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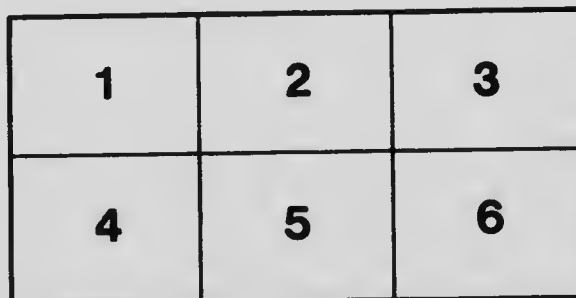
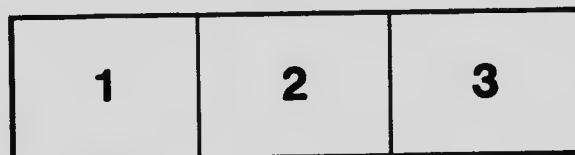
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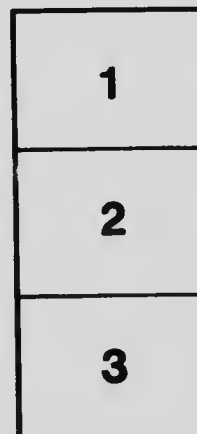
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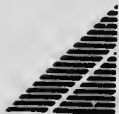
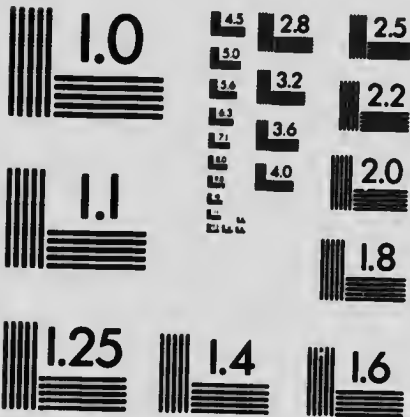
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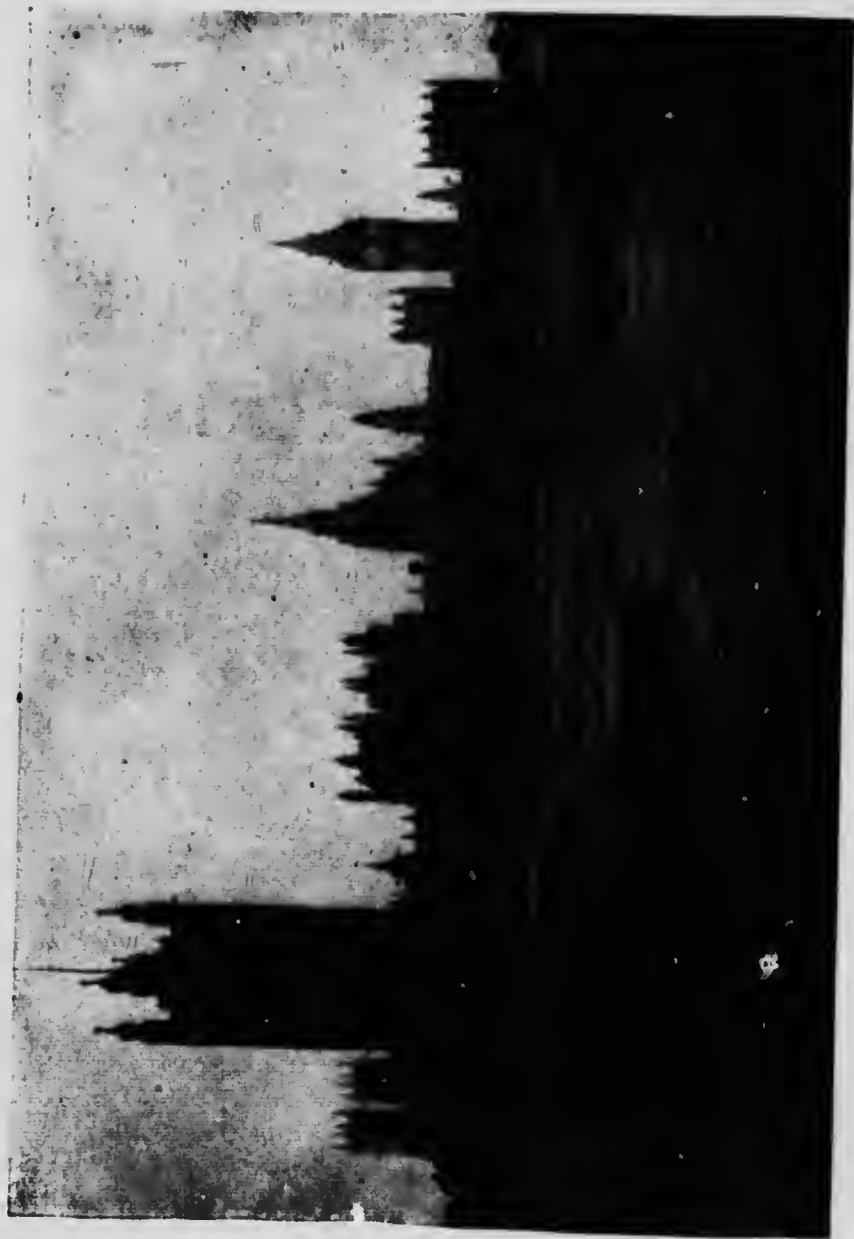
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NOVA SCOTIA EDITION

A
Brief History of
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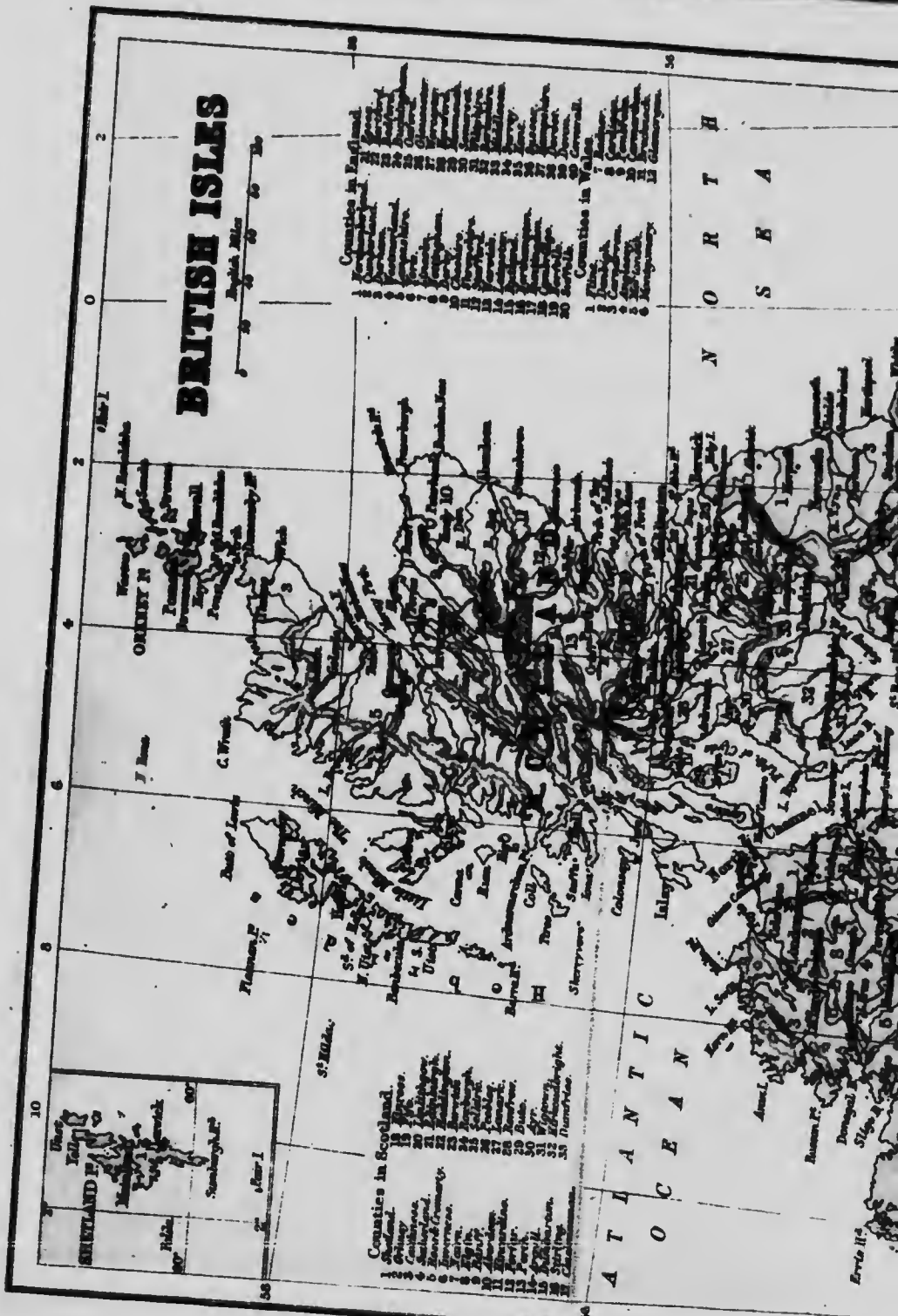
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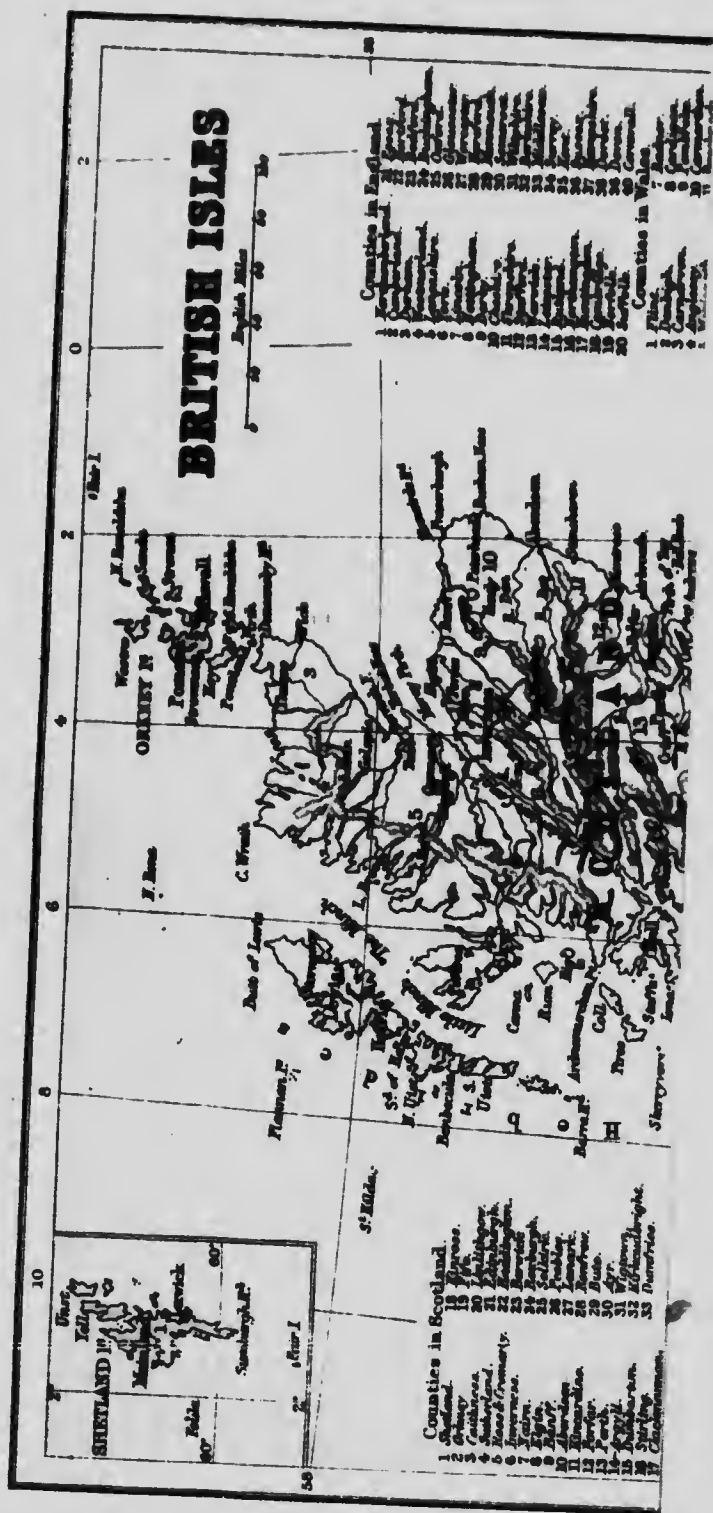
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BRITISH ISLES



B R I E F HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

THE ROMAN PERIOD.

55 : .-410 A.D.

THE island of Great Britain, which is now the centre of the greatest empire on the earth, receives but little notice in ancient history. It was almost unknown until about half a century before the birth of Christ. At that time the Romans were the most powerful people in the world. Their empire, of which Rome in Italy was the capital, comprised all Southern Europe, Northern Africa, and Western Asia.

Julius Cæsar's Invasion, 55 B.C.—Julius Cæsar, a great Roman general, having conquered Gaul, as France was then called, crossed the Strait of Dover with his army for the purpose of adding Britain to the Roman Empire. He found the Britons a brave, warlike people, and he had much difficulty in landing his troops. In the following year Cæsar returned with a larger army, and conquered some of the tribes in the basin of the river Thames. He failed, however, to establish Roman power in the island.

The Britons.—When England was first visited by the Romans, a large part of it was covered with forest. The early Britons whom Cæsar found here belonged to the Celtic race. They were a barbarous people, unable to read or write, and lived in mud huts thatched with straw. Their food was chiefly milk and the flesh of their herds and of wild animals. They dressed in the skins of wild animals, and

they were accustomed to stain their bodies with a blue dye made from a plant called woad.

The Britons consisted of different tribes, each under its own chief. These tribes were often at war with each other. Their weapons were lances, battle-axes, clubs, and bows and arrows. In their wars they also used chariots, armed with a sort of scythe-shaped sword fastened to the axles. Driving into the midst of the enemy, the warrior leaped from his chariot and cut down his foes right and left. Meanwhile the charioteer remained near by, ready to rescue him when he was in danger of being overcome.

The religion of the Britons was a cruel superstition called Druidism. Their priests, called Druids, were the only men of learning among them, but even they had no books. Among the strange doctrines taught by the Druids was the transmigration of souls—that is, when a person dies his spirit passes into some other human being or into some animal. They sometimes offered human beings in sacrifice to their gods. The victims, usually criminals and prisoners taken in war, were burned in huge wicker cages built in the form of a great image. The mistletoe, a plant often found growing on the oak tree, was held specially sacred by the Druids.

Traces of the ancient Britons have been found in their places of burial and in the ruins of their dwellings. Among the remains discovered are pottery, beads, rings, tools, and arrow heads. There are also found in different parts of England tall stones standing on end in great circles. These are supposed to have been Druid temples. In other places two great stones are found standing erect with a flat stone on top, like the frame of a door. This arrangement is called a cromlech, and is supposed to be a monument to the dead. The most remarkable of the stone circles is at Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain, in Wiltshire. A famous cromlech, called *Kits Coty House*, is found near Aylesford in Kent.

Britain a Roman Province, 43 A.D.—Nearly a hundred years passed, during which the Romans made no further attempt to gain possession of Britain. In the year 43 A.D., during the reign of Claudius, after hard fighting they con-

quered the southern portion of the island, and made it a province of their vast empire. During the struggle a brave British chief named Caractacus was taken prisoner and sent to Rome. As he stood in chains before the emperor, after having seen the splendor of the great city, he is said to have asked, "How, with all your wealth, could you envy me my little cottage in Britain?" Claudius was so pleased with the noble bearing of his prisoner that he set him at liberty.

Boadicea.—The Romans, with all their power, did not always find it easy to hold sway over the Britons. Boadicea, queen of one of the tribes in the south of the island, resenting



STONEHENGE.

the wrongs that she and her people had suffered from them, aroused the whole country to rebellion. Many Romans were put to death, and the towns they had built were burned. In the end, however, the Britons were defeated, and Boadicea, rather than fall into the hands of her enemies, killed herself by taking poison.

The Druids.—Making their headquarters on the island of Anglesey or Mona, the Druids continued to practise the rites of their religion, and stoutly refused submission to the conquerors. They also encouraged their people in rebellion.



The Romans, unable to overcome their disloyalty, invaded the island, put all the Druids to death, destroyed their altars, and cut down their sacred groves.

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The Picts.—The Romans conquered only the southern part of the island which is now included in England and Wales. The northern portion, which the Romans called Caledonia, now called Scotland, was inhabited by a Celtic race known as Picts, a fierce, warlike people who gave the Romans much trouble. It was the custom of these people to march across the border and plunder the southern country. Julius Agricola, one of the best of the Roman governors, defeated the Picts in a battle fought near the Grampians. He did not, however, try to hold this part of the island. To protect his province against their raids he built a wall of turf with a line of forts between the Firth of Forth and the Firth of Clyde. At a later period, for the same purpose, the Emperor Hadrian built a great stone wall, with forts at short intervals, from the Tyne to the Solway. Notwithstanding these and other means of defence, the Picts continued to give trouble.

The Scots.—Another Celtic people, called the Scots, who at this period lived in the north of Ireland, were accustomed to make plundering excursions into the Roman province of Britain. These people, who were quite similar to the Picts, finally crossed over and made their home in Caledonia. From them this part of the island took the name of Scotland.

Improvements.—The Romans greatly improved the country. They taught the people to clear away the forests, drain the swamps, and cultivate grain. They made good roads through the country, and built towns. They instructed the Britons also in many of the arts of civilized life. Some of the Romans who came over were Christians, and thus the Christian religion gradually spread among the people. But the Romans allowed the Britons no share in the government, nor would they permit them to become soldiers in their own country.

Roman Remains.—Many remains of these Roman times are still to be seen in England. Parts of Hadrian's wall are yet standing, and a place called Wallsend, near the river Tyne, marks the spot where the wall ended. There are also old Roman towers and gateways, which stand firm after so many centuries. Roman pavements, baths, and coins are sometimes found in making excavations near old cities. Many

places by their names show their Roman origin. The Romans spoke Latin. The word in that language for a military camp is *castra*, which is frequently found, slightly changed in form, in the names of places in England, as Chester, Lancaster, and Manchester.

