the Enactment of any Law.

In respect to the sovereign's executive and administrative functions, he is said to be the "fountain of justice." He appoints all judges, either directly or by delegation. He can, with a few exceptions, pardon all offenders against the criminal law, either before or after conviction; but this prerogative is seldom exercised. All degrees of nobility are, or have been, derived from grant of the crown. All "corporations," that is, bodies of persons united together so as to be treated, for some legal purposes, as though they were only one person, are created either directly by the crown,

The Sovereign the "Fountain of Justice."

or indirectly so by complying with the terms of certain acts of Parliament.

The sovereign alone can coin money, can impress on it what stamp he chooses, and impart to it its legally current value. The establishment where the coin is made is called the Mint.

Various
Powers and
Prerogatives of the
Sovereign.

The sovereign appoints all ambassadors and diplomatic agents to foreign governments, and conducts negotiations with these States.

He concludes treaties and makes war or peace with foreign States. He has supreme command of the army and navy, under Parliamentary restrictions, and appoints all officers.

The sovereign appoints the viceroys of Ireland, Canada, India, and all colonial governors. His assent* is essential to the validity of all acts of colonial legislatures.

The House of Lords is at present composed of about five hundred and thirty-seven members; but the number is constantly changing. The "Lords" are made up of princes of the blood royal, archbishops, dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, bishops, barons, representative peers for Scotland (chosen for each Parliament), and representative peers for Ireland (elected for life).

The House
of Lords.

The sovereign can make as many new peers and can give them such of the above titles as he chooses. His Ministers usually recommend (especially at the time of their giving up office) the grant of peerages to some of their most active and distinguished supporters.

Up to the present time the House of Lords has

* This assent is given by the viceroy in the sovereign's name.

possessed important judicial functions as the highest court of appeal. These are now abolished, except in cases of impeachment.

The House of Commons consists of members elected by the people, the whole number being 670, comprising those elected by English, Welsh, Scotch, and Irish "constituencies" (that is, bodies of persons entitled to elect one, two, or three members). The following is the present representation in the British House of Commons: England and Wales, 495; Ireland, 103; Scotland, 72.

The House
of Commons.

In the history of the House of Commons the places represented have varied a great deal, according to their changing size and importance. When a town loses its importance, or becomes smaller, or has had bribery very extensively practised in it, it is sometimes "disfranchised," or loses its right to return a member to the House of Commons. On the other hand, if a town increases in importance for the first time, it is allowed to return more members, or one member at least (if it returned none before).

Up to a recent date (1872) the election of members for the House of Commons was done by "open" voting; that is, in such a way that every one could know who voted for each candidate. The votes are now given by secret ballot.

If any member of the House accepts any office of profit from the crown, his election is void and a new writ must issue for a fresh election.

A member sometimes retires from his seat (which he cannot generally do otherwise) by accepting the office of steward or bailiff of the three "Chiltern Hundreds" of Stoke, Desborough, and Boneham. The office is in the gift of the crown, and is ordi-

narily given to any member who applies for it. It is merely nominal, but as the warrant of appointment grants it, together with all "wages, fees, and allowances," it is treated as a place of profit.

The most important part of the business of the House of Commons is that of "passing bills." The proceeding of passing a bill is as follows: The first step is the member who proposes to introduce a bill on any subject to have it prepared, or, as it is called, "drafted"—that is, written out in

the form he wishes the act to bear when it is passed—and printed. A bill must have the names of at least two members on the back of it, approving of it. A bill can be brought in either by a private member—that is, one not connected with the government, hence called a private bill—or by a member of the government, the latter being called a "government measure." Motion is then made for leave to bring in the bill, and when the motion is agreed to (after debate only when the bill is of a very exceptional character) the bill is ordered to be brought in, and this is generally done on the same day. On its being brought in and delivered to the Clerk of the House, the bill is said to have been "received by the House." The first reading of the bill takes place without debate, and is merely formal. The bill is then said to have been read a *first time*. When the bill has been read a first time the question is put, "That this bill be read the second time." The second reading is not, however, taken at that time; a future day is named for the purpose. When the day arrives the member in charge of the bill moves that it be read a second time. This is the most important

Passing
Bills the
most im-
portant
Business of
the House of
Commons.