The Romans leave Britain, about 410 A.D.—Towards the end of the fourth century the Romans, who for several centuries had been the most powerful people in the world, began to show signs of decay. Their great power and wealth led to luxury and vice and weakness. All Northern Europe was at this time in a state of unrest. The various barbarous peoples



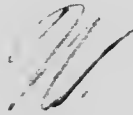
REMAINS OF HADRIAN'S WALL.

who occupied these regions outside the bounds of the Roman Empire were moving southerly. Some of them were pirates, and came down in their rudely-made ships, plundering the coast lands of Western Europe; others came across the continent, seizing the more fertile lands of the sunny south. Even the Romans were not able to hold their own against these lawless invaders, and they were obliged to call home their soldiers from the outlying portions of the empire to defend Italy and their capital, Rome. Thus about 410, after holding Britain as a province for about three hundred and fifty years, they finally left the island.

THE ROMAN PERIOD.

19

The Britons of this time seem to have lost much of the martial spirit of their ancestors who opposed the incoming of the Romans. Unable to defend themselves against the Picts and Scots, who now invaded their country in large numbers, they sent to Rome for help. Aided at different times by their former conquerors, they were at last told that they must depend on themselves.



THE PERIOD OF THE SAXONS AND THE DANES.

440-1066.

Angles, Saxons, and Jutes.—The Britons spoken of in the preceding chapter were not the ancestors of the English people of the present day. Men of another race seized their country. The Britons were ruthlessly slain by the invaders, or were driven into the mountains of Wales or across the sea into France, or they became the slaves of the conquerors. Among the restless people of Northern Europe at this time were three German tribes called Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. Their homes were along the shores of the Baltic Sea in Denmark, and near the mouth of the Elbe. Already before the Romans left the country these Teuton or German tribes had been accustomed to visit the eastern coast of Britain in search of plunder.

These were the people who drove out the old Britons and became the founders of the British nation. The different tribes were in course of time blended together, and were called Saxons, or sometimes Anglo-Saxons. The word English comes from Angles, the name of the tribe that obtained the largest share of the country.

These people were strongly built. Their complexion was fair, their hair was light, and their eyes were blue. They were bold and fearless and in war they were very fierce. They worshipped false gods, such as Woden, the war-god, and Thor, the god of thunder and of storms. From the names of their gods have come the names of the various days of the week.

These German invaders made their first settlement on the Isle of Thanet, on the coast of Kent, and among those who came early were two leaders named **Hengist** and **Horsa**.

They were allowed by the Britons to remain on this island on account of their aid in driving out the Picts and Scots. They were joined from time to time by their fellow-countrymen, who for over a hundred years continued to seek new homes in Britain. Thanet was soon too small for them. They made war against the Britons, slew them or forced them to take refuge in the mountains of Wales and Cornwall,



and seized their lands. The Britons did not yield without a struggle. One of their famous chiefs, **King Arthur**, is said to have defeated the invaders in twelve battles. But just how much of the story of his exploits is fact, and how much is fiction, it is impossible to say.

The Heptarchy.—The Anglo-Saxon invaders established several small states or kingdoms in England. These states are sometimes spoken of as the Saxon Heptarchy, or "Seven King-

doms," but their number varied at different times. They were almost constantly at war with each other for the supremacy or chief place, and the king who for the time held the mastery



was called *Bretwalda*, or overlord. The most powerful of the kingdoms were Kent, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex.

Augustine, the Missionary.—As already stated, the English people when they came into Britain were all idolaters.

The introduction of Christianity among them is said to have come about in this way. A priest, seeing some fine-looking, yellow-haired, blue-eyed boys offered for sale in the slave market at Rome, asked who they were. On being told that they were Angles, he replied, "Angles! They would be angels if they were only Christians." Afterwards, when this priest had become Pope Gregory the Great, still remembering the English boys, he sent a monk named Augustine with several assistant missionaries to teach the English people the truths of the Christian religion. Augustine landed on the Isle of Thānet, on the coast of Kent, during the reign of a king named Ethelbert, in the year 597.

Ethelbert of Kent was the most powerful ruler in England at this time, and his capital was the famous town of Canterbury. His wife Bertha was a Christian princess from the Continent, and she proved a good friend to Augustine and his mission. Within a year Ethelbert became a Christian, and thousands of his people followed his example. Through his influence as *Bretwalda*, the new religion soon spread to other parts of England, though a hundred years or more passed before it was generally adopted.

The second of the kingdoms to gain supremacy was Northumbria, which lay north of the Humber. Edwin of Northumbria, one of the most powerful of the early English kings, built a fort on the rock where Edinburgh Castle now stands, thus becoming the founder of the Scottish capital Edinburgh (Edwin's burgh). He extended his power over other kings, making himself overlord of a large part of England. Only Kent remained independent. Edwin's wife was a sister of the King of Kent, and through her and the monk Paulinus, who came with her from Kent, Christianity was introduced into Northumbria. It was not, however, in this way that the religion of Christ gained a firm foothold in this region.

Ireland.—Before the landing of the English in Britain the Christian religion had reached every land in Western Europe except Germany. Ireland had been brought under the power of the Cross. The Irish Church was full of vigor, and under its influence schools of learning flourished on the

island. Its missionaries went abroad to carry the good news to other lands.

Columba in Iona, 565.—Columba, one of these Irish missionaries, established a famous monastery on the small rocky island of Iona, off the west coast of Scotland. About seventy years later Oswald, Edwin's successor on the throne of Northumbria, invited monks from Iona to preach the gospel in his kingdom. Making their headquarters at a monastery estab-



lished by Oswald on the island or peninsula of Lindisfarne, on the coast of Northumbria, these preachers from Iona became the chief Christian workers in the north of England. The famous Cuthbert, Bishop of Lindisfarne, was one of the most devoted missionaries of his day.

Hilda.—Noble women, too, in these early times gave their lives to Christian work. Among these was Hilda, of royal

birth, Abbess of Hartlepool, and founder of the monastery of Whitby. Famous for her wisdom, she was the adviser of kings, and the instructor of preachers and poets. Among her pupils were John of Beverley and Cædmon, who surprised the scholars of his day by his wondrous gift of song.

The Venerable Bede.—The overlordship of Northumbria soon passed away. This kingdom, however, still held the supremacy in letters. With its famous schools at Jarrow and at York, it was for a time the literary centre of Europe. The monastery of Jarrow was the scene of the labors of the renowned scholar and teacher Bede, known in aftertimes as "The Venerable Bede." All the learning of his time—historical, scientific, and religious—was at the command of this remarkable man. He has been styled "The father of English learning." Among his numerous literary works is "An Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation."

Monasteries.—The founding of monasteries followed close on the introduction of Christianity. They were the residences of men called monks, who lived in partial seclusion from the world. At this period these institutions were the chief centres of learning. In their libraries were preserved the principal manuscript books of the world, and in their writing rooms the monks patiently wrote out on parchment new copies of these works or translated them into English. Here also they recorded in their chronicles the passing events, thus laying up material for the future historian. The monasteries also fostered architecture, music, and the arts. The monks were the principal missionaries of this age. Belonging to the monasteries also were extensive lands, which the monks cultivated according to the best-known methods of agriculture. Then, where there were no inns, the monasteries became places of entertainment for travellers.

Mercia.—Mercia succeeded Northumbria as the leading kingdom. Among her famous warrior kings were Penda, Ethelbald, and Offa. The last-named defeated the old Britons or Welsh on his western borders, and, as a defence against their inroads, threw up a great earthwork, still known as Offa's Dyke, between the mouths of the Wye and the Dee.

Wessex.—Early in the sixth century the kingdom of the West Saxons, or Wessex, was founded by Cerdic, from whom the royal family of Great Britain is said to have sprung. In 827 Egbert, King of Wessex, having conquered Mercia and Northumbria, took the title of *King of the English*. All the petty kings recognized him as their overlord, and from this date England as one united country traces its history. Many fierce battles, however, had yet to be fought between rival princes before the whole land was firmly welded into one kingdom.

Classes of People.—The old English people were divided into two great classes, freemen and slaves. The freemen were the owners of the land—the *freeholders*, as we now call the land-owners. These freemen consisted of churls, or common people, and nobles. A special class of nobles were known as the king's thanes—that is, the king's servants. Of their own free will they bound themselves to this service, waiting on and defending the king. The position was held in high honor, and as the king's dignity became greater the rank of thane was advanced.

The slaves, or thralls, were prisoners taken in war. A free-man also who became so impoverished that he could not pay his debts was reduced to the rank of a slave. As a mark of servitude the slaves wore a brass collar around the neck with their owner's name engraved upon it. Bristol was the chief slave market.

The people lived in **clans** of kinsmen. The settlements were separated from each other by a strip of forest or waste land, which was no man's land or common ground. When strangers crossed this common land they were required to blow a horn; and failing to do this, they were taken for enemies, and might be slain. In the middle of the village was a moot-hill, or sacred tree, where the freemen met to settle disputes and transact public business.

The **great hall** in a noble's house was the principal room. Around the walls were hung bows and arrows, axes, spears, and other weapons. In the middle of the room stood a long rough table, divided into two sections by a great salt-cellar.

At the upper end sat the lord and his guests ; at the lower end, below the salt, were the men of inferior rank. Hunting deer, boars, and other wild animals, then common in the forests, was a favorite amusement of the nobles. Their women were skilled in spinning, weaving, and needlework.

The Witenagemot.—The great national assembly of the *witan* or wise men was called the *Witenagemot*. Originally it was composed of all free men who chose to attend, but later it came to be restricted to the nobles and chief officers of



REMAINS OF A NORSE SHIP FOUND AT GOKSTAD IN NORWAY.

the church and state. This assembly elected the king, usually selecting one of the late king's sons, but not necessarily the eldest. It also assisted the king in making the laws, and advised him on great public matters.

The officer for carrying out the laws in the various shires was called *shire-reeve*, from which term the word sheriff is derived.

The Danes.—For some time the English had been disturbed by bands of pirates from Denmark and Norway, such as they themselves had been in earlier times. Indeed, these Danes or Norsemen were their near relations, all being of the same race. At first they made raids on the coast settlements,

seizing whatever plunder they could find, and sailing away again. Then they began to slay the English people, and to settle on their lands. Egbert of Wessex gained a great victory over these invaders, but it was only for a little that he arrested their marauding exploits. During the reigns of his son and grandsons they renewed their ravages, and many of them settled in the northern part of the country.

King Alfred.—Alfred, the fourth of Egbert's grandsons to occupy the throne, known in history as Alfred the Great, was one of the best kings that ever ruled in England. He fought many battles with the Danes, and for a time kept them in check, though he could not drive them out of the land. Indeed, for a short time the Danes drove Alfred from the throne. He took refuge in Athelney, a sort of island in the marshes of Somerset, where he watched the Danes, and formed plans for renewing the war against them.

It is of this period that the story of Alfred and the herdsman's wife is told. Alfred was hiding in the cottage of a herdsman, who did not know the rank of his royal guest. Here, as the story goes, the good wife left him in charge of some cakes that she was baking. Thinking more about his plans for fighting the Danes, Alfred allowed the cakes to burn, and was severely scolded by the woman for his neglect.

Alfred was a skilled musician. Disguised as a harper, he is said to have visited the camp of the Danes, and while he entertained them with his music he planned his mode of attack. Then marching against them, he gained a great victory at Ethandun. Alfred, however, did not drive the Danes out of England, but gave them part of the country, retaining the southern part for his own people. At the same time the Danes and Guthrum their king agreed to become Christians.

Alfred did much to improve his people. He gave them good laws, and he tried in every way to make them wiser and better. He encouraged education, and brought from other countries the best teachers he could find. He was himself a great lover of learning. He translated good books, including portions of the Bible, from Latin into English, that his

people might be able to read them. The story of Alfred is much colored by legend, but enough of it is true to confirm what he said of himself, "I have striven to live worthily." He was very methodical and careful to do all his work at the proper time. Each hour of the day had its allotted duty, and he always carried a little note-book in which he jotted down the things which he wished to remember.

Alfred was succeeded by his son **Edward the Elder**, and then followed in succession, one after the other, four of his grandsons. On one occasion the Danes, the Scots, and the Welsh joined in a war against the English; but they were defeated by **Athelstan**, one of Alfred's grandsons.

During the greater part of the time—for three-fourths of a century—the country was fairly prosperous. One of the quietest reigns during this period was that of **Edgar the Peaceful**. Scottish, Welsh, and Danish princes acknowledged him as their overlord. It is said that on one occasion eight vassal kings, in token of their submission, acted as oarsmen in rowing Edgar in his boat on the river Dee.

Dunstan.—The most famous man of this time was the monk Dunstan. He was a man of great and varied talents and attainments. He was a musician, an artist, skilled in handicraft, wise in counsel, fond of legendary lore and of all kinds of learning. The courtiers were jealous of him, and drove him out of the country; but when Edgar came to the throne, he recalled Dunstan, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury and his own chief adviser. Dunstan's policy was to treat Welshman, Dane, and Englishman with equal justice, and thus to weld the different races into one united people.

Edgar's sons were very young when he died. The first to become king was **Edward the Martyr**, who fell by the hand of an assassin. Then followed another son, **Ethelred the Unready**, or "the man without counsel." Dunstan had now passed away, and Ethelred had no wise adviser. He did some very foolish things.

The Danes were now giving great trouble. Hordes of these northern freebooters came over the seas from Norway and Denmark, pillaging and laying waste the coast settlements.

Ethelred tried the plan of hiring them to go away by giving them large sums of money, which, under the name of Dane-geld, he levied on the English. The Danes stopped coming for a short time, and then they returned in larger numbers, and were worse than ever. Ethelred now issued secret orders for a general massacre of the Danes. On the appointed day many of them were put to death.

England under the Danes, 1016-1042.—Sweyn, King of Denmark, greatly enraged over the slaughter of his people, now invaded England with a large army. Ethelred, driven from his throne, fled to Normandy, the home of his wife Emma. On the death of Sweyn, shortly after, England was divided between his son **Canute** and **Edmund Ironside**, the son of Ethelred. Again, a few months later, Edmund died, and Canute became king of the whole country.

Canute was one of the most powerful kings of his time. His dominion included Denmark and Norway as well as England, and under his wise rule Englishmen and Danes lived together in peace. Indeed, after this we hear little of war between them. The two peoples were very much alike. They belonged to the same race, and spoke very nearly the same language.

A well-known story, though probably fictitious, is told of Canute. His courtiers, thinking to gain his favor, told him that he was lord of the world, and that the winds and the waves would obey him. Pretending to believe them, he ordered his throne to be placed on the seashore when the tide was coming in. As the waves came near he ordered them to retire, nor dare to wet the feet of their royal master. Little heeding the command, the water moved forward, as he well knew it would, and to save himself from drowning Canute had to hasten away. He then rebuked his courtiers for their base flattery, and forbade them ever again talking in this foolish way.

Canute was followed on the throne by his two sons—first **Harold** and then **Hardicanute**, the last of the Danish kings to rule over England.

Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066.—The Witan now gave



the throne to Edward, son of Ethelred the Unready and the Norman princess Emma. He had been brought up in his mother's country, so that in language and habits he was more

Norman than English. He cared little for affairs of state, and gave his attention chiefly to religious matters. Having more of the character of a monk than of a king, he was surnamed "The Confessor."

The affairs of the kingdom during Edward's reign were left pretty much to the nobles, of whom the most powerful was Godwin, Earl of Wessex. On the death of Godwin, his son **Harold** had more influence than any other man in England. Edward the Confessor had no son, and although Harold was not of royal birth, he was so princely in his ways and took such active part in the government that he came to be looked on by the English people as their next king. The nearest heir to the throne was **Edgar Atheling**, a grandson of Edmund Ironside. On the death of Edward, however, the Witenagemot gave the throne to Harold, who was duly crowned at Westminster.

William, Duke of Normandy, a cousin of Edward the Confessor, though he had no just claim to the English throne, all the same determined to be King of England. He had visited England during Edward's reign, and he asserted that on this occasion Edward had promised to make him his successor. Really this was a matter of little moment, as the bestowal of the crown belonged to the Witan. William had also sought to strengthen his claim in another way. He had chanced to be shipwrecked on the coast of Normandy, and was taken prisoner by William. In order to gain his liberty he bound himself by a solemn oath to aid William in obtaining the English throne. As he had taken this oath under compulsion, Harold felt free to disregard its obligations.

Scarcely was Harold seated on the throne when he was called on to resist invading foes. Hardrada, King of Norway, joined by Harold's brother Tostig, landed in Yorkshire, and began laying waste the country. Harold met them at Stamford Bridge on the Derwent, where he gained a complete victory, and slew both of the leaders. While remaining at York, celebrating his victory, a messenger came to tell him that William of Normandy with a large army had landed at Pevensey, in Sussex.

The Battle of Hastings, 1066.—With all the men he could muster, Harold hastened to meet the Normans, and took up his position on Senlac Hill, nine miles from Hastings. William's army was much the larger, including a strong cavalry force armed with lances, and infantry with bows and arrows. The English were all footmen, armed with axes. They had the advantage of position on the hill, and they were protected by shields with which they warded off the arrows of the enemy. They held their ground with stubborn courage, until finally the fortune of the day was decided by the death of Harold. Pierced in the eye by an arrow which reached the brain, he fell in the thickest of the battle. William marched to London, where he was chosen king by the Witan, and was crowned at Westminster by the Archbishop of Canterbury.

*Harold Godwinson
King of England
1066-1067
Senlac Hill
Battle of Hastings
1066*

THE NORMAN PERIOD.

1066-1154.

SOVEREIGNS.

William I., 1066-1087.

Henry I., 1100-1135.

William II., 1087-1100.

Stephen, 1135-1154.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

1066-1087.

WILLIAM obtained the throne by conquest, and thus he came to be known as "William the Conqueror." Desiring to hold the throne according to the custom of the kingdom, he had himself chosen king by the Witenagemot and crowned by the Archbishop of Canterbury.

The Norman people, to whom William belonged, were a kindred race to the English. Their forefathers were Northmen, like those who came to England. A hundred years before William's time they had left their homes in Norway and Denmark in search of a more genial clime, and had settled in the north-west of France, giving to the district the name of Normandy. Since their settlement there they had become a very different people from their ancestors. They had given up the language of their fathers for the French tongue, they had become Christians, and they were now a more cultured people than the English. William, as Duke of Normandy, was a vassal of the King of France.

A Danish Invasion.—It was not easy for the English people to settle down quietly under Norman rule. The spirit of revolt was first stirred up by the tyranny of the king's brother Odo, who was left in charge while William was absent in Normandy. A good opportunity for rebellion came through the King of Denmark, who, with a large fleet, appeared at the

mouth of the Humber. A general rising of the whole northern and western districts followed. The city of York was captured, and its garrison of three thousand Normans was put to death.

William was prompt in putting down the rebellion. By payment of a large sum of money he hired the Danes to withdraw from the country. Then, with an avenging hand, he swept through the rebel districts. The inhabitants were slain or driven into exile, towns and villages were burned, and the whole country from the Humber to the Tees was laid waste.

Hereward.—Another rebellion followed two years later. The leaders were the famous outlaw **Hereward, Edgar Atheling**, son of Edmund Ironside, who was the true heir to the English throne, and **Malcolm**, King of Scotland, who had married Edgar's sister Margaret. The rebels took refuge on the Isle of Ely, an almost inaccessible plain in the fens of Cambridgeshire. William made a great causeway across the marshes and forced them to surrender. Malcolm came to the English camp and swore fealty to William.

The Feudal System.—Many of the English landholders had fallen in battle, some of them had fled from the country, and others, still in England, had been dispossessed of their lands. William now introduced a system that had long been in use on the Continent. He seized all these vacant estates as crown property, and distributed them among the Norman barons who had followed him into England, requiring of them military service at his call. Each baron then divided his estate among under-tenants on condition of similar service to himself.

Promise of service was made in a very formal way. The vassal or dependant, unarmed and bareheaded, kneeling, placed his hands in those of his superior and made solemn declaration, "I become liegeman of yours for life and limb and earthly regard, and I will keep faith and loyalty to you for life and death. God help me."

To make himself doubly secure, William required the under-tenants to swear fealty to himself as their highest duty. Each

vassal had to appear at certain times before his superior and do homage—that is, acknowledge his duty of service. This method of binding a people to the king through the land was known as *The Feudal System*.

To guard against rebellion, William also erected strong stone towers in the towns, in which he placed garrisons of soldiers. The Tower of London, which is yet standing, is one of these strong places, and the ruins of others may yet be seen in England.

The Jews.—The Jews were a productive source of revenue to the king. Many of them were wealthy traders, and were



THE TOWER, LONDON.

the principal money-lenders of the time. They had no rights as citizens, and were thus liable to much ill-treatment. To secure the favor and protection of the king, they were forced to give him a good share of their profits. Sometimes when a Jew was not disposed to give what the king demanded, his wealth was extorted from him by imprisonment and torture.

The King's Wards.—Heirs to estates, if under age, were the king's wards, and a portion of their income went to him as their guardian. This was a feature of the feudal law. An heiress could not marry without the king's consent, which could be obtained only by giving him a liberal bribe.

Doomsday Book.—William had a careful survey made of all the estates in the kingdom. The facts, including the owner's name, the area of his land, how much was forest and how much cultivated, the number of domestic animals—all were recorded in a great book called *Doomsday Book*. This book, now over eight hundred years old, is still carefully preserved. It enabled William to adjust the taxes equally.

The Curfew Bell.—A law made by William, which the people did not like very well, required all fires and lights to be put out every night at eight o'clock. At that hour there was rung a great signal bell called *Curfew Bell*—that is, "cover-fire" bell. The object was probably to prevent fires in the night.

In Eileham, tenet ep' lundonie .xl. hid' as.
 tra. e. xl. caruc. Ad omnia pan'. xiii. hid'. ^{for sum'} ~~iii. car'~~
 lmo' franc' 7 uill. xxvi. car' 7 x. plus poss' fier. lbi
 i. uill' q'q. i. hid'. 7 xiii. uill' quisq. de i. uing'.
 7 xxxiii. uill. q'q. dim' uing'. 7 xxii. cor' de dim' hid'.
 7 viii. cor' de suis horat. lmo' francigen' 7 q'ldi burg'

PART OF AN ENTRY IN DOOMSDAY BOOK.

The New Forest.—William was fond of hunting, as are many Englishmen of the present day. To obtain a forest for his deer and other wild animals, he laid waste all the villages and farms over a large tract of country in the south of England, and compelled the inhabitants to seek homes elsewhere. Here he made a great park, which has ever since been known as the *New Forest*. Any poacher who shot the king's deer was liable to be hanged for the offense.

After William had put down opposition, his rule, considering the time in which he lived, was fairly good. His favorite adviser was the Italian prelate **Lanfranc**, whom he made Archbishop of Canterbury.

William died in France while carrying on a war in that country. He had stormed the city of Mantes and set it on fire. As he rode down one of the streets, his horse, startled by stepping on hot ashes, threw the king so violently against the saddle as to inflict fatal injury. He left three sons—Robert, William, and Henry. To his eldest son, Robert, fell the dukedom of Normandy; William succeeded to the throne of England.

WILLIAM RUFUS.

1087-1100.

WILLIAM THE SECOND was surnamed Rufus on account of his ruddy complexion. His coronation was followed by a rising of the Norman barons, led by the late king's brother, Bishop Odo, for the purpose of placing Robert on the throne. But through the aid of his English subjects, who stood loyally by him, William soon put down the rebellion.

The Crusades.—During this reign began that great movement called *The Crusades*. Palestine was then, as it is now, held by the Mohammedan Turks, and Christian pilgrims to that land were often ill-used by them. One of the pilgrims, a monk called **Peter the Hermit**, travelled over a large part of Europe, and by his fervent addresses aroused the people to join in a holy war for the purpose of rescuing Palestine from the Mohammedans. A large army was thus collected from various countries. All who enlisted wore on the left arm a cross made of colored cloth, on account of which these wars were known as "Crusades."

Many thousands of people of all classes from Western Europe set out on this **First Crusade**. Among them was **Robert, Duke of Normandy**, who for his equipment borrowed a large sum of money from his brother King William, giving his territory in Normandy as security for repayment of the debt. At Constantinople, which then belonged to a Christian people, the Crusaders were joined by many thousands more, so that the great multitude now numbered perhaps a million people.

They often had to fight their way through the countries over which they passed, and they pillaged these lands of all kinds of food. Jerusalem was taken after five weeks' siege, and it remained in the hands of the Christians for nearly one hundred years (1096-1187).

William Rufus was a selfish man and a bad king. With utter disregard for honesty, he robbed his subjects and the church. Certain offices in the church, as that of bishop, were in the gift of the king, and William often left them vacant, keeping the revenues to himself. For four years after the death of Lanfranc he failed to appoint an Archbishop of Canterbury. Then, when he was very ill and likely to die, he gave the office to a learned Italian named **Anselm**.

William met his death while hunting in the New Forest. He was found dead, pierced by an arrow. Whether his death came from accident or from intention by some one whom the king had wronged was never known.

HENRY I.

1100-1135.

WILLIAM RUFUS left no children, and he was succeeded on the throne by his brother Henry, who was surnamed *Beauclerc*, "The Good Scholar." He gained the good-will of his English subjects by granting them a charter which promised them certain privileges, including freedom from illegal taxes and the restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. He pleased them also by marrying **Matilda of Scotland**, niece of the Saxon prince Edgar Atheling. By this marriage the future sovereigns of England were connected with the old line of King Alfred and Cerdic.

On his return from the Holy Land, Robert, supported by the Norman barons, claimed the crown of England. After a battle, in which he was defeated, he agreed to give up his claim for a yearly pension. Again renewing the quarrel with Henry, he was taken prisoner and slain up in Cardiff Castle.

for the remainder of his life, a period of twenty-eight years.

Henry established a court to determine fines and cases of dispute in the matter of taxes. Moneys paid were counted on a table covered with a chequered cloth, from which the name **Court of Exchequer** was derived.

Henry's only son was drowned in crossing from Normandy to England. It is said that the sailors were drunk and ran the vessel on a rock. The loss of his son was a severe blow to the king, from which he never recovered. His daughter Maud had been married to Henry the Fifth of Germany, but she was now a widow. Henry made the nobles swear allegiance to her as their future sovereign, and gave her in marriage to Geoffrey, son of the Count of Anjou. This Geoffrey, from the habit of wearing a sprig of the broom plant (*planta genista*) in his helmet, got the title of **Plantagenet**.

STEPHEN.

1135-1154.

HENRY's death was followed by a period of anarchy and civil war. He had taken much care to secure the crown for his daughter, but for a woman to occupy the throne did not suit the notions of those times. Notwithstanding the solemn promise they had made to her father, the barons gave Maud little support. Stephen, Count of Blois, nephew of the late king, though he had sworn fealty to his cousin, now claimed the throne for himself. The chief men of London rallied around him and made him king.

Had Stephen proved a wise and strong king he would have had little trouble. He was popular with the common people, and he made fair promises of good government. But his weakness in enforcing law and order soon led to revolt. The barons built for themselves strong castles, which became centres of robbery and violence. Every baron maintained a band of armed men, who kept the surrounding country in

constant terror. The nation was divided into two great war camps, one fighting for Maud and one for Stephen.

The Battle of the Standard, 1138.—David, King of Scotland, Maud's uncle, came over the border with an army to aid her cause. A battle was fought near Northallerton in Yorkshire, in which Maud's supporters were utterly defeated. This engagement was known as the *Battle of the Standard*, from the fact that Stephen's men rallied around a tall mast attached to a car and hung with banners and flags.

In the following year the fortunes of war changed. Stephen was defeated and made prisoner, and Maud became queen. But she knew as little of the art of ruling as did Stephen. Driven out of London on account of her haughty manner, she took refuge in Oxford Castle. Here she was besieged by Stephen, who had regained his liberty. On a winter night, while snow covered the ground, she dressed herself in white in order to elude observation, was let down from the castle wall, and made her escape.

Later, Maud's son Henry claimed the throne. But the dispute was ended by an agreement that Stephen should reign during his life, and Henry should be his successor. Two years later Stephen died.

SOME FEATURES OF THE NORMAN PERIOD.

BEFORE leaving the story of the Norman Period, some other of its interesting features may be told. It was an age of castle-building, and ruins of these old stone castles are still to be seen in various parts of England. In the centre was a tall building called a **keep**, the strongest part of the castle, where dwelt the baron and his family. In its walls were loopholes, from which the defenders of the castle could shoot their arrows upon an enemy outside. Around the castle wall, on the outside, was a deep moat filled with water. The approach to the castle gate lay across this moat by a drawbridge, which was taken up and let down from within.

A baron had many dependants. In the neighborhood of

the castle, in their rude cabins, dwelt the vassals, who tilled his fields, made the things he needed, and fought his battles. Beggars crowded around the castle door at meal time, eager for the morsel that might fall to them. The fool sought to earn his living by his jests, and the minstrel by playing on his harp and reciting legendary tales or by recounting deeds of valor.



KEEP OF ROCHESTER CASTLE (TWELFTH CENTURY).

The language of England underwent great changes during this period. The Norman-French tongue was the language of the court, of the nobles, the courts of justice, the church, and the schools. English was looked upon as vulgar, and it was confined chiefly to the lower classes of the people. Many Norman-French words were introduced, and, often changed

slightly in form, they became a part of the English language. Surnames are said to have come into use at this time. They were generally derived from some personal quality or occupation, as *Armstrong, Swift, Smith, Falconer, Miller*.

Hunting, hawking, bear-baiting, wrestling, and boxing were among the common amusements. But perhaps the most noted of all the public entertainments was **the tournament**, in which knights and nobles strove to outdo each other in the skilful use of arms. Clad in coats of mail, mounted on horses, and armed with lances, the combatants rushed upon one another, each trying to unhorse his opponent. All around the arena, seated on raised galleries, were nobles and ladies, who shouted applause as their favorite hero scored a point or gained a victory.

Chivalry or knighthood was a noted feature of the period. Men bound themselves together under solemn vow for warlike exploits, and for doing some special service, as the protection of women or of the weak and oppressed. The position and title of knight was secured by regular gradation of service—first as page, and then as squire to the king or to some noble whom he followed on horseback.

An order known as **Knights-Templars** had its headquarters in the Mosque of Omar, then supposed to be Solomon's Temple, in Jerusalem, which was at that time held by the Crusaders. The special object of this order was to aid pilgrims on their way to the Holy Sepulchre.

THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

1154-1399.

SOVEREIGNS.

Henry II., 1154-1189.	Edward I., 1272-1307.
Richard I., 1189-1199.	Edward II., 1307-1327.
John, 1199-1216.	Edward III., 1327-1377.
Henry III., 1216-1272.	Richard II., 1377-1399.

HENRY II.

1154-1189.

HENRY THE SECOND was strong, self-reliant, and active. He was rough in manner; and having little regard for a custom because it was old, he made his reign remarkable for important reforms.

Henry saw that the nobles had too much power. Entrenched in their strong castles, they could, with the aid of their vassals, set the king at defiance. He made them pull down these castles. Then he set about changing the system of giving military service for the use of lands to that of payment of money as a tax or rental. With the money thus paid him he hired men, often foreigners, to fight his battles.

Again, instead of allowing the nobles to settle disputes among the people, and punish those whom they judged guilty of crime, Henry sent officers or judges through the kingdom to inquire into complaints and obtain evidence before giving judgment. In this way began our system of courts of justice.

It was very slowly, however, that our ancestors learned right methods of maintaining law and order. The **ordeal** was one of the early ways of trial. This was of two kinds—fire and water. In trial by fire, innocence or guilt was established by walking barefoot over hot irons. In water ordeal

the accused was adjudged guilty if he swam on being thrown into the water, innocent if he sank. In a process called **compurgation** the accused was acquitted on the oath of twelve neighbors that he was innocent.

Thomas Becket.—Thomas Becket was the son of a wealthy London merchant. He was clever and scholarly, full of life, and fond of amusement and display. The king prized him very highly both as a companion and as a counsellor. He gave him rich presents, made him his chancellor or secretary, and consulted him on all important matters. .



CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

At this time clergymen could be tried only in a church court presided over by a bishop. Henry wanted to have them tried in the ordinary court of law and punished for offences in the same manner as other people were; but the clergy, with the Archbishop of Canterbury at their head, opposed any change. On the death of the archbishop, thinking to have Becket's aid, Henry gave him the office thus made vacant.

On being elevated to the position, Becket changed his whole manner of life. He gave up all his luxury and display, wore an inner garment of rough sackcloth, gave his money to the

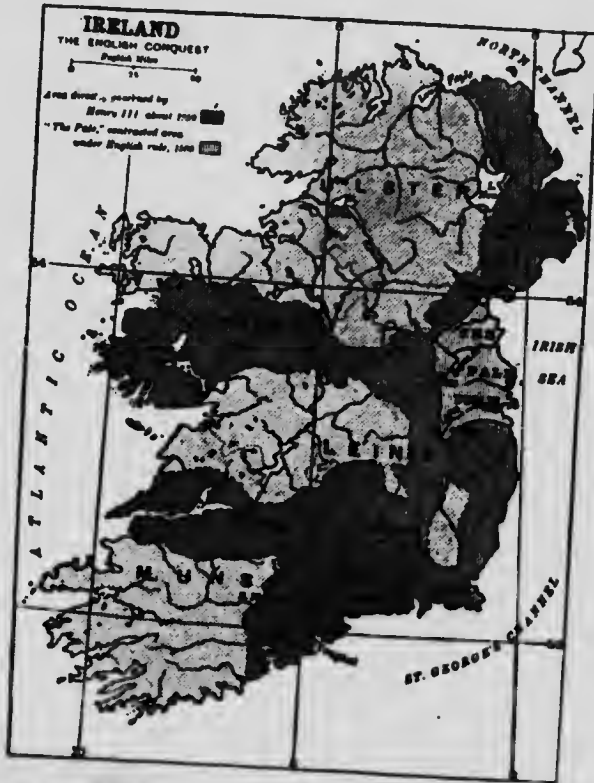
poor, and to show his humility he every day washed the feet of twelve beggars. To the surprise and vexation of the king, his new archbishop would give him no help in his work of church reform.

Becket slain in the Cathedral.—A quarrel now arose between the king and Becket which soon became serious. The primate, considering his life in danger, fled to France. Finally, after several years, a sort of peace was patched up between the two, and Becket returned to England. He showed no disposition, however, to court the king's favor, or to assist him in any of the changes which he proposed to introduce. The king was enraged, and in a fit of passion exclaimed, "Is there no one to rid me of this troublesome priest?" Thereupon four knights set out for Canterbury. After some angry words with the archbishop, they killed him in the cathedral, in which he had taken refuge.

Henry in Trouble.—All England, in fact all Christendom, was shocked by the deed. Becket was raised to the dignity of a saint, and crowds of pilgrims resorted to his tomb. Henry was looked upon as his murderer. The Pope threatened excommunication, and the barons prepared for revolt. Henry was alarmed, and sought terms of peace. He sent messengers to the Pope with explanations, he built a costly tomb for the martyred prelate, he walked barefoot through the streets of Canterbury, and allowed himself to be flogged with knotted cords by the monks. Thus humbling himself, he averted the threatened ills.

Conquest of Ireland, 1172.—At this time Ireland was divided into several petty kingdoms, which were often at war with each other. Dermot, King of Leinster, driven from his throne by his neighbors, sought aid from England. Assisted by Richard, Earl of Pembroke, known as "Strongbow," he was reinstated in his kingdom. Dying soon after, he was succeeded by Strongbow, who had married his daughter. Then King Henry invaded the island and claimed it for himself. Strongbow and several of the Irish chiefs recognized Henry as overlord. It was not, however, until a much later date that Ireland was brought fully under English rule.

Henry's last days were much embittered by the rebellion of his sons. In a war between him and the King of France his sons Richard and John fought against him. As Henry, after serious defeat, lay on his deathbed, he was shown a list of his subjects who had joined the enemy. On seeing there the name of his favorite son John, the broken-hearted king was overwhelmed with grief.



RICHARD I.

1189-1199.

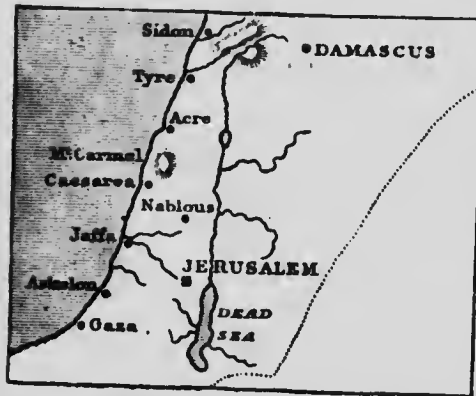
RICHARD, the Lion-Hearted, was a handsome, stalwart prince, fonder of war than of ruling his kingdom. Of the ten years of his reign he spent but a few months in England. He was

famous for his bravery and his adventures during the Third Crusade.