Various
Stages of
a Bill.

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stage of the bill, and is the stage at which bills wholly disapproved by the House are usually thrown out. On making the motion the member at this time generally enters into a full explanation of the measure. Then follows a debate more or less prolonged. If the bill passes this stage, it is referred to a committee of the whole House, which will sit at some future day. When the day comes the Speaker leaves the chair, another member takes it, and the bill is discussed clause by clause, it being open to any member to propose any alteration, or omission, or addition. Divisions are taken on disputed points. The bill is then "reported" to the House, and if amendments have been made it is ordered to be considered at a future day, on which day a motion is made that the bill be read a third time, and after that a motion is made "That this bill do pass." If this is agreed to, the bill has "passed" the Commons, and is now sent "up" to the Lords, where it is dealt with in a similar manner. All bills, with the exception of those affecting taxation, may be proposed first in the Lords, though in fact comparatively few are.

For a long time past the members of both houses have been accustomed to range themselves in one or the other of the great parties. The oldest names of the parties are Whig and Tory. The modern names are, respectively, Liberal and Conservative.

The oldest names are, however, still occasionally used, though frequently in an opprobrious sense. Order* and preservation are the ideas which direct the policy of Tories and Conservatives; while progress and improvement rather inspire the policy of the Whigs and Liberals. There are some

Political
Parties.

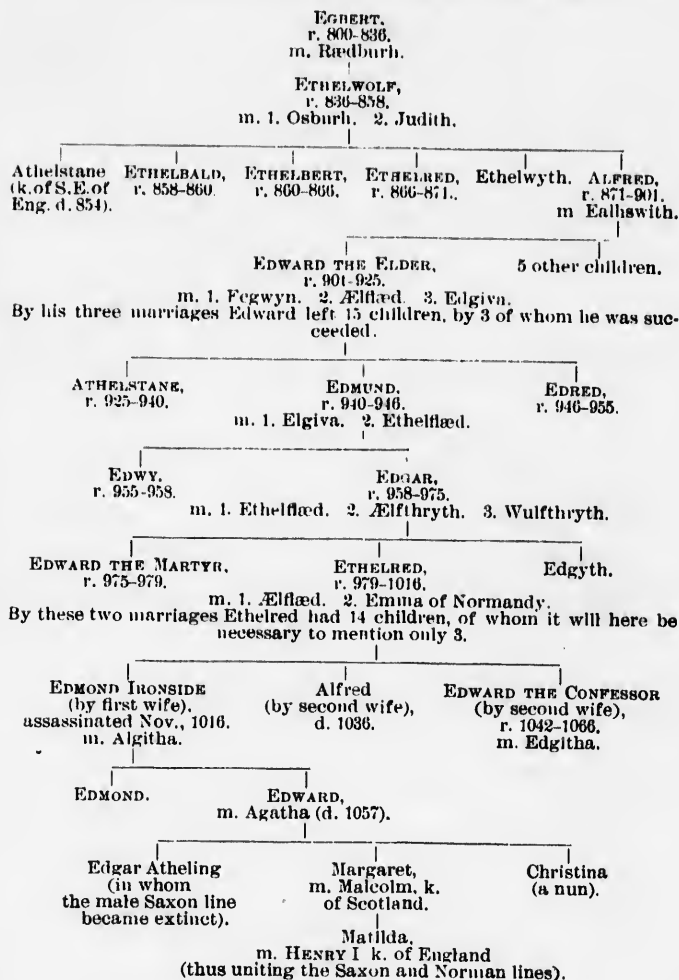
* Condition consequent upon conformity with law.

members of Parliament, mostly in the House of Commons, called Radicals. They are far more indifferent to the maintenance of the existing order of things than either of the other parties. They are the ultra-democratic party, and are not averse to the most sudden and far-reaching changes. Some members profess to belong to no party, sometimes voting on one side, sometimes on another. These are called "Independent members." It is only some questions which are considered *party* questions, and with respect to which all the members of the same party vote together, whatever be their individual opinions. The "government" party—that is, the Ministers and the members who support them—sit on the right of the Speaker. The members of the opposite party, called the "Opposition," sit on the left.