The Jews.—Richard's coronation was the occasion of much ill to the Jews. These people were looked upon with disfavor. It was thought that they used witchcraft, and that they kidnapped Christian children and offered them in sacrifice at their Passover feasts. On account of their wealth, however, which they increased largely by money-lending at a high rate of interest, of which the kings were wont to extort a goodly share, they were tolerated. They were required to wear clothing different from that of other people, and to live

by themselves in a part of the city called **Jewry**, which was surrounded by a high wall.

At the coronation of Richard, Jewish elders came with presents. The mob fell upon them and beat them shamefully. This was followed by riot and general massacre of the Jews throughout the kingdom. At York the



persecuted people took refuge in the keep, from which they hurled stones at their besiegers. When they could no longer defend themselves, on the advice of their rabbi they burned all their treasures, killed their women and children, and then took their own lives.

The Third Crusade.—When Richard came to the throne, the Turks had regained possession of Jerusalem, and preparations were being made for the Third Crusade. In alliance with Philip of France and other princes of Western Europe, Richard joined the expedition. To get money for the undertaking he sold the offices of church and state, exacted large bribes from suitors seeking to marry the heiresses who were his wards, and he sold to the King of Scotland release from fealty as vassal to the Crown of England.

With a large fleet Richard and Philip of France set out for Palestine. On the way they spent the winter on the island of Sicily. Richard was the hero of the expedition.

Arriving on the coasts of Palestine, the Crusaders captured the city of Acre. Various mishaps followed. The Christian leaders were not on very good terms with each other. Leopold of Austria, on being asked by Richard to assist in building a fort, refused, remarking that he was neither carpenter nor mason; whereupon Richard kicked him out of the camp, and Leopold in a rage set out for home. King Philip, jealous lest Richard should have all the glory, also returned to France. When Richard came within sight of Jerusalem, finding his forces too weak to face the Mohammedan king Saladin, he made a truce with the Turk and gave up the expedition.

Richard in Prison.—On his way home Richard was shipwrecked on the coast of the Adriatic Sea. Disguised as a pilgrim, he set out to cross the Continent. On the way he fell into the hands of his old enemy, Leopold of Austria, and was by him handed over to the Emperor of Germany. For a year the ill-starred king was kept in prison, when the English people purchased his release by paying a sum nearly equal to half a million dollars.

Arriving home after four years' absence, Richard found his kingdom much disturbed. Bad rule had led to riots and rebellion, and rivals were plotting for the throne. Among these was his brother John, who had tried to prevent his return. This offense, on the intercession of his mother, Richard forgave.

Richard killed by an Arrow.—Richard hastened to the Continent, where Philip had seized some of his French territory. While here, he laid siege to the castle of one of his vassals, to compel the baron to give up a treasure found on his estate. An arrow shot by an archer in the keep struck the king, inflicting a fatal wound.

JOHN.

1199-1216.

RICHARD was succeeded by his brother John, a bad man, and the worst king, perhaps, that ever sat on the English throne. Through his very faults, however, there came to our people that good government which at the present day is the pride of the British nation. John was weak as well as wicked, and so he failed to carry out the bad measures which he desired to enforce.

According to the rule that now regulates succession to the throne of Great Britain, John was not the lawful heir. His elder brother Geoffrey, who died before his father, had left a son named Arthur, now twelve years of age. The English people, not desiring to be ruled by a boy, chose John instead. The French provinces, however, preferred the younger prince. This led to war, in which Arthur was taken prisoner. Resolutely refusing to submit to John, Arthur was shut up in a tower at Rouen, where he died, nobody knew how, though rumor said that John killed him with his own hands.

Philip of France, as overlord of the French provinces, summoned John to stand trial for the murder of his nephew. John refused; whereupon Philip declared that John had forfeited all right to those provinces, and proceeded to dispossess the barons whom the English king had placed over them. While this was going on, John spent his time in merry-making, until there were left to him only the Channel Islands and a small portion of the mainland. For this loss of territory John got the surname *Lackland*. England indeed was better off without these French provinces, for being the chief centre of the king's interest, they had received the larger share of his attention.

A Quarrel with the Pope.—One of the important features of the reign was a quarrel between John and the Pope. This began over the appointment of an Archbishop of Canterbury. The monks of Canterbury and the king differing in their choice of a man, the matter was referred to the Pope. Rejecting both candidates, the Pope ordered the election of **Stephen**

Langton instead. John refused to accept Langton, and the Pope placed the kingdom under an interdict. This meant the closing of all the churches, and the stopping of all public religious service. The priests ceased to officiate at funerals, and the dead were buried outside the consecrated grounds. John retaliated by prosecuting the priests who refused to obey his orders, declared them outlaws, and seized church property.

For six years this condition of affairs continued. The Pope excommunicated John—that is, he cast him out of the church. Then he deposed him from the throne, and released his subjects from all obligation to obey him. Finally he ordered the King of France to dispossess John and take the kingdom for himself.

All this, perhaps, would not have disturbed John very seriously, had he not seen that the barons of England were plotting against him, and that his throne was really in danger. Thus alarmed, he broke down wholly, and agreed to do all that was required of him. He accepted Langton as archbishop, gave up his crown to the Pope's legate, and then, as the Pope's vassal, received it back. He took an oath of fealty to the Pope, and agreed to pay him one thousand marks as yearly rent for his kingdom.

Oppression.—All these years John had continued to oppress the people of England. He demanded from them money which they had no right to pay, and those who refused he imprisoned, tortured, or put to death. The poor Jews, for whom nobody seemed to care, he treated worst of all. From a wealthy Jew of Bristol he is said to have demanded a sum of money equal to \$500,000, and to have ordered that he should have one of his teeth knocked out every day until he paid over the money. He favored his friends who had recently come from the French provinces, giving them the offices and estates which he took from his English subjects. He also gave wealthy English heiresses, who were his wards, in marriage to French barons. Rebellion he put down by means of foreign troops whom he had hired.

X **Magna Charta, June 15, 1215.**—Had John been less oppressive, the people might have borne with him; had he been

judgment of his peers and by the law of the land. Most of the things in Magna Charta had been agreed to by former kings. A new feature was the appointment of twenty-five barons to see that its terms were carried out.

John had no intention of doing what he had agreed to, and yet he was very angry at being forced to sign such a document. When he returned to Windsor he flung himself on the ground, and, in the wildest passion, cursed like a fiend. The fit over, he roused himself to shake off the fetters with which he had bound himself. He brought in a foreign army, with which he set about taking vengeance on the people who had dared to resist his will.

The barons, in their extremity, invited Louis of France to come over and take the crown. At their call a French army landed at Sandwich, and was welcomed in London with great rejoicing. Thus was England threatened either with the tyranny of an infuriated and unprincipled native king, or with subjugation to a foreign power. Providence intervened.

As John, at the head of his army, was marching along that part of the east coast known as the Wash, the tide, coming in rapidly, swept away the wagons bearing his money, jewels, and crown. He himself barely escaped with his life. Overcome by the disaster, he was seized with sudden illness, and hastened to Newark Castle, where he died. x

HENRY III.

1216-1272.

The Child - King.—Now that John was dead, the barons rallied around his young son Henry and made him king. This prince was then but nine years of age—the first child-king that had come to the throne of England. At the coronation Henry was crowned with a simple golden band, or, as some say, with his mother's bracelet, in place of the crown which had been lost in the sea.

In the meantime the affairs of the kingdom were placed in

the hands of a council of barons. At the head of this council was the Earl of Pembroke, who ruled wisely for two years, when he died.

Louis of France was in England when John died, and he tried to hold the kingdom. In a naval battle between his forces and those of King Henry, fought off the coast of Calais, the English, being on the windward side, threw quicklime into the faces of the French, and so blinded them that they were easily overcome. Finally, defeated on both land and sea, Louis returned to France.

Foreign Influence.—Henry signed the "Great Charter" of the preceding reign, but he showed little disposition to carry out its provisions. He was not violent and cruel like his father, but he was weak, and did not do as he had promised. His chief adviser was Peter des Roches, Bishop of Manchester, a foreigner by birth. He was influenced greatly by his mother and his wife, who were French princesses, and he chose his favorites from their people. Any offices or gifts he had to dispose of he bestowed on foreigners. To support him in his many extravagances, his people were heavily taxed, and they had many grievances for which they could get no redress.

Civil War.—The old assembly of the English people, called the Witenagemot, was still accustomed to meet, but it was now called *Parliament*, a French word that means "The Talking Assembly." This body, with **Simon de Montfort**, Earl of Leicester, at its head, met at Oxford, and arranged for the government of the nation a new scheme, called **The Provisions of Oxford**. The chief power was vested in a council of barons, of which Montfort was president. The king opposed the change, and there followed a civil war between him and the barons. Henry was defeated, and both he and his son Edward were taken prisoners.

✕ **Beginning of the Commons, 1265.**—Simon de Montfort was now at the head of affairs. Before this time Parliament had consisted only of bishops and nobles. Montfort summoned also to the **Great Assembly** representatives of the towns and boroughs. Thus the common people came to have a voice in the national council, and a foundation was made for

that branch of the British Parliament now called **The House of Commons**. As yet, however, all met in one chamber.

Very soon many of the barons became jealous of Montfort's power, and turned against him. By a ruse Prince Edward also gained his liberty. One day, when his guardians were out riding, he got them to run races while he sat on his horse and watched them. When their horses had become tired, he galloped away, and was soon out of sight.

✧ **Battle of Evesham.**—Prince Edward and his followers met the barons in battle at Evesham, and gained a complete victory. Montfort was slain in the battle. King Henry was again placed on the throne, but his reign was soon ended by death. His reign of fifty-six years is one of the longest in British history, and has been exceeded only by those of George the Third and Queen Victoria. At the time of his death his eldest son Edward was absent on a crusade in the Holy Land.

EDWARD I.

1272-1307.

It was over a year after his father's death when Edward returned from the Holy Land. He was a popular prince, and he proved to be one of the best kings that ever sat on the English throne. Like his ancestors of the House of Plantagenet, he could be very angry, and when in a rage he could do cruel deeds. But withal he was tender-hearted. He had regard for the welfare of his people, and was a lover of order and good government. Edward the First is said to have been the first King of England after the Norman Conquest who used English as his common tongue.

In the early part of the contest between the barons and his father, Edward supported the barons; but when he saw that the throne was in danger, he changed sides. When Montfort, against whom he fought, was slain in battle, he felt that a great man had fallen, and he wept over his lifeless body.

✧ **Wales annexed to England.**—Edward cared little for territory in France, but he was ambitious of having Wales and

Scotland united to England, so that he might have the whole island under his rule. Wales was already a fief of the English crown, and on coming to the throne Edward summoned Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, to do homage. The rebellion of this prince led to the invasion of Wales by an English army. After brave resistance, Llewellyn was slain, and Wales was annexed to England. Edward's eldest son was born in Carnarvon Castle in Wales, and the king greatly pleased his new



CARNARVON CASTLE.

subjects by giving this son the title of Prince of Wales, a title borne ever since by the sovereign's eldest son.

Edward's Parliament, 1295.—Edward, having need of money, summoned a Parliament to impose a tax. In addition to barons and bishops, he asked each shire to elect two knights, and each town two of its citizens, as representatives. Thus his Parliament was like that of Simon de Montfort.

Scottish Affairs.—On the death of Alexander of Scotland, the heir to the Scottish throne was his grand-daughter Mar-

garet, known as "The Maid of Norway." Edward thought to unite the thrones of England and Scotland in a peaceful way by the marriage of his eldest son to this princess. This plan was frustrated by the death of Margaret at the Orkney Isles.

For the Scottish throne there were now thirteen rivals. Of these the two chief claimants were John Baliol and Robert Bruce. King Edward, who was asked to choose between them, decided in favor of Baliol, with the understanding that he should hold the throne as Edward's vassal.

Baliol rebels.—Edward pressed his demands on Baliol so beyond bounds, bringing him to London often to do homage, that he drove him into rebellion. An invasion of Scotland by an English army followed. The Scots were defeated at Dunbar, and several strong castles were captured. Having arranged for the government of Scotland by a regent, Edward marched back to England, taking Baliol with him as prisoner. He also brought away with him from Scone, near Perth, the oblong block of red sandstone on which Scottish monarchs were wont to be crowned. **This famous stone**—the very stone, according to legend, which Jacob used for his pillow at Bethel—is now in Westminster Abbey, forming part of the chair on which British sovereigns sit at the coronation ceremony.

William Wallace.—The Scots refused to submit to English rule. At their head was William Wallace, a man of noble bearing and an able leader. He marched into the northern districts of England on a plundering expedition, not sparing even the churches. He also gained a great victory over the English governor at Stirling Bridge. In the following year Edward invaded Scotland, defeated Wallace at Falkirk, and drove him into hiding. For some years the Scottish chieftain made his retreat in the glens and mountains; and finally,



CORONATION CHAIR.

betrayed by a man whom he had trusted, he was made prisoner and sent to London, where he was shamefully put to death.

Robert Bruce.—Wallace had been hanged, his body mutilated, and portions of it sent to Scotland to awe the people into submission; but the country was not conquered. Her next patriot was Robert Bruce, a grandson of Baliol's rival. This chieftain, crowned king at Scone, strove to free his country from the power of England. At one time, defeated



by an English army, he was compelled to seek refuge on the island of Rathlin, off the north coast of Ireland.

Death of Edward.—With a large army Edward set out for Scotland. Old and feeble, he had to be borne on a litter. As he came near the Scottish border he fell ill and died. He told his people to continue the war, and to carry his bones, wrapped in an ox-hide, at the head of the army until the Scots were subdued. Instead, with much sadness, they buried him in Westminster Abbey.

The Jews.—Prejudice against the Jews ran so high during

this reign that Edward was persuaded to drive them out of the kingdom. In crossing to the Continent many of them perished by shipwreck ; some were robbed by the sailors and thrown overboard ; others were placed on the beach, where they could not escape the incoming tide, and were mockingly told to call for another Moses to save them. From this time until that of Cromwell no Jews were allowed in England.

Queen Eleanor.—Edward the First married Eleanor of Castile, of whom he was very fond. On her death he had lighted tapers placed at her tomb, and he provided funds by which they were kept constantly burning for two hundred and fifty years.

EDWARD II.

1307-1327.

THE Prince of Wales, eldest son of Edward the First, was crowned as Edward the Second. His idleness and base conduct with low companions had been the grief of his father. On coming to the throne his fondness for unworthy favorites caused much disorder in the kingdom, and brought great trouble on himself.

Favorites.—The first of Edward's favorites, on whom he bestowed his gifts, and whom he placed in power, was Piers Gaveston. This man so annoyed the nobles by his offensive ways that they seized him and had him beheaded. Then followed the De Spensers, father and son, who, after a short career of power, aroused public indignation, and ended their lives on the gallows.

Bruce and the Spider.—Edward gave himself little concern with the conquest of Scotland, which his father had enjoined upon him. The struggle against the English forces which remained in the country was carried on by Robert Bruce with varying success. Sometimes Bruce was greatly discouraged. It is of him that the story of the persevering spider is told. After some failure, lying on his bed, almost in despair, he saw a spider hanging from the ceiling by a

thread, which it was trying to fasten to the wall. Six times the little creature sprang forward, but failed. Its success on the seventh effort encouraged Bruce to continue the struggle for the freedom of his country.

Bannockburn, 1314.—One after another of Scotland's strongholds fell to Bruce, until only Stirling Castle remained to the English. Edward, at last aroused, marched across the border at the head of a hundred thousand men, only to be defeated by Bruce with an army of thirty thousand. Glad



STIRLING CASTLE.

to escape with his life, Edward hastened back to England, closely pursued by the enemy. Some further conflict followed, but Scotland held fast by her freedom.

War, Famine, and Plague, 1314, 1315.—War and internal strife greatly disturbed the kingdom. To these evils were added those of famine and plague. For two years there was little bread even for the royal table, and many of the poor died of starvation and pestilence.

Edward deposed.—Edward's queen Isabella, a French princess, was a wicked woman. She and her favorite, a



worthless man named Mortimer, plotted against the king. Edward had fully shown his incapacity to govern the kingdom, and when the queen and Mortimer came against him from

France with an army, having few friends to stand by him, he fled to Wales. Thereupon Parliament deposed him, and placed his son Edward on the throne in his stead.

Edward II. murdered.—For eight months the deposed monarch was kept in prison, where he was treated with great cruelty by his guards. Finally, by the direction of Mortimer and the queen, he was brutally murdered in Berkeley Castle.

EDWARD III.

1327-1377.

EDWARD THE THIRD was but fourteen years old when he became king. At fifteen he married Philippa of Hainault. Meanwhile Mortimer and the queen-mother ruled the kingdom. They seized many large estates, robbed the people in various ways, and made themselves very offensive. Then they added to their offenses by giving independence to Scotland.

At the age of eighteen Edward took the government into his own hands. Mortimer and the king's mother, who were shielding themselves in the strongly-fortified Nottingham Castle, were at once brought to justice. An armed band, entering the castle by a secret passage, seized Mortimer, and hurried him to the gallows. The queen-mother was kept under guard for the remaining twenty-seven years of her life.

Edward the Third was energetic, ambitious, and full of martial spirit. His reign was a period of almost constant warfare, which cost the nation much treasure, but added little to its real advantage.

Battle of Halidon Hill, 1333.—The famous Robert Bruce of Scotland was now dead, and his son David, then but a child, occupied the throne. Edward renewed the war against the Scots, defeated them at Halidon Hill, and made Edward Baliol king. But Baliol did not please his subjects, and was soon driven out of the country.

The Hundred Years' War, 1338.—A noted feature of the reign was a ruinous struggle between England and France,

which, with brief intervals of peace, continued for about a century, and was hence known as "The Hundred Years' War." The King of France provoked Edward by trying to get the English out of Aquitaine, and by aiding the Scots in their wars against England. Besides, he desired to obtain Flanders, a country in which the English were interested. The English were not then, as they are now, a manufacturing people; but they kept many sheep, and they sold their wool to the Flemings, who were famous for their woollen manu-



factures. Thus the two countries helped each other. Edward knew that if the King of France got Flanders the wool trade would be stopped.

There was yet another cause given for the war. The late King of France had left no son, and Edward, being the son of that king's sister, claimed to be the rightful heir to the French throne. This was an illegal claim, for, according to the laws of France, a woman could not occupy the throne of that country, nor had she any rights which she could transmit to her son.

The Battle of Crécy, 1346.—In this war Edward and his son, who, from the color of his armor, was called the *Black Prince*, gained some splendid victories. The first of these was at Sluys, on the coast of France. Then they marched inland, plundering and laying waste the country. One of the great battles was fought at **Crécy**, in which the English defeated the French, who outnumbered them by four to one. Thirty thousand French soldiers were left dead on the field. This victory was due to the good order of the English, and to their skill in the use of the longbow. The French soldiers fought with crossbows, which were much less effective. In this battle the **Black Prince**, then only fifteen years of age, greatly distinguished himself. It is said that gunpowder, which had been recently invented, was used at Crécy with cannon of a rude sort.



Among the slain at Crécy was blind King John of Bohemia. His **crest of three ostrich feathers**, with his motto *Ich Dien* ("I serve"), was adopted by the Black Prince.

Neville's Cross, 1346.—While this war was going on, David of Scotland invaded England. In the absence of Edward, his queen, Philippa, gathered an army, defeated the Scots at Neville's Cross, and took their king prisoner. Having shut up her royal captive in the Tower of London, she sailed for France to tell her husband of her exploit.

The Siege of Calais, 1347.—For nearly a year Edward had been laying siege to the city of Calais, on the Strait of Dover. He made little assault on its defenses, but simply hemmed in the town, leaving the work to be done by famine. At last the citizens were forced to yield. Edward, in ill-temper over the trouble he had had, ordered six of the leading citizens to be given up to him for punishment. Bareheaded and barefooted, with ropes around their necks, the six who had volunteered to give up their lives came before the English king. Edward sternly ordered them to be taken away and hanged.

But overcome by the pleadings of Queen Philippa, kind-hearted as she was brave, he spared their lives. For about two hundred years Calais remained in the hands of the English.

The Black Death, 1349.—For a time the war was stayed by a fearful plague called the *Black Death*. It first swept over the continent of Europe, and then visited England, where it carried off one-third of the inhabitants. It was worst in thickly-settled places. In some villages not a single person remained alive. The cause of this fell disease is not known, but its ravages were due largely to lack of cleanliness and of wholesome food. So many had died that laborers could not be got to till the fields. To prevent high wages, Parliament passed a law forbidding any advance on what was paid before the plague.

The Battle of Poitiers, 1356.—After a short truce, the war with France was resumed. The Black Prince led an army through the beautiful country of south-western France, pillaging and laying waste farms and towns. Finally he was met near Poitiers by King John at the head of an army much larger than his own. The prince, anxious to avoid a battle, offered to give up all his booty and withdraw from the country, if he were allowed to go in peace. This being refused, a great battle was fought, in which the French suffered a disastrous defeat. King John was taken prisoner and sent to London.

Thus Edward had two royal prisoners. David of Scotland, after eleven years of captivity, purchased his release. For John, Edward demanded a ransom of three million gold crowns; but as this amount could not be raised, the captive king remained in England until death set him free.

The courtesy shown by the Black Prince to King John marks the chivalry of the times. He seated his prisoner at his own table, and standing behind his chair waited on him while he ate; and as an attendant he rode on a palfrey behind the captive king, whom he mounted on a charger.

The Treaty of Bretigny, 1360.—The Treaty of Bretigny gave a breathing spell to the Hundred Years' War. Edward now abandoned his claim to the throne of France, retaining only Calais and the Duchy of Aquitaine.

Reverses.—The Black Prince, making his headquarters at Bordeaux, ruled Aquitaine, of which the King of France no longer claimed the overlordship. The wars were soon begun again; but the prince's career, once so brilliant, ended ingloriously. He suffered reverses, and at last there remained to the English only the towns of Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne. His health also failed him, and he returned to England dying of consumption.

England and the Pope.—Since the time of King John there had often been disputes between the Kings of England and the Popes. The English people were never disposed to be so obedient to the Pope as were the people on the continent of Europe. They did not like the idea of submission to a foreign power. There was special cause for this feeling in the reign of Edward the Third. At this time the Pope had his seat at Avignon, in the south of France, and he was influenced much by the king of that country. Thus to Englishmen submission to the Pope seemed like placing themselves under the power of their enemy, the King of France.

The people had not the choosing of their clergyman or priest. The benefice or living—that is, the office of the clergyman with its revenue—was considered by the Pope as his to bestow on the man of his choice. He thus filled the vacancies, and also demanded that the first year's revenue, called "first fruits," be paid to him.

Again, in the church affairs of England, the Pope claimed to be supreme, and appeals were taken from the English courts for final decision to the papal court, which was often held in England by the Pope's legate or representative. The Pope also was accustomed to send his decrees, or "bulls," as they were called, to England, giving his commands, which no one, not even the king, might dare to resist. Sometimes, as in the case of John, he had even deposed the king, and given his throne to another.

Præmunire, 1353.—Parliament passed an Act against allowing the Pope to fill vacant benefices in England. While such appointments were thus made illegal, they did not wholly cease, for the king, who received a share of the "first

fruits," managed to keep up the custom. Two years later Parliament passed another Act, called **The Statute of Præmunire**, which forbade appeals to a foreign court and the holding of papal courts under a legate in England. The penalty for violation of this law was forfeiture of property and imprisonment.

Progress.—While the wars of this reign were going on, England made some progress in its internal affairs. The lords preferred to sit by themselves; hence **Parliament was divided into two chambers**—the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The members of the House of Commons were not always the free choice of the voters, as the sheriffs often managed to have such men chosen as the king desired. Parliament at this time did not make laws as it now does, but petitioned the king to make the law by proclamation.

An important change was the introduction of the English language in place of French into the courts of law. There also began a movement in favor of giving the chief public offices, like that of Chancellor, to laymen instead of to churchmen as heretofore.

The introduction of **woollen manufacture** into England was an important event of the reign. In honor of this industry a crimson bag filled with wool, called the *Woolsack*, was brought into use as the seat or cushion of the Lord Chancellor in the House of Lords. Hence the term *Woolsack* came to signify the office of Chancellor.

Evils of the Period.—Trade in certain commodities was restricted to specially privileged persons. A merchant was allowed to deal in only one sort of merchandise. The kind of food and clothing that a man might use was governed by law. Serious wrongs existed in church affairs. Many foreign clergymen held positions in the church and drew salaries, yet they lived abroad, and hired others for a less salary to do their work.

The Black Prince died, leaving one son, Prince Richard. King Edward became prematurely feeble in both body and mind. His good wife Philippa died, and he fell under the influence of a wicked woman named Alice Perrers. The govern-

ment was now entrusted to a council of nobles, but the king's fourth son, the Duke of Lancaster, usually known as **John of Gaunt**, or Ghent, held the chief power.

The old king was much neglected. It is said that when he lay a-dying Alice Perrers stripped the rings from his fingers and hastened away with her plunder.

Noted Men.—Of the remarkable men of the time mention should be made of **Chaucer**, "the father of English poetry." His most important work was "The Canterbury Tales." Another man of note was **William Langland**, whose most famous book was "The Vision of Piers Plowman." **John Wycliffe**, a noted scholar and reformer, born in 1340, lived throughout the whole of the following reign.

RICHARD II.

1377-1399.

At this period the succession to the throne was pretty definitely fixed in the line of the eldest son. Edward the Third left several sons, but the crown fell to his grandson Richard, son of the Black Prince, who was now only eleven years of age. The kingdom was placed under a council of nobles, of which John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, was the head.

Discontent.—The wars with France, which were still going on, were very costly, and the people were heavily taxed. Every person over fifteen years of age had to pay a poll-tax. The laboring people complained because they had to pay more in proportion to their means than the wealthy. There arose much bitter feeling and agitation for larger freedom and equal rights. John Ball, a famous street preacher of the times, who was known as "the mad priest," taking for his text—

"When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then a gentleman?"

discoursed on the natural equality of men. While he made himself popular with the working men, he so aroused the anger of the ruling class that he was at last put to death.

Primer

Rebellion.—There needed but little to move the discontented laborers to deeds of violence. A tax collector insulted the daughter of a man named Wat, a tiler by trade, and usually called "**Wat Tyler**," who lived at Dartford in Kent. The enraged father struck the collector with his hammer and killed him on the spot.

This daring act aroused the peasantry over all south-eastern England. A hundred thousand of them, with Wat Tyler at their head, marched to London, pillaging, destroying property, and killing people of the higher classes. The Archbishop of Canterbury was among those who were murdered. Such a rising had never been known before in England.

Richard's Courage.—King Richard, still but a boy of sixteen, with wonderful courage rode out to meet the lawless rioters, and asked them what they wanted. Wat Tyler, as captain of the host, stepped forward and stated their demands for freedom and justice. His words and manner were so rough and offensive that the Mayor of London, who stood beside the king, struck Tyler to the ground with his dagger. As the enraged rioters were about to rush upon the king and courtiers, Richard rode boldly up to them, shouting, "Now your captain is dead, I will be your leader." Thereupon he promised to comply with all their demands, and they dispersed to their homes.

The young king, however, had not the power to carry out his promises. Indeed, he shortly after changed his mind, and gave orders for the execution of many who had taken part in the rising.

The Battle of Otterburn, 1388.—Plundering and war greatly disturbed the border districts of England and Scotland. The famous Battle of Otterburn, in which the Scots under Douglas defeated the English under Percy, was made the basis of the ballad of *Chevy Chase*.

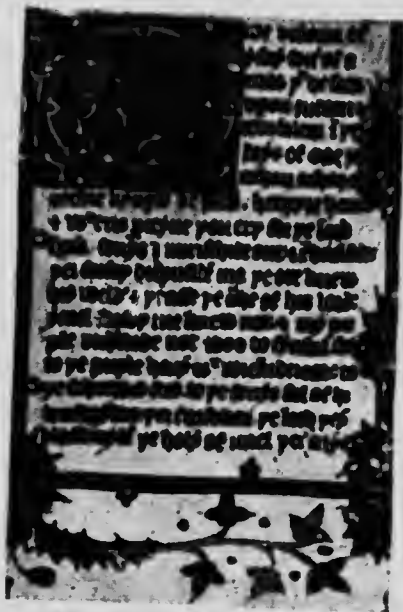
The First English Bible, 1380.—John Wycliffe took great interest in the humbler classes of people. He sent out a band of teachers, called "Poor Priests," to preach the gospel to the poor. He also made the first translation of the Bible into English. The art of printing had not yet been invented,

and books, being written by hand, were very expensive. Sometimes the cost was greatly increased by illumination or ornamenting the capital letters and the margins of the page.

Wycliffe preached sternly against the customs of the time in both church and state. He thus brought persecution on himself and his followers, who were called **Lollards**.

In the early part of his reign Richard showed much tact and good judgment, but later he proved to be weak, and he was much influenced by favorites. He made a truce with the King of France, and his wife dying, he married the French king's daughter, a child about eight years of age.

Richard deposed.—For some offense Richard banished his cousin Henry, the son of John of Gaunt. During Henry's exile his father died, and Richard seized his estates. Henry, enraged at this act of robbery, hastened to England and stirred up rebellion against the king. Richard was absent in Ireland. On his return, finding the nation had turned against him, he made little resistance. A Parliament elected under the influence of his enemies deposed him, and gave the crown to Henry.



PART OF PAGE OF WYCLIFFE'S BIBLE: BEGINNING OF ISAIAH.
(From MS. in British Museum; much reduced.)

SOCIAL CONDITION DURING THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

THE condition of serfdom still continued. An estate comprised several thousand acres of land. Some of the laborers were freemen, who were allowed the use of a piece of land

for their service. Most of them, however, were not free to go where they pleased, but belonged to the estate, and their children were born to servitude. They lived in villages, and were called *villains*. Each community or estate had a sort of independence. It had all the various tradesmen, as carpenters, blacksmiths, tailors, shoemakers, and millers.

The lord of an estate was a sort of king in his own manor. He held a court for the trial of offenders. Sometimes he went out with a band of armed followers to plunder his neighbors.

There was little of the comforts of modern life in the homes of the laborers, or even in the manor house. The floors of the houses were the earth, either bare or strewn with rushes. The beds consisted of a heap of straw in one corner of the room. Having no forks, people ate with their fingers, and for plates they used slices of bread.

One of the Norman methods of trying offenders was by battle, in which accused and accuser fought with each other until one or the other gave in. Other methods of trial were by ordeal and by compurgation.

Money had much greater value than it now has—that is, a given sum would buy more. Farm laborers and mechanics got from a penny to threepence a day, and four pounds of beef could be bought for a penny.

Wool was the most important article of export. The nobles, and sometimes even the kings, were wool merchants.

Bows and arrows, spears, swords, and axes were the chief implements of war. Two kinds of bows were used—longbows, with a shaft or long arrow, and crossbows, with a bolt having a square iron head. Archery was a common sport, and was much practised on Sunday afternoons. Other amusements were cock-fighting, bear-baiting, hawking, football, wrestling, and the tournament.

In the towns men of the same trade formed themselves into clubs or guilds. The guild had special privileges, and it could prevent any one who was not a member from working in its business.

The roads were bad, and there were few bridges. Traveling was done mostly on foot or on horseback.

There was little trade between different countries, so that each country was largely dependent on itself for its supplies. A bad harvest caused scarcity of food, and a failure of crops for two years in succession was followed by famine.

While the dwellings of the people were mere cabins, splendid castles, cathedrals, and monasteries were erected at great cost. The Norman style of architecture had rounded arches. The Gothic or Pointed style, which came into use at the beginning of the thirteenth century, had pointed arches. The Decorated style, introduced a hundred years later, was a development of the Gothic by the addition of delicate tracery.



Early Norman.



Norman.



Gothic.

STYLES OF ARCHITECTURE.

Learning was confined chiefly to the clergy. Few others could read or write. Books in manuscript were made by the monks. A room in the monastery, called the *Scriptorium*, was set apart for this purpose.

The English language was gradually taking its present form, And yet the language of that period would not be easily understood at the present time. Relations of words were shown by case endings, most of which are now disused. Every one spelled much as he pleased.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

1399-1461.

SOVEREIGNS.

Henry IV., 1399-1413.

Henry V., 1413-1422.

Henry VI., 1422-1461.

HENRY IV.

1399-1413.

HENRY THE FOURTH was the first king of the House of Lancaster. This title came from his father, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward the Third. By right of birth the crown belonged to the Earl of March, grandson of Lionel, third son of that king.

A Troubled Reign.—Henry had many troubles. "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown" are the fitting words that the great English poet puts into his mouth. His right to the throne was disputed. The deposed Richard was imprisoned in Pontefract Castle. In a few months he died, and it was believed that his death was brought about by Henry in order to make his throne more secure.

Border wars between England and Scotland were renewed. Aided by the Percies—that is, the Duke of Northumberland and his son Harry, who, from his fiery temper, was called Hotspur—Henry defeated the Scots, and captured their chieftain, Earl Douglas.

The Welsh, led by **Owen Glendower**, a great-grandson of Prince Llewellyn, asserted their independence. Sheltering himself in the mountains of Wales, Glendower gave trouble throughout the reign.

The Percies rebel.—The Percies, having through some cause become offended, formed a powerful alliance with the Welsh and the Scots against the king. In the battle of Shrewsbury the rebels were defeated and Hotspur was slain.

A quarrel arose with France over the jewels and dower of the young widowed queen of Richard the Second, which Henry refused to return.

Prince James of Scotland a Prisoner.—An interesting incident of the reign was the capture of Prince James, afterwards James the First of Scotland. The prince, then eleven years of age, was on his way to France to be educated, and was driven by a storm upon the English coast. For nineteen years he was held captive in England, but he was kindly treated, and his education was carefully looked after.

The persecution of the Lollards or followers of John Wycliffe was a dark feature of the reign. Parliament passed severe laws against them. Some of these people were put to death, and they are said to have been the first Englishmen who were burned at the stake for heresy.

Henry owed his crown to the favor of Parliament, and he was careful to govern the nation with some regard to the wishes of this body. He refrained from imposing illegal taxes, and he gave the House of Commons an account of the way in which he expended the public money.

Among King Henry's troubles was the unruly conduct of his sons. On one occasion his eldest son, Prince Henry, drew his sword threateningly on a judge who had refused to set free one of his riotous companions. The fearless judge at once ordered the prince to prison. The prince is said to have acknowledged his fault, and to have submitted quietly to the judge's order.

Henry the Fourth died suddenly at the age of forty-seven.

HENRY V.

1413-1422.

HENRY THE FIFTH, the eldest son of the late king, notwithstanding what is said of the riotous habits of his youth, proved to be a good king. By generous treatment he made friends of persons who might have been dangerous enemies. He set free the Earl of March, who had been kept many years in prison. To the young son of Harry Hotspur he restored the family estates that had been confiscated on account of his father's rebellion.

The Lollards.—The Lollards, now quite numerous, were condemned as heretics by the church courts, and many of them were put to death. The imprisonment of their leader, Sir John Oldcastle, led to insurrection. This was speedily put down, and Oldcastle was hanged in chains and then burned.

War with France.—Henry revived the old claim of Edward the Third to the throne of France. The insanity of the French king and quarrels among the nobles aided him in carrying out his plans. With a large fleet and an army of thirty thousand men, he set out to enforce his claim. After a vigorous siege he took Harfleur, a town near the mouth of the Seine. Then, though his army was greatly weakened by disease and death, he gained a signal



victory at **Agincourt** over a French army five or six times larger than his own. This victory, like that at Crécy, was largely due to the skill of the English archers with their long-bows.

On Henry's return to England the people were so carried away with enthusiasm over his victory that nothing he asked for would have been withheld. The Commons were ready to give him all the money he needed, though, at the same time, they took care to secure their rights as the law-making body of the realm.

Two years later Henry followed up his conquests until he was master of a large part of France. The country was divided into factions, and a strong party joined the English and fought against their own people. During the siege of Rouen, one of the largest and wealthiest cities of France, food became scarce. In order that the defenders might be able to hold out the longer, twelve thousand women and children were sent out of the city. Henry would not let them pass through his lines, and many of them perished before the city walls.

X **The Treaty of Troyes, 1420.**—The Treaty of Troyes closed the war for a season. It was agreed that Henry should marry Catherine, the French king's daughter, that he should govern France as regent during the life of its king, Charles the Sixth, and should, on the death of that king, succeed him on the throne. In the following year Henry was recalled to France by an insurrection, aided by a strong Scottish force, in favor of the Dauphin—that is, the eldest son of the French king. Henry succeeded in putting down the rebellion, though his brother, the Duke of Clarence, was slain in the contest.