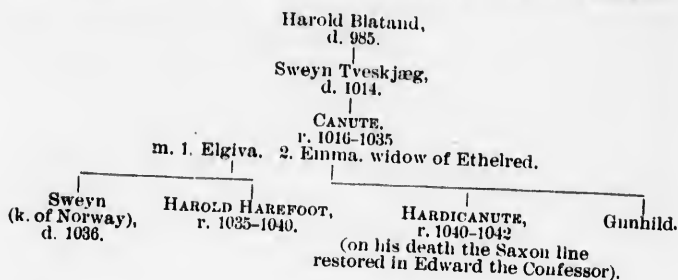
The Cabinet now invariably includes the following officers: (1) The First Lord of the Treasury, (2) the Lord Chancellor, (3) the Lord President of Council, (4) the Lord Privy Seal, (5) the Chancellor of the Exchequer, (6), (7), (8), (9), (10) the Secretaries of State for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, the Colonies, India, and War.

A number of other officers of the government frequently have seats in the Cabinet, those most frequently admitted being (11) Chief Commissioner of Works and Buildings, (12) Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, (13) First Lord of the Admiralty, (14) President of the Board of Trade, (15) President of the Local Government Board (until lately called the Poor Law Board), (16) Postmaster General, (17) Chief Secretary for Ireland, (18) Vice-President of the Council.

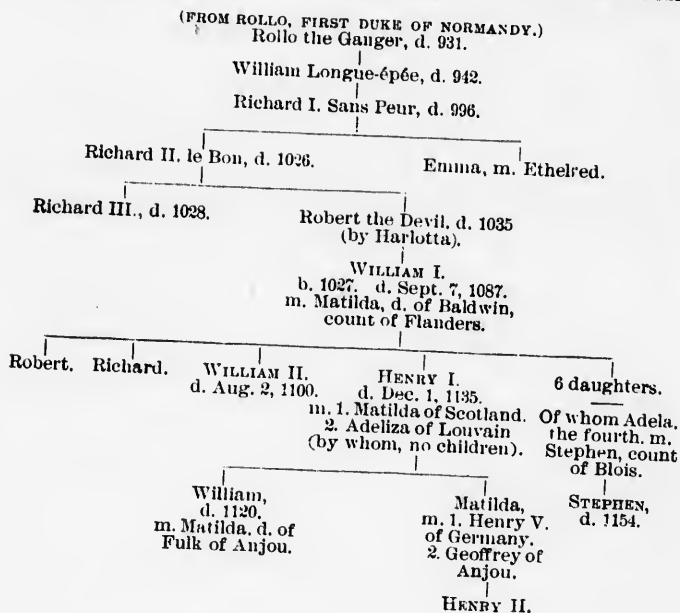
A. GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF EGBERT.



B. GENEALOGY OF THE ANGLO-DANISH KINGS OF ENGLAND



C. GENEALOGY OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR AND HIS HOUSE.



D. GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET.

Geoffrey Plantagenet,
count of Anjou, d. 1151.

Henry II. b. 1133. d. 1189.
m. Eleanor, countess of Poitou and Aquitaine.

William. Henry. Richard I. Geoffrey. John. 3 daughters
d. 1156. d. 1183. b. 1157. d. 1199. m. Constance b. 1167. d. 1216. (Matilda,
m. Berengaria of Navarre. of Brittany. d. 1186. m. 1. Hawisa. Eleanor,
(No issue.) 2. Isabella of Joan.)
Angoulême.

Arthur. Eleanor.

Henry III. Richard. 3 daughters
b. 1207. d. 1272. earl of Cornwall. (Joan,
m. Eleanor of Provence. d. 1272. Isabella,
Eleanor.)