Henry's Death.—Henry never became King of France. He died two months before Charles the Sixth, leaving his infant son Henry to succeed him.

HENRY VI.

1422-1461.

HENRY THE SIXTH was but nine months old when he succeeded his father as King of England and of that part of France lying north of the river Loire. His uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, was made Protector of England, and another uncle, the Duke of Bedford, was Regent of France. In his boyhood he suffered much hardship under the stern discipline of his tutors. He was studious, scholarly, and a friend of learning. He founded Eton College and other institutions, which he watched over with much interest. He was a good man, but lacked independence and the strong qualities that make a good king.

War in France resumed.—The Dauphin, under the title of Charles the Seventh, claimed the French throne. The English soon established their power in the north as far as the river Loire. They then began a struggle for the southern part of the country. The first step was the siege of Orleans, a town on the Loire.

Joan of Arc.—The town of Orleans had been besieged for several months, and was about to fall into the hands of the English. Suddenly, through the strange influence of a young peasant girl, known in history as Joan of Arc, there came a turn in the aspect of the war. This pious, meditative maiden, by brooding over the condition of her country, came to believe that she had been commanded of God to rescue her people from foreign rule. She said that she heard voices in the night telling her to go on this mission. Admitted to the presence of King Charles, she said to him, "The heavenly King sent me to tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned at Rheims." She told him that if he would put her in charge, she would lead the French army to Orleans and drive away the English.

Joan was so much in earnest that the king and his council were led to believe in her as being divinely inspired. Dressed in a suit of white armor and seated on a white horse, with a sword in her hand, she set out at the head of the French army

for Orleans. On coming near the city she sent a message to the English commander, demanding his surrender. To this order the officer gave a scoffing reply. In the battle that followed Joan fought bravely with the foremost. The English were driven away, and Orleans was saved.

Charles crowned at Rheims.—Then Joan, followed by Charles and his army, led the way through a country held by the English, to the town of Rheims. Here, while she stood by his side, the king was crowned as Joan had predicted.

Joan burned as a Witch.—"The Maid of Orleans" now said that her work was ended, and she asked to be sent home. But she was not allowed to have her way. Charles would have her remain to lead his army to other victories. But her power was gone. She was taken prisoner by a French force that was fighting on the side of the English. Instead of having been sent by God, she was now held to have been led on by an evil spirit that had deserted her. Tried by the English, to whom she was handed over, she was condemned as a witch and burned alive.

End of the Hundred Years' War, 1453.—The Hundred Years' War was ended. In its closing years reverses, one after another, came to the English, until of their vast possessions in France there remained Calais alone. Still, for two hundred years the Kings of England were accustomed to wear the empty title of King of France.

Bad Rule.—On taking the rule into his own hands at the age of twenty, Henry showed little capacity to govern the nation. He was a quiet, amiable sort of man, but he was weak-minded, and was influenced by favorites. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, was much the stronger and more decided person.

Meanwhile Parliament had, in large measure, ceased to represent the people. Many members of the House of Commons were not the free choice of the electors, but had gained their position through the influence of designing men.

Insurrection.—There was much discontent on account of the bad government, and the loss of France intensified the feeling. As in a former reign, insurrection broke out in Kent.



Twenty thousand insurgents, with **Jack Cade** at their head, marched to London. They asked for reform—less waste of the public money and more freedom in electing members of the House of Commons. The rioters were soon put down. Cade was slain, and matters went on much as before.

Henry becomes Insane.—King Henry, like his grandfather

Charles the Sixth of France, lost his reason. The regency was given to Richard, Duke of York, who traced double descent from Edward the Third—on the father's side from the fifth son, and on the mother's side from Edward's third son. The duke's title would thus seem to have been better than the king's.

The Wars of the Roses begin, 1455.—On the recovery of the king, the Duke of York was not disposed to give up the power. Then began the contest between the Houses of Lancaster and York that for thirty years distracted England with civil war. The emblem of the Lancastrians was a red rose, that of the Yorkists a white rose. Hence the struggle came to be known as "The Wars of the Roses."

In the first battle, at St. Albans, the Lancastrians were defeated, and the king was taken prisoner. Then Parliament decided that Henry should reign during his life, and that the Duke of York should be his successor. But Queen Margaret, jealous of the rights of her young son Edward, again aroused her friends to arms, and gained a victory at Wakefield Green. In this battle the Duke of York was slain, and his head, adorned with a wreath of white roses, was fastened to the walls of the city of York. Then once more the Yorkists, led by the Earl of Warwick, rallied around Edward, son of the Duke of York, who now took his father's title.

Parliament interferes.—While the contest was going on, victory now falling to one side and now to the other, Parliament interfered, deposed Henry, and declared the Duke of York to be king, with the title of Edward the Fourth.

HOUSE OF YORK.

1461-1485.

SOVEREIGNS.

Edward IV., 1461-1483.

Edward V., 1483.

Richard III., 1483-1485.

EDWARD IV.

1461-1483.

EDWARD THE FOURTH was nineteen years old when he began his reign. He was tall and handsome, an able warrior, and a man of strong will. But withal he was selfish, cruel, and immoral.

The King-maker.—Edward owed his throne largely to the Earl of Warwick. This earl was the wealthiest and the most powerful of all the nobles. He could raise a small army from among his retainers. It is said that when he went to Parliament he was accompanied by six hundred followers, distinguished by his badge of the **Bear and the Ragged Staff**. He was a great schemer, and his power and influence gained for him the name of "King-maker."

Battle of Towton, 1461.—The Wars of the Roses were not yet ended. The greatest of all the battles was fought at Towton, where, it is said, forty thousand men, including both sides, were slain. Queen Margaret, who had gathered a large army in the northern counties, was defeated. Other reverses followed. King Henry fell into the enemy's hands and was sent to the Tower.

Henry reinstated.—But now Edward offended the King-maker. Warwick wanted him to marry a French princess.

Instead, the young king married Elizabeth Grey, the widow of a Lancastrian leader without either rank or fortune. Added to this, he bestowed on his wife's relations large estates and high offices. Warwick began to intrigue with King Edward's brother, the Duke of Clarence. He gave him his daughter in marriage, and arranged a plot to place him on the throne. Then he formed a new scheme—he went over to the side of the Lancastrians, made friendship with Queen Margaret, gave his second daughter to her son, Prince Edward, and gathered a large army. King Edward fled to Flanders. Henry the Sixth was taken from the Tower and reinstated on the throne.

Edward IV. again King.—In a few months Edward returned, bringing aid from the Duke of Burgundy, who had married his sister. He was soon at the head of a large army. Two great battles were fought, in which the Lancastrians were utterly routed. Warwick fell in battle. Prince Edward was taken prisoner and put to death. Henry was again thrust into the Tower, where he was murdered shortly after. The Wars of the Roses were ended, and Edward the Fourth of York held the throne.

Effects of the War.—The war had been a fearful scourge. It was computed that it swept off a hundred thousand of the English people. The nobles suffered most, as they and their retainers were the chief actors in the struggle. The middle class, including the merchants, tradesmen, and small landowners, took little part. Many of the barons who were on the losing side perished on the scaffold; others fled or were banished.

The forfeited estates of the nobles were seized by the king. In addition to the fines and confiscations by which King Edward added to his wealth, he had other ways of enriching himself. He engaged in the wool trade. Then he asked his wealthy subjects for presents of money, to which he gave the mild name "Benevolences"—that is, good-will gifts. There was a kind of make-believe that they were presents, but those who were asked to give knew very well that refusal would mean something serious.

With such great wealth Edward was almost independent of

Parliament, which he very seldom called together. He and his council ruled the nation as they pleased. Still, Edward never felt quite secure. He was afraid of plots, and he kept spies ever on the look-out. His brother, the Duke of Clarence, charged with treason, he imprisoned in the Tower, and finally put to death. No one knew how the duke came to his end. Rumor said that, given his choice as to how he would die, he was drowned in a cask of Malmsey, a kind of wine of which he was very fond.

Edward's Death.—Worn out by his dissolute life, Edward died at the age of forty-one. He left two sons—Edward, Prince of Wales, and Richard, Duke of York—and several daughters, of whom the eldest, Elizabeth, was afterwards married to Henry the Seventh.

The Art of Printing.—An event occurred in Edward's reign that was of more concern to England and to the whole world besides than all the Wars of the Roses. William Caxton is the hero of the story. He was born in Kent, and after several years' residence in London he removed to Bruges, in Flanders. Here he learned the art of printing, which had lately been invented in Germany. In 1476 he returned to London and set up the first printing-press in England. Among the first books that he printed were "Æsop's Fables" and Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales."

EDWARD V.

1483.

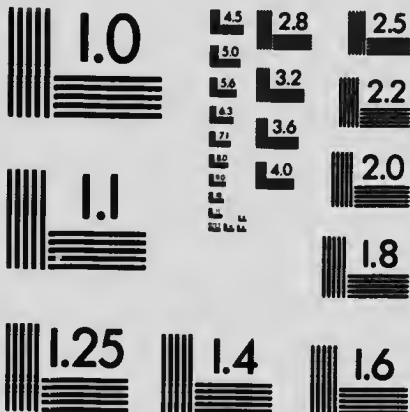
A King, but never crowned.—Edward the Fifth was but twelve years old when he became king. He was never crowned. His uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, who was appointed Protector, by a course of villainy and murder set about securing the crown for himself. The nobles who were friendly to the young king he put to death. Among these was Lord Hastings, who had been the late king's adviser.

Gloucester was stunted and deformed in body, and he had



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a withered arm. Entering the council chamber where Hastings was sitting, he, with great pretence of outraged feeling, laid bare his shrivelled arm, and accused him of having caused it by sorcery, and also of plotting against his life. Then, looking fiercely at him and striking the table, he exclaimed, "I will not dine until I have your head." In rushed a band of armed men, seized Hastings, and, hurrying him away, smote off his head upon a block that lay in the courtyard.

King Edward placed in the Tower.—Meanwhile the young king was being cared for by his mother's brother in a castle near Wales. The Protector had him and his brother, the Duke of York, brought to London and placed in the Tower, asserting that his object was the greater safety of the princes.

Gloucester on the Throne.—The duke then got up a story that the late king's marriage was not legal, and hence that Edward the Fifth was not lawful heir to the throne. The royal council, which had taken upon itself the powers of Parliament, accepted the story, deposed Edward, and offered the crown to the duke. This he, with great show of unwillingness, took, and was crowned as Richard the Third.

Murder of Edward V.—One step further rounded off the villainy of this wicked man. The young princes, his nephews, disappeared from the Tower. Rumor soon went abroad that they had been murdered by Richard's orders. A few years later one of the assassins confessed to having smothered them in their bedclothes as they lay sleeping, and buried them at the foot of a stairway in the Tower. Two hundred years after, in the reign of Charles the First, the bones of two boys were found in this spot, and were removed to Westminster Abbey.

RICHARD III.

1483-1485.

RICHARD THE THIRD, surnamed "Crookback," reached the throne through a dark pathway of crime. He ruled well, however and made important reforms. He called a Parliament,

and gave back to it some of its former powers. He abolished benevolences, and he had the laws translated into English and printed. He also encouraged the making and selling of books, allowing to foreigners the same privileges in these matters as were held by Englishmen.

Plots.—But the people were against him. His wicked deeds could not be forgotten. Plots soon disturbed the peace which he hoped he had firmly established.

A Rival.—Richard was a Yorkist. The old rivalry between his house and that of Lancaster had not wholly died out. At the head of the last-named house was **Henry Tudor**, Earl of Richmond, a descendant of John of Gaunt. For the final settlement of the quarrel that had for so long disturbed the nation, it was proposed that he should marry the Princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward the Fourth. Powerful nobles lent their aid to the scheme.

A Counterplot.—King Richard was not ignorant of what was going on. Just then his wife died, not without suspicion resting on him that he had hurried her out of the world. He tried to break up the scheme of union by himself marrying his niece Elizabeth. This counterplot he failed to carry out.

Henry Tudor is King.—Henry Tudor, whom both Edward the Fourth and Richard had always regarded as a possible rival, was now living in Brittany. He landed at Milford Haven, and was soon at the head of a large army. Richard met him at **Bosworth Field**. Before the battle he was deserted by many of his followers, including some powerful nobles. Finding the fortunes of the day going against him, he rushed into the thickest of the fight, hoping to strike down his rival, when he himself fell, pierced with a mortal wound. The crown, which had fallen from his head, was placed on the head of Henry Tudor, who on the battlefield was saluted as Henry the Seventh. Thus, within two weeks of his landing, Henry was King of England.

SOCIAL CONDITION DURING THE LANCASTRIAN AND YORKIST PERIODS.

ONE of the most important changes brought about during these periods was the breaking up of the Feudal System and the abolition of that form of slavery called serfdom or villinage. This was in part due to the influence of the clergy, who urged the barons to give freedom to their serfs. In large measure also it was due to the almost complete extinction of the barons during the Wars of the Roses.

Another feature of the times was the lessening of the power of Parliament, with corresponding increase of the king's power. Comparatively few members of the House of Lords survived the wars. The right of voting for members of the House of Commons was so restricted to a few of the more wealthy class that this body in no adequate sense represented the people. Then the few electors were not left free to choose as they pleased. It thus happened that many members of the House of Commons were wholly under the influence of the king or of some noble.

Similar conditions interfered with the proper enforcement of law. Sheriffs, juries, and judges were bribed or threatened. Kidnapping, lynching, and robbery were common. Innkeepers sometimes entered into partnership with highwaymen for the robbing of their wealthy guests as they journeyed.

The sea was infested with pirates, who not only preyed on merchant vessels, but often entered harbors and plundered seaport towns. Merchant ships carried arms, which they sometimes used otherwise than for self-defense.

The invention of gunpowder wholly changed the mode of warfare, cannon and smaller firearms taking the place of bows and arrows, spears and battle-axes. Nor was the coat of mail and the walled castle any longer a reliable defense. In place of these strong castles the nobles began to build splendid palaces.

The invention of printing cheapened the price of books,

and led to the wider diffusion of knowledge. The English language, having been molded into something like its present form, became so fixed in books that it has since undergone comparatively little change. The great authors of the age were few.

Miracle plays, which were at first enacted in the churches, chiefly by the clergy, were a marked feature of the time. Their purpose was for the teaching of Bible story by the vividness of dramatic action. During the later part of the period **moral plays** or allegories came into vogue. In these the actors personified such ideas as mercy, justice, and truth.

There was yet **another event** of the period that in after times wrought wondrous results in England as well as throughout Western Europe. In the earlier days the Christians of these lands had sent out great expeditions for the taking of Palestine from the Turks. But now, in 1453, the Turks crossed over into Europe, took Constantinople, and established themselves on Christian soil.

In the south-east of Europe is a small country called Greece. In ancient times, long before the Romans conquered England, Greece was the home of a famous people who attained great eminence in science, art, and literature. Their philosophers, sculptors, architects, and poets surpassed any that the world had seen elsewhere. The people of Western Europe knew very little of all this, and very few of its scholars could read the Greek language.

At the time of its capture by the Turks there were many men living in Constantinople who were skilled in Greek learning. Driven away by the Turks, they made their home in Florence and other cities of Italy, where they became teachers, and exerted a powerful influence in spreading Greek culture. The great awakening thus brought about is known as **The Renaissance**—that is, "The New Birth." During the early part of the Tudor Period students went from England to Florence to learn from these teachers, and on their return established the "new learning" in England.

The **language** spoken in England before the Norman Conquest, called Anglo-Saxon, could not be understood by Eng-

lishmen of the present day. Indeed afterwards, before the time of the Tudors, the English language underwent great change. The language of the Plantagenet period is to us of the present day almost like an unknown tongue.

The following specimens of the language used in England at different periods will show how greatly it has changed.

It was midh blodæ bistemid.

I was with blood moistened.

Cædmon (middle of eighth century).

Ara thinum fæder and thinre meder tha the Þrihten scalde the that thu sy thy leng libbende on earthen.

Honor thy father and thy mother whom the Lord gave thee that thou be long-lived on the earth.

King Alfred (900).

Forgesat us ageltes ura swa swa we forgeofen agiltendum urum.

Lord's Prayer (1130).

Forgibe thou all us dettes urs, als we forgibe till ur detturs (1250).

Forgibe to us our dettis as we forgiven to oure dettouris.

Wycliffe (1380).

Forgibe us oure dettes as we forgebe ur detturs.

Tyndale (1526).

Forsothe it was don in the dayes, a maundement went out fro Cesar August that al the world schulde be diseruged. This first diseruginge was maad of Cyryne justice of Cyrye and alle men wenten that thei schulde make profescionnech by himself in to his cite.

Luke ii. Wycliffe.

Hit folowed in thoose dayes that there wente oute a comandment from Auguste the Emperour that all the weorlde schulde be valned. This taxynge was first executed when Syrenus was lefternaut in Siria.

Luke ii. Tyndale.

THE TUDOR PERIOD.

1485-1603.

SOVEREIGNS.

Henry VII., 1485-1509.	Edward VI., 1547-1553.
Henry VIII., 1509-1547.	Mary I., 1553-1558.
Elizabeth, 1558-1603.	

HENRY VII.

1485-1509.

HENRY THE SEVENTH came to the throne near the beginning of that division of the world's story known as Modern History. He was the first of a new royal line called the House of Tudor. This name came from the Welshman Owen Tudor, Henry's grandfather, who married Catherine, widow of Henry the Fifth. Henry the Seventh's father was Edmund Tudor. His birth-right to the throne came through his mother, Margaret Beaufort, great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt. This right was of the flimsiest sort, but he strengthened his house greatly by marrying Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward the Fourth. Then the people generally were for him, and Parliament declared that the crown should belong to him and his heirs. Thus the rival houses of Lancaster and York were united.

Henry's Will was Law.—Henry, like the other Tudors, had a strong will. He had little use for Parliament, and the last one summoned, seven years before his death, ordered that his decrees should have the force of law. He kept the nobles under close restraint. He enforced a law made by Edward the Fourth, forbidding them to give their livery to any but their household servants; and he also forbade them the use of cannon, reserving that weapon for the royal forces alone. Thus the nobles had little power for successful rebellion.

It is related that Henry visited the Earl of Oxford, and was conducted through long lines of retainers wearing the earl's livery. On being told that these men had been assembled to do him honor, the King thanked the earl for his courtesy, and added, "But I may not have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney will speak with you." And so the noble earl had to pay a fine of \$50,000.

Rivals and Pretenders.—During the first fifteen years of his reign Henry was greatly disturbed by rivals and impostors. The two rivals of whom he had most cause to be alarmed were the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence and nephew of Edward the Fourth, and the Earl of Lincoln, the son of Edward's sister Elizabeth. Warwick he shut up in the Tower of London; and after keeping him in prison for fifteen years, he put him to death because he tried to escape. Upon acknowledging Henry as the rightful king, Lincoln was allowed his liberty.

While Warwick was shut up in the Tower, there appeared in Ireland a young man, whose real name was Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, who asserted that he was this same Earl of Warwick. His story was believed by many people, and he was crowned at Dublin as Edward the Sixth. To convince people that this man was an impostor, Henry had Warwick shown publicly in the streets of London. Yet in that age, without newspapers or other facilities of the kind, little that was done in London would ever be told in distant parts of the kingdom.

Coming over to England Simnel gained many followers, including the Earl of Lincoln. He met the king's forces at Stoke, where he was defeated and taken prisoner. Lincoln fell in the battle. To show his contempt for Simnel, Henry ordered him to be taken to his kitchen to do the work of a servant.

An impostor more to be feared was Perkin Warbeck, who claimed to be Richard, Duke of York, who had been murdered in the Tower with his brother Edward the Fifth. He gained the support of powerful friends. Among these was Elizabeth, Duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward the Fourth, who

owned him as her nephew, and sent troops to aid him. James the Fourth of Scotland also believed his story, gave him a lady of high rank in marriage, and coined the royal plate to raise an army for the support of his cause. In trying to carry out his schemes, Warbeck showed little heroism. He finally deserted the men who were fighting for him, and threw himself on the king's mercy. Henry placed him in the Tower, but afterwards, on his trying to escape, put him to death.

Henry's Ways of Getting Money.—Henry was not fond of war. It was too costly. The hoarding of money was his great passion. Once Parliament granted him supplies for carrying on war with France. He then accepted a large sum of money from the king of that country as a condition of peace. He did not often ask Parliament for money, as that body had a fashion of making certain demands in return for such favors. Henry enriched himself by exactions from his wealthy subjects in the form of fines, confiscations, and benevolences. His chief agents in these matters were two lawyers, Dudley and Empson, who, by their extortion, gained ill-fame for themselves.

The Star Chamber.—At the beginning of the reign the kingdom was in great disorder as the result of civil war and bad government. Henry's firm rule changed matters somewhat for the better. He established a new court under his own control, which, from the highly-decorated room in Westminster Palace where it met, was called **The Court of the Star Chamber**. It did some good at first, but in later reigns it became an instrument of oppression and tyranny.

Peace with Scotland.—Henry made peace with James the Fourth of Scotland, confirming the treaty by giving him in marriage his daughter Margaret. The union of the crowns of England and Scotland a hundred years later was an important result of this marriage.

Catherine of Aragon.—Another royal marriage led to changes of great moment, and to a world of trouble besides. Henry's son Arthur, when fifteen years old, married the Spanish princess Catherine of Aragon. A few months later the prince died. Catherine had brought with her large dowry,

and Henry could not think of allowing this wealth to go back to Spain. He had another son, Henry, but the laws of the church forbade one to marry his brother's widow. The Pope, however, gave leave, and the marriage in due time took place.

Discovery of America, 1492.—Henry's reign was the dawning time of great changes. One of the great world events was the discovery of America by Columbus. This was followed four years later by the Cabots' discovery of North America. Vasco da Gama had already a few years earlier found a new route to India around the Cape of Good Hope. In this reign manufactures, shipbuilding, and trade started on that prosperous career that they have ever since maintained.

HENRY VIII.

1509-1547.

HENRY THE EIGHTH was about eighteen years old when he came to the throne. He was handsome, graceful, skilled in the tournament, in archery, and other physical accomplishments. He was well-educated, spoke several languages, and had some knowledge of Greek, then much in vogue. Besides the throne, he inherited from his father great wealth, which, unlike his father, he was fonder of spending than of hoarding. The English people were proud of their young king.

Shortly after his accession, Henry married Catherine of Aragon, his brother's widow, who in age was several years his senior. This marriage brought him into close alliance with Spain, then one of the foremost powers of Europe.

Battle of the Spurs, 1513.—Henry was ambitious of being a great king, and at one time he thought of renewing the old claim of Edward the Third and Henry the Fifth to the throne of France. In alliance with the German Emperor, he invaded that country, and gained an easy victory in the Battle of the Spurs, so called from the rapid flight of the French horsemen.

Battle of Flodden Field, 1513.—During Henry's absence

in France the Scots invaded England, and suffered disastrous defeat by the Earl of Surrey in the battle of Flodden Field. In this battle James the Fourth of Scotland and many of his nobles were slain. Peace was soon after concluded with both France and Scotland.

Cardinal Wolsey.—During the first half of Henry's reign his chief adviser was Thomas Wolsey. This man had a remarkable career. His father was a butcher during the reign of Henry the Seventh. The son took his bachelor's



ENTRANCE GATE, HAMPTON COURT.

degree at Oxford when fifteen years of age. He stood high in the estimation of Henry the Seventh, and rose rapidly from one position of honor to another. Henry the Eighth, learning his worth, made him chancellor and Archbishop of York, and heaped upon him unbounded wealth. The Pope of Rome raised him to the dignity of cardinal, and appointed him his legate or representative in England. Wolsey had an enormous income, and his expenditures were on a lavish scale. He built for himself costly palaces, including Whitehall and Hampton Court. In his silken robes, sparkling with gold,

and with a great retinue of attendants, he made great display, his splendor equalling that of the king.

Wolsey in full Charge, 1513-1529.—For sixteen years, during which Parliament was summoned but twice, Wolsey alone, in the king's name, managed the affairs of the kingdom both at home and abroad. When the king wanted money, Wolsey found a way of getting it by benevolences or some other illegal method.

The Field of the Cloth of Gold.—Francis the First of France and Charles the Fifth of Germany were rivals for the control of Italy, and each courted the aid of the King of England. Charles visited England, and made to Henry and Wolsey many promises that he never intended to fulfil. Then Henry and Francis met near Calais in France, and, surrounded by their courtiers, and with the most costly display, spent three weeks in tournaments and feasting. On account of its great splendor the affair was called *The Field of the Cloth of Gold*.

But Henry cared little for either Francis or Charles. He was always ready to help the one against the other, that he might prevent either becoming greater than himself.

The Reformation.—The great movement called the Reformation, led by Martin Luther, was now going on in Germany, and the new faith was accepted by many people in England. Henry showed his zeal for the church by persecuting those people, who were called **Protestants**. The books and papers that taught Luther's doctrines were seized and burned by Wolsey and the bishops. King Henry himself wrote a book against the teachings of Luther, for which the Pope conferred on him the title **Defender of the Faith**.

Henry wants Divorce.—After living eighteen years with his wife, Catherine of Aragon, Henry professed to have scruples regarding the lawfulness of marriage with his brother's widow. With the exception of the daughter Mary, all Catherine's children, including three sons, had died in infancy. This, thought the king, was proof of Heaven's displeasure. Truth to tell, he had fallen in love with a maid of honor named **Anne Boleyn**, and he desired to be rid of Catherine that he might marry this lady. He asked the Pope to grant him a

divorce. This was not an easy thing to do, for a former Pope had sanctioned the marriage. Besides, Charles the Fifth, who had great influence over the Pope, was Catherine's nephew.

There was long delay. Meanwhile the king was blaming Wolsey, who he thought could obtain the divorce. Then the Pope left the matter to Wolsey and an Italian cardinal. In the court held by the two cardinals, Catherine, kneeling at Henry's feet, made a pitiful plea, but failed to move him from his purpose. The cardinals gave no decision in the case.

Wolsey's Fall.—Then Henry became very angry, and visited his wrath on Wolsey. It had been through Wolsey that the case had been brought before the Pope. In doing this he had violated that old law called *The Statute of Præmunire*, by which he forfeited his splendid palaces, with all his goods, and made himself liable to imprisonment, or such further punishment as the king might impose. He was stripped of his great wealth, and with trembling awaited his enraged master's further pleasure. Then Henry relented somewhat towards the fallen prelate, and allowed him to retire to York as archbishop. But Wolsey had many enemies, who used their influence against him. He was soon arrested for treason, and summoned to London for trial. On the way he was taken ill, and died in the abbey of Leicester. On his deathbed he uttered the memorable words, "Had I served my God as diligently as I have my king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

The Clergy Fines.—The whole body of the clergy, too, had made themselves liable to the penalties of this old statute. They had sanctioned appeals to Rome, and thus had forfeited all their goods. Henry was merciful, so he thought. He imposed on them a fine of £118,000, equal to ten times that amount at the present day.

New Advisers.—Sir Thomas More, a most excellent man, succeeded Wolsey as chancellor. He wrote a famous little book called "Utopia" ("Nowhere"), describing an imaginary island where everything was just as it should be. Thomas Cromwell and Thomas Cranmer were now the king's chief

advisers. Cromwell, who was said to be the son of a blacksmith, had spent his early days as a roving adventurer in many lands, and more recently had been in the service of Wolsey. Henry made him his chief secretary. Cranmer he appointed Archbishop of Canterbury.

Henry gains Divorce.—On the advice of Cranmer, Henry laid his case before the leading universities of Europe, from which he obtained decisions in his favor. The English Parliament then passed an Act forbidding appeals to the Pope, and requiring that all ecclesiastical questions be settled by the English church courts. A bishops' court, with Cranmer at its head, then decreed that the king's marriage with Catherine was not legal. The wretched queen died three years later, leaving one daughter, Mary. In the meantime Henry had married Anne Boleyn.

Henry Head of the Church, 1534.—Parliament, wholly under Henry's control, declared that he was sole head of the church in England, and that whoever denied this, or that Anne was his lawful wife, was guilty of treason. This caused a final separation between the king and the Pope. It did not mean, however, that Henry had become a Protestant. He still held to all the doctrines of the Church of Rome; only he, instead of the Pope, was supreme in England. Serious persecution followed. Protestants who followed Luther were burned as heretics, Roman Catholics who adhered to the Pope were beheaded for treason.

Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher, among the bolder spirits who refused to acknowledge the king's supremacy, were beheaded.

Henry now ruled with despotic power, and in **Sir Thomas Cromwell** he found a fitting agent for carrying out his stern measures. The House of Commons, composed largely of men of his own choosing, was servile and ready to do his bidding. The king's proclamations were given the force of law. At the mention of his name in Parliament the members rose and bowed with religious reverence to the vacant chair, as they were accustomed to bow in church at the name of the Saviour.

Breaking up of the Monasteries.—There were at this time hundreds of monasteries in England, some of which had large estates and great wealth. They were charged with fostering idleness and loose living, and in accordance with the king's wishes they were abolished by Act of Parliament. The work of spoliation was entrusted to Cromwell. Monks and nuns were turned out of their homes. A goodly portion of the spoil fell to the king; some of it was used on the royal navy; the lands seized were given chiefly to favorite courtiers and to certain newly-created nobles who had aided Henry in carrying out his schemes.

This great overturn caused much disorder and suffering. Some of the monasteries had been doing good work in educating the young, aiding the poor, and providing asylums for the sick and aged. Much dissatisfaction prevailed in some parts of England on account of their destruction. The common people in the northern counties, joined by the Archbishop of York and many of the clergy, demanded restoration. Henry was for the moment somewhat alarmed, and promised redress; but when the threatened rebellion had passed over, he crushed the leaders with heavy hand. Large numbers were hanged, and their property was confiscated.

Henry's Wives.—The story of Henry's many marriages would be too long to tell, for he had six wives. Scarcely had six years passed when, becoming weary of Anne Boleyn, he had her beheaded. The day after her execution he married Jane Seymour. She died within two years, leaving an infant son, Edward. His other wives were Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced; Catherine Howard, whom he sent to the block; and Catherine Parr, who outlived him.

Henry's Tyranny.—Henry was a cruel king, and put many people to death without sufficient cause. His minister Cromwell offended him by arranging his marriage with Anne of Cleves, and being afterwards accused of treason he was beheaded. A distinguished victim was the aged **Countess of Salisbury**, a niece of Edward the Fourth. Her only crime was in being the mother of Cardinal Pole, who, having written something offensive, escaped to Rome. The last one to

suffer was **Henry Howard**, Earl of Surrey, whom Henry beheaded on suspicion that he was plotting for the throne.

Plans to gain Scotland.—Henry tried to unite England and Scotland by an arrangement of marriage between his

young son Edward and Mary, daughter of James the Fifth of Scotland. But the Scottish people, preferring their old allies the French, would not agree to this union.

The Bible.—Since Wycliffe's translation of the Bible the English language had undergone many changes. During Henry's reign several new translations were made, the most valuable of which was that by William Tyndale, the others being little more than revisions of this. A version by Myles Coverdale was published in 1539 by royal authority. A copy of this book, sometimes called "The Great Bible," was placed in every church, chained to the desk, so that it could not be taken away. The Psalms, as found in the Anglican Prayer Book, are taken without change from the Great Bible.



THE CHAINED BIBLE.

Henry grew old before his time, and he was but fifty-six years of age when he died. He made a will arranging the succession to the throne. The order he fixed on was: first Edward, son of Jane Seymour; then Mary, daughter of Catherine of Aragon; and then Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn.

EDWARD VI.

1547-1553.

EDWARD THE SIXTH was about ten years of age when his father died. He was a quiet, studious lad, mature beyond his years, deeply religious, and strongly inclined towards Protestantism. The government was entrusted to a council of sixteen members, of which the Earl of Hertford, brother of Jane Seymour, was president. Hertford, who soon secured for himself the higher rank of Duke of Somerset, shortly became the real ruler of the kingdom, under the title of Protector.

Battle of Pinkie.—Somerset wanted to bring about the marriage that Henry the Eighth had planned between Edward and the young Queen Mary of Scotland. When the Scots still did not care for the union, he tried to drive them into it by force of arms. He gained an easy victory over them in the battle of Pinkie, but this did not change their opinion in regard to the marriage. They sent their child-queen to France for safe keeping, where, several years later, she was married to the heir to the French throne. A Scottish noble, speaking of the proposed marriage, said, "He disliked not the match, but he did not much care for the manner of wooing."

The Anglican Church.—The Protector was a Protestant, and he set about church reform in a very radical fashion. In this work he was aided by **Cranmer** and Bishops **Ridley** and **Latimer**. No images, pictures, or crucifixes were allowed in the churches, and the stained-glass windows with their representations of saints and Bible stories were destroyed.

The **doctrines** laid down for the Anglican Church were embodied in **Forty-two Articles**, but they were afterwards reduced to **Thirty-nine**. A Book of Common Prayer, much like that used at the present day, was adopted for use in the church. Very largely it was a translation into English of the Latin service of the Roman Catholic Church. This book was adopted by Parliament, and ordered to be introduced at once into all the churches. Under the new order priests were allowed to marry.

Church Spoils.—A portion of the rich spoil taken from the churches was applied to public use. Some of it—at the request, it is said, of King Edward—was used in founding schools for boys. The most famous of these schools was that in London called Christ's Hospital, which still exists. It is more commonly known as **The Blue Coat School**, from the long blue coats with red belts worn by the boys. A large portion of the church property was divided among the members of the council and their friends. Out of his share of the plunder the Protector built himself a splendid mansion called **Somerset House**.

Persecution and Rebellion.—Many of the people were not prepared for these sudden changes in their religion and forms of worship. Especially in the country there was strong opposition. Two prominent Roman Catholic bishops, refusing to comply, were thrown into prison, and kept there throughout the reign. In the west of England the people, armed with scythes and pitchforks, and joined by their priests, rose in rebellion. With the aid of foreign troops the government soon put them down. Then there followed many executions. Priests, with their prayer books round their necks, were hanged from church steeples.

Insurrection in the East.—There were other troubles at this time in England besides those over the matter of religion. As it is in our own day, there were stirring questions over industrial affairs. Serfdom had given place to hired labor. The cultivation of the soil and the raising of grain had been in large measure given up for the more profitable business of sheep-farming. Wool brought a good price, and it was produced with little cost. Many farm laborers were thus thrown out of employment. Again, extensive lands that had formerly been left unfenced as commons were now enclosed by the landowners, so that the poor man had no place to pasture his cow. Still further, the laborer's wages were very small, and coin of the realm had been so debased by mixture with lead during this and the former reign, that it would buy much less of the necessities of living than formerly.

These things caused most serious trouble in the east of

England. **A rising of the peasantry**, led by **Robert Kett**, took place in Norfolk, somewhat like the Wat Tyler insurrection in the reign of Richard the Second. This, too, was soon put down, and Kett and many of his followers were hanged.

Plots.—The Protector, Somerset, rather sympathized with the peasantry in their troubles, and he took measures against depriving them of their pasture lands. He thus incurred the enmity of the wealthy landowners. Ambitious men took advantage of this, and began to form plots against him. The first to give trouble was his own brother, Lord Seymour, who had married the widow of Henry the Eighth, and who now on her death was scheming to marry Henry's daughter, Elizabeth. He tried to raise a revolt, but falling into Somerset's hands, he was executed.

Fall of Somerset, 1552.—A member of the council, **Dudley, Earl of Warwick**, who afterwards took the title of Duke of Northumberland, carried through a more successful plot against Somerset. The Protector was charged with usurping powers that belonged to the king, and, by a vote of Parliament, was stripped of all power. A little later he was charged with other crimes, and was beheaded on Tower Hill.

Northumberland's short Rule.—The Duke of Northumberland now ruled the kingdom. His great ambition was to bring the crown into his own family. His son, **Lord Guilford Dudley**, had married the king's cousin, **Lady Jane Grey**, the daughter of Mary, a younger sister of Henry the Eighth. Northumberland persuaded King Edward to make a will and bequeath the crown to Lady Jane, thus passing over his two sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, and also another cousin, Mary of Scotland.

Edward's Death.—Edward was never very strong. He now became ill, and was placed under the care of a woman who was said to be skilled in the art of healing. Under her treatment he grew rapidly worse, and shortly after died, at the age of sixteen.

MARY I.

1553-1558.

Queen Lady Jane.—Lady Jane Grey was near the age of the late king. She was beautiful, accomplished, and good, and, like her cousin, King Edward, with whom she had been accustomed to study Latin, Greek, and other languages, she was fond of retirement. Northumberland, against her pleadings, lost no time in having her proclaimed queen. But the people showed little enthusiasm over her. A sense of justice accorded the crown to Mary. Besides, they saw that the real ruler, if Lady Jane were on the throne, would be her father-in-law, Northumberland, whose schemes they cared little to aid. Her reign lasted twelve days.