Edward I. Edmund, earl of Lancaster. 2 daughters
b. 1239. d. 1307. d. 1296. (Margaret,
m. 1. Eleanor of Castile. Thomas, earl of Lancaster. Beatrice.)
2. Margaret of France.

John. Henry. Alphonso. Edward II. Thomas. Edmund. 9 daughters.
d. 1271. d. 1274. d. 1284. b. 1284. d. 1327. earl of Norfolk. earl of Kent.
m. Isabella of France. d. 1338. d. 1330.

Edward III. John of Eltham. 2 daughters
b. 1312. d. 1377. d. 1336. (Eleanor, Joan.)
m. Philippa of Hainault.

Edward (the Black Prince), d. 1336. William. Lionel, John. Edmund. Thomas. 5 daughters
d. 1376. duke of Clarence, duke of Gaunt, duke of York, duke of 2 sons, who
m. Joan of Kent. d. 1368. Lancaster, Gloucester, died in
m. Elizabeth infancy.
de Burgh. d. 1399.

Edward of Angoulême. Richard II. Philippa. Henry IV. Edward. Richard.
d. 1371. b. 1367. d. 1400. m. Edmund b. 1366. d. 1413. duke of York. earl of Cambridge.
d. 1415. m. Anne Mortimer
earl of March. Bohun. 2. Joan of Navarre. (see below).

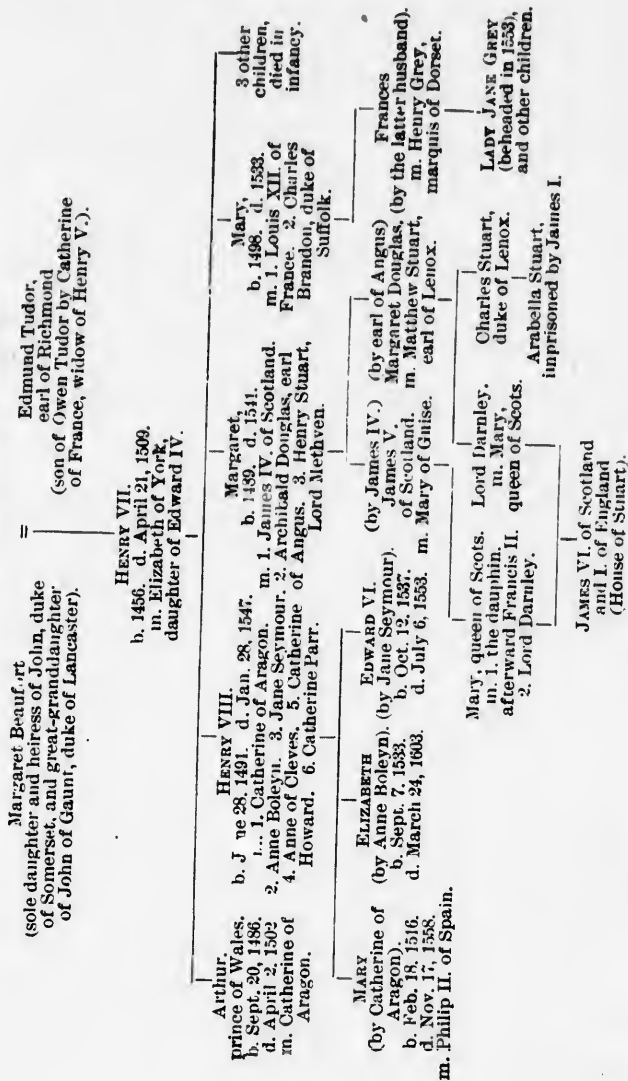
Roger Mortimer, Henry V. Thomas. John. Humphrey. 2 daughters
earl of March. b. 1388. duke of Clarence. duke of Bedford. duke of
m. Eleanor. d. 1422. m. Catherine daughter of Thomas Holland, of France.