Mary is Queen.—Mary was proclaimed queen. The nobles rallied around her, and every day added strength to her supporters. The soldiers who had been gathered to fight for Lady Jane shouted, "Long live Queen Mary!" and deserted to the other side. Northumberland was seized and executed without delay. Lady Jane, her father, the Duke of Suffolk, and her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, were sent to prison in the Tower. Mary was thus established on the throne, the first queen to rule over England.

Roman Catholicism restored.—Mary was a Roman Catholic, and among her first acts was the restoration of that religion. Bishops **Bonner** and **Gardiner**, who had long lain in prison, were set free. Parliament repealed the laws against the Pope's authority, and the members on their knees received his pardon from the papal legate, Cardinal Pole, for the faults of the nation in religious matters during the two preceding reigns.

Rebellion.—The proposed **marriage of Mary** to Philip of Spain, son of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, caused much uneasiness to many of her subjects. It was said that England would soon become a province of Spain. The men of Kent, often foremost in armed resistance to what they disliked, rose in rebellion. They were, however, soon dispersed, and their leader, **Sir Thomas Wyatt**, was seized and executed.

Lady Jane executed.—The Duke of Suffolk, who was in some way concerned in the rising, paid the penalty with his life. Though innocent of any part in this insurrection, Lady Jane and her husband were at the same time hurried to the block, and the Princess Elizabeth barely escaped the same fate.

The Queen's Marriage.—Although Parliament protested against the union, **Mary married Philip**, who a few months after became King of Spain. The marriage was not a happy one. Mary was eleven years older than her husband; and although she was fond of him, she was not amiable. Philip soon grew weary of her, and after remaining about a year in England he returned to Spain. Mary saw him but once after, when, two or three years later, he came to induce her to join him in war against France.

Persecution.—Cardinal Pole advised that Protestants be allowed liberty of worship. Gardiner, now chancellor, and Bishop Bonner were not in favor of such toleration. Queen Mary agreed with them. The most fearful religious persecution that had ever been seen in England followed. Many Protestants took refuge in Holland and Germany. It is said that nearly three hundred persons—men, women, and children—were burned at the stake. Smithfield in London was the chief scene of these sad doings. Some of the principal martyrs were John Rogers, Canon of St. Paul's, Bishops Ridley and Latimer, and the famous Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Queen Mary was a Tudor, and, like others of her family, she was not easily turned aside from her purpose. It is safe to say that she was more honest to her sense of right than was her father, Henry the Eighth. She did things which we consider very cruel; but she belonged to a hard age, when the right of religious freedom was not well understood.

Loss of Calais, 1558.—Towards the end of her reign, to please her husband, Mary joined Spain in war against France. The chief outcome of the war to England was **the loss of Calais**, which she had owned since the time of Edward the Third. Mary was greatly grieved over this loss, and she said that when she died the name of that city would be found written on her heart.

ELIZABETH.

1558-1603.

ELIZABETH, closely watched by Queen Mary, had long been little better than a prisoner in Hatfield House. Here she lived in retirement, spending much of her time in the study of Latin and Greek. She was sitting under a tree in the park when she was saluted as Queen of England. It was a wondrous change for her, and she exclaimed, "This is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes!" Her accession to the throne was hailed with the wildest joy.



HATFIELD HOUSE.

Character.—Elizabeth came to the throne at the age of twenty-five. She was strong in body and mind, a good scholar, and possessed of many accomplishments. She was many-sided in her attainments and capabilities. She could ride gracefully, shoot well to the mark, was skilled in music, and could speak several languages. On the other hand, she had a rough voice, little feminine delicacy of feeling, and a violent temper. She used fearful oaths, and was vain and fond of flattery. In the matter of dress she was most extravagant;

and yet it was to her credit that she used the savings of twenty-four years in paying off her father's debts. She could play at love-making and toy with her admirers, but when it came to business she was mistress of herself and of all about her.

Her Caution.—Elizabeth was wary, and seldom told all her thoughts. When she came to the throne people scarcely knew what religion she intended to favor. She set free those whom Mary had imprisoned on account of their religion. She retained some of Mary's Roman Catholic counsellors, and chose some new ones who were Protestants. She was crowned by a Roman Catholic bishop. She showed much wisdom in the choice of her advisers. During forty years of her reign her chief counsellor was **William Cecil**, or Lord Burleigh. Another able minister was **Sir Francis Walsingham**, Secretary of State. These men were faithful and true, yet they sometimes had scant recognition from their queen.

Difficulties.—Elizabeth found the kingdom in great disorder. It had been badly governed, was distracted and weakened by religious persecution, and was depressed by unsuccessful war. Many idlers, vagrants, and beggars roamed through the country, ever ready to fall into crime.

The queen's title to the throne was disputed. The Roman Catholics did not think that her mother had been the lawful wife of Henry the Eighth, and hence they believed that Elizabeth had no just claim to the crown.

Religion.—There were in England three leading religious bodies—Roman Catholics, who formed perhaps more than half the population; that division of Protestants who held to the doctrines and forms of worship laid down in Cranmer's Book of Prayer; and the division called Puritans. These last-named wanted simple forms of worship. They did not believe in the sovereign's headship over the church, and they objected to ministers wearing the surplice, to the government of the church by bishops, to the use of the liturgy, to the sign of the cross in baptism, and to the adorning of the churches with pictures, statues, and stained-glass windows.

Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, 1559.—Elizabeth soon made known her preference for the Protestant religion.

It may seem strange to the people of our day that there should have been any quarrelling over these different beliefs. There was room enough for all, and each man should have been allowed to worship as he thought right. But that was not the way our forefathers in those days looked at these matters. They thought that all should worship in one way: and if any had not a mind to do this, why, they should be compelled to do so. Thus Parliament passed two Acts relating to religious matters. **The Act of Supremacy**, aimed against the power of the Pope, made the sovereign supreme governor of the realm both in temporal and in spiritual affairs. **The Act of Uniformity** required that all worship should be according to the forms of the Book of Common Prayer. This was intended specially for the Puritans. **The Court of High Commission** was established for carrying out these laws.

The Book of Common Prayer, altered a little, was ordered to be used in all the churches. Bishops and priests who would not comply were removed from office. Nearly all the bishops resigned; the common clergy generally accepted the new order of things, and thus retained their position. Many Roman Catholics were put to death, not because they were Roman Catholics, it was said, but because of their disloyalty. Puritans were fined, imprisoned, or maimed. Elizabeth disliked them, and yet they were loyal. A Puritan whose hand had been cut off by her order waved his hat with the other hand and shouted, "God save Queen Elizabeth."

The Virgin Queen.—Elizabeth is known as the "Virgin Queen." Parliament courteously urged her to marry. Within a few weeks of Mary's death Philip the Second of Spain wrote her, proposing marriage on condition that she would uphold the Roman Catholic religion, an offer she left unanswered for some time and then declined. Like many other sovereigns, she had her favorites. One of these, perhaps the one she thought most of, was **Robert Dudley**, Earl of Leicester, brother of Lord Guilford Dudley, a handsome but foolish and bad man, who was ambitious of being her husband. For seventeen days, it is said, he entertained her at **Kenilworth Castle** with every luxury and amusement that wealth could provide,

Some of these scenes are pictured by Sir Walter Scott in his tale of "Kenilworth." The **Earl of Essex** was the favorite of Elizabeth's old age.

Mary Queen of Scots.—Elizabeth's chief rival was Mary, daughter of James the Fifth of Scotland, the princess who was wanted as a wife for Edward the Sixth. She is often spoken of as Mary Queen of Scots. Her husband, the Dauphin of France, became King Francis the Second of that country, and he and Mary styled themselves King and Queen of England.



KENILWORTH CASTLE.

Francis died young, and then Mary returned to Scotland as queen of that country. She was then but nineteen years of age, and was very beautiful. Things had greatly changed in Scotland during her absence. Influenced by the famous John Knox, many of her people had become Protestants. Mary was wholly unyielding to all the arguments of this sturdy preacher. She now married her cousin, Lord Darnley, a most graceless young man, for whom she soon cared little. Darnley was murdered, and it was suspected that Mary knew of the plot that was formed against his life.

Mary's subjects turned against her and rose in rebellion. She was seized, imprisoned in Loch Leven Castle, and forced to resign the crown in favor of her son James the Sixth. She made her escape to England, and sought the protection of Elizabeth.

It was not easy to know what should be done with the fugitive queen. Cecil wished to send her back to Scotland. The Pope had taken strong measures against Elizabeth, declaring her to be a heretic, and freeing her subjects from all obligations to obey her. Many of her people believed that Mary was their rightful queen. A rebellion broke out in the north of England. This rising was soon quelled, and many of the rebels were hanged. Then a plot was discovered to assassinate Queen Elizabeth and place Mary on the throne. For his part in this plot the Duke of Norfolk, one of the most powerful nobles of England, was beheaded. Meanwhile Mary had been placed in prison, where she was allowed to remain.

Progress.—During these years England was becoming more prosperous. There were improved methods of agriculture, better breeds of cattle, more home comforts. Much of the wool produced was made into cloth, and trade increased. Laws were made compelling every parish to care for its poor. The currency was no longer debased by mixture with cheap metals.

English vessels at this time were very small, but they carried hardy sailors and had brave officers, such as **Hawkins, Drake, Frobisher, and Raleigh**. Drake was the first Englishman to sail around the world. Sir Martin Frobisher sailed far into northern seas, seeking a north-west passage to India. Sir Walter Raleigh tried to found a colony in America, naming it Virginia after the Virgin Queen. Some things which these bold navigators did were not commendable. Sir John Hawkins carried off negroes from Africa and sold them as slaves to the Spaniards in the West Indies. Sir Francis Drake was little better than a pirate in plundering Spanish towns in America and seizing Spanish treasure ships laden with gold, silver, and precious stones.

The King of Spain was angry over this freebooting game, as well he might be, and asked Elizabeth to hand over Drake to him for punishment. This she refused to do, but made Drake a knight instead. The Spanish ambassador told her that if she went on in this way the matter would be settled at the mouth of the cannon. Elizabeth replied in a quiet way that if he used threats she would fling him into a dungeon.

The Netherlands.—Philip the Second of Spain was a powerful king. In addition to his lands he owned Mexico, Central America, the West Indie and nearly all South America. The Netherlands, lying beyond the North Sea on the east of England, also belonged to him. He treated his subjects in this country very cruelly, driving them into rebellion. They asked Elizabeth to annex their country to her kingdom. This she refused to do, but she sent them help in men, money, and ships. Sir Philip Sidney, one of the English officers sent to the Netherlands, brave in war as he was famous in letters, wise in counsel, and chivalrous in manner, fell in one of the battles. As he lay dying, he asked for water to cool his parched lips. When it was brought he passed it on to a dying soldier, saying, "Thy need is greater than mine."

The persecutions in the Netherlands and the great massacre of the Huguenots or Protestants in France on St. Bartholomew's Day drove many people from their homes. Those from the Netherlands were woollen manufacturers, and those from France were silk-weavers. Many of them settled in England, where they greatly aided these industries.

Mary Queen of Scots executed.—For eighteen years Mary had been kept in prison. A plot was now formed in London to kill Elizabeth, and Mary was charged with encouraging the conspiracy. Letters written by her, or said to have been, approving of the plot, fell into the hands of Walsingham, Secretary of State. She was tried by a court of royal commissioners, condemned, and beheaded in Fotheringay Castle. The trial was not a very fair one. Mary had no one to plead for her, nor was she allowed to face the principal witnesses, her own secretaries, who testified against her. Queen Elizabeth seemed to be very unwilling to sign the warrant for the

execution, and afterwards, when it was too late, she tried to recall what she had done.

The Spanish Armada, 1588.—Philip the Second of Spain had long been nursing his wrath, and he now made ready a great fleet for the invasion of England. The fleet comprised one hundred and thirty-two ships, carrying eight thousand seamen, twenty thousand soldiers, and two thousand five hundred cannon. Philip called it "**The Invincible Armada,**" so sure was he that it could not be conquered.

All England was aroused. For once religious strife was



MEDAL STRUCK TO COMMEMORATE THE DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.

hushed, and plots ceased. All creeds and parties were united in the defense of country and home. England was not strong for war. The royal navy included but thirty-six ships, and these were small. But merchant vessels were turned into warships, merchants and mechanics into soldiers. Admiral Howard, himself a Roman Catholic, was placed in command of the fleet, and under him were Drake, Hawkins, and Fro-bisher.

When the Armada, arranged in crescent form, came into the channel, the English sailed out of Plymouth Harbor and

destroyed several of the enemy's ships. The Spanish ships were so high that their shot went over the heads of the English without doing any damage. Then, as they lay at anchor off Calais, Admiral Howard sent amongst them fire-ships filled with explosives. Panic-stricken, the Spaniards hastily scattered in all directions, while the English fell on them in their confusion and wrought great destruction. The Spaniards now betook themselves to flight, and made for home. On account of the wind they could not return by the way they came, but had to sail up the North Sea around Scotland. In these northern seas they fell in with storms, and Spanish wrecks and the bodies of Spaniards were strewn along the coast of the Orkneys, the Hebrides, and Ireland. Of all the Invincible Armada only fifty-three ships returned to Spain.

Ireland.—English rule in Ireland had never been very strong; in fact only a small district around Dublin was fairly under English power. The various clans, led by their chiefs, had continued to carry on their raids and petty wars against each other. During Elizabeth's reign the island was brought under more full control. The Earl of Essex, Elizabeth's special favorite in her old age, was sent to Ireland to put down a rebellion, but he mismanaged matters badly.

Essex was an impetuous, erratic young man, always getting into some difficulty. Knowing his weakness, the queen gave him a ring, and told him if he ever needed help to send it to her. Later, becoming offended with the queen, he began stirring up revolt in London, for which he was condemned and executed. Two years after, Elizabeth was sent for to visit the dying Countess of Nottingham. This lady then confessed that Essex had given her the ring to convey to the queen, but influenced by her husband, who disliked Essex, she had not done as he desired. Elizabeth was greatly vexed, and in her anger she is said to have shaken the dying woman, telling her that she could never forgive her.

India.—In the early times the Dutch were the greatest traders in the East Indies. Great Britain's Indian Empire had its origin in a charter granted by Queen Elizabeth in 1600 to the Company of London Merchants.

Last Days.—Elizabeth's last days were full of sadness. She felt a loneliness that nothing could alleviate. Objects that once pleased her lost their interest. Even that ruling passion with her, love of dress and finery, was gone. She was irritable and exacting, and her mind became enfeebled. She died in the seventieth year of her age, after a reign of forty-five years. Thus ended the period of the Tudors.

Literature.—The reign of Elizabeth was a golden age of English literature. Among the great authors were William Shakespeare, Edmund Spenser, Ben Jonson, Philip Sidney, Francis Bacon, Richard Hooker, and Christopher Marlowe.

SOCIAL CONDITION DURING THE TUDOR PERIOD.

THE Tudor sovereigns wielded **nearly absolute power**. They exercised such control over the election of the House of Commons that they usually had a majority submissive to their wishes. Those members who refused to do as the king desired were often thrust into prison. In one session Queen Elizabeth withheld her assent from forty-eight Bills. The Court of the Star Chamber was a ready tool for enforcing the king's will. This it did by imposing heavy fines, by imprisonment, maiming by cutting off ears or hands, or by other barbarous penalties.

Monopolies were granted by the sovereign, giving individuals the sole right to sell certain commodities in common use, as wine, starch, vinegar, saltpetre, and glass, and thus enabling them to charge exorbitant prices. Parliament protested so strongly against these monopolies that Queen Elizabeth cancelled many of those she had granted.

During this period **woollen manufactures** were becoming important. Large quantities of wool, however, were still exported. English wool was of superior quality. Laws were passed forbidding the export of live sheep, so that other people might not obtain the English breed.

The public roads were very bad. Wheeled vehicles were little used until near the end of Elizabeth's reign. Ladies rode

much on horseback, often in a sort of chair, called a pillion, placed on the horse behind a servant. The **sedan chair** was much used.

Men of wealth, like Cardinal Wolsey, the Earl of Leicester, and Burleigh, maintained large establishments with many attendants, who accompanied them wherever they went.

In the earlier part of the period dishes and spoons were made of wood, and were called **treen**—that is, made from a tree, or wooden. Later, metal dishes came into use, silver being used



HADDON HALL.

by the wealthy and pewter by the poor. Pins were brought first from France by Catherine Howard. They were very costly, and to purchase them men gave their wives a special allowance called "**pin money**." The farthingale was a sort of hooped skirt worn by ladies, introduced in Mary's reign. Plated ruffs, stiffened with starch, were much worn around the neck and wrists by both men and women in the reign of Elizabeth.

Among the favorite amusements was bear-baiting. The

animal was fastened in an enclosed yard and worried by dogs. Sunday afternoon was the usual time for this barbarous sport.

The manners of the period were very rough, and much coarse and vulgar language was used. It was common for ladies to swear, an accomplishment in which Queen Elizabeth was an adept.

The houses of the poor were made of wattles plastered with clay. The floors were covered with straw, which, being seldom removed, became a mass of filth, giving rise to pestilence.

Architecture was highly ornamented, as shown in the chapel of Henry the Seventh at Westminster. **Haddon Hall**, an ancient seat of the Earl of Rutland, first built in 1150, was altered from age to age according to the varying style. It is yet standing, but has been unoccupied for one hundred and fifty years.

THE STUART PERIOD.

1603-1714.

SOVEREIGNS.

James I., 1603-1625.

Charles I., 1625-1649.

(The Commonwealth, 1649-1660.)

Charles II., 1660-1685.

William and Mary II., 1689-1702.

James II., 1685-1688.

Anne, 1702-1714.

JAMES I.

1603-1625.

MARGARET, eldest daughter of Henry the Seventh, married James the Fourth of Scotland. A hundred years later, on the death of Queen Elizabeth, a special messenger rode on horseback all the way from London to Edinburgh to tell her great-grandson, James the Sixth of Scotland, that he was now King of England. Thus, at last, the crowns of the two kingdoms were peacefully united. Having promised his Scottish subjects that he would visit them once every three years, James set out for London. His journey from the one capital to the other occupied a month. On the route, as well as on his arrival in London, he was greeted with hearty welcome. On his part he was lavish in bestowing honours, creating over two hundred knights during the first six weeks of his reign