Edmund. Anne. m. Richard. Henry VI.
d. 1424. earl of Cambridge, b. 1421. d. 1471.
second son of Edmund, duke of York. m. Margaret of Anjou.
Richard, duke of York (killed near Wakefield, 1460). Edward. b. 1453
m. Cicely, daughter of Ralph, earl of Westmoreland. (killed at Tewkesbury, 1471).

Edward IV. Richard III. George. 8 other sons and
b. 1441. d. 1483. b. 1450. d. 1485. duke of Clarence, daughters, most
m. Elizabeth Woodville. m. Anne, daughter of the Earl of Warwick. killed 1478. of whom died
young.
Edward, earl of Warwick (killed Nov. 24, 1498). Margaret, countess of Salisbury,
whence the De la Pole family.

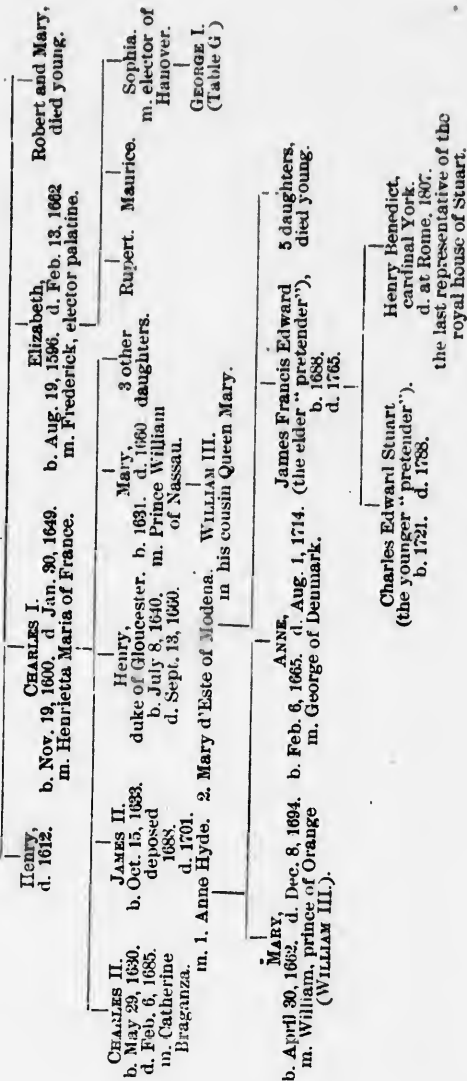
Edward V. Richard. Elizabeth.
b. 1470. d. 1483. duke of York. m. Henry VII. 1 other son, and
murdered by his uncle Richard. b. 1473. d. 1483. 6 other daughters.

E. GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.



JAMES I.

(son of Mary, queen of Scots, and Darnley, and great-grandson of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., married to James IV. of Scotland).
b. June 19, 1568. d. March 27, 1625.
m. Anne of Denmark.



G. GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK-HANOVER.

GEORGE I. (son of the duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg; afterward elector of Hanover, and Sophia, youngest child of the elector palatine and Elizabeth, eldest daughter of James I.) b. May 23, 1660. d. June 11, 1727. m. Sophia Dorothea of Zell.

b. Oct. 30, 1683. d. Oct. 25, 1760. m. Wilhelmina Carolina of Brandenburg-Anspach. m. 1706, Frederick William, afterward king of Prussia.

Frederick, prince of Wales b. Jan. 30, 1707. d. Jan. 29, 1751. duke of Cumberland. m. Augusta of Saxe-Gotha. b. 1724. d. 1766. (unn.).

GEORGE III. b. June 4, 1738. d. Jan. 29, 1820. m. Augusta Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. b. 1759. d. 1818. (unn.).

Frederick William, duke of Gloucester. b. 1743. d. 1805. m. courtesan Waldegrave. b. 1746. d. 1790. (no issue).

William Henry, duke of Gloucester. b. 1743. d. 1805. m. courtesan Waldegrave. b. 1746. d. 1790. (no issue).

Frederick William, duke of Gloucester. b. 1743. d. 1805. m. courtesan Waldegrave. b. 1746. d. 1790. (no issue).

Princess Mary, daughter of George III. (no issue).

GEORGE IV. b. Aug. 12, 1762. d. Aug. 26, 1830. m. Caroline of Brunswick. b. 1768. d. 1821. (no issue).

Princess Charlotte. b. Mar. 7, 1794. d. Nov. 5, 1817. m. Prince of Wales (George IV.). d. Aug. 7, 1821. (no issue).

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New roads and bridges were constructed all over the country.

PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

Coats of arms and mottoes came in with the Crusades. Glass was first used in private houses about 1180 A.D.; and chimneys a little later. The reign of Henry III. is marked by the introduction of the manufacture of linen, the use of leaden water-pipes, and candles instead of wooden torches. A license to dig coal was granted in the same reign. Gold coinage, magnifying glasses, the air-pump, gunpowder (cannon was first used at the battle of Crescy), magic-lanterns were introduced during this period. On the continent the mariner's compass was invented by a Venetian. In the reign of Edward I. we find wind-mills, spectacles, paper from the east, and looking-glasses from Venice. In the same reign striking clocks were invented by Abbot Richard Wallingford. In the reign of Edward III. the art of weaving cloth was introduced by a number of Flemish artisans who settled at Worstead, in Norfolk; and Thomas Blanket established the manufacture of those woollen stuffs which still bear his name.

LANCASTER AND YORK PERIODS.

The most important invention of this period is the art of printing. The black-letter manuscript gave place to the printed volume. The latter had as yet, however, no title page, no capital letters, and no punctuation marks, except the colon and period.

Surgery had made very little progress; there was

only one surgeon with a few assistants to attend to the wounded at the battle of Agincourt.

The art of ship-building showed marked improvement, the largest vessels being about 900 tons burden.

In the reign of Henry V. the streets of London were lighted at night, for the first time, by lanterns. In the reign of Edward II. posts were established. Letters were conveyed between London and Edinburgh one hundred miles a day by means of horsemen who were stationed twenty miles apart.

TUDOR PERIOD.

In this period commercial enterprise was greatly extended by the discovery of America. Maps and charts came into use in England. The first war-ship was built by Henry VII. Pins were introduced from France by Catharine Howard. During the reign of Elizabeth tea was imported from China. Pocket watches came from Germany. The manufacture of paper was begun. The first newspaper, called the "English Mercurie," appeared at the time of the Spanish Armada. The study of medicine was making much progress. The Royal College of Physicians was established in 1518. Silk was introduced into England during this period. Coach-making became a branch of industry in 1564. The iron trade was yet confined to one county—Sussex.

STUART PERIOD.

In the reign of James I. the thermometer and microscope came into use. In the next reign Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood; the barome-

ter was invented; and coffee first used in England. In the reign of Charles II. a penny post was established in London. Paper money came into use in the reign of William and Mary. Chemistry was a favorite study in the latter days of the Stuart dynasty; and to this time belongs the invention of the steam-engine, though as yet in rude form. Stage-coaches, hackney coaches, and sedan-chairs came into use. Calico printing and sugar refining were introduced. (In 1319 sugar was used for the first time, honey having previously served the same purpose.) Copper half-pennies were coined by Charles II., though copper pennies were not made till the reign of George III.

BRUNSWICK PERIOD.

Inoculation, followed by vaccination, was introduced in this period. London streets were first lighted with gas in 1806. In the same year Fulton launched the first regular steamboat on the Hudson River; and in 1811 the first steamboat in Europe was started on the Clyde. Four years later the locomotive engine was invented by George Stephenson; the first railway for passengers was opened between Stockton and Darlington in 1821. In 1820 the use of broken stones in road-making was introduced by Mr. Macadam. The first steamer to cross the Atlantic was the *Savannah* in 1819. In 1837 Wheatstone and Cook brought the electric telegraph into operation, and in 1866 the first submarine telegraph cable between Europe and America was laid. Electricity and photography have rapidly developed during the present reign.

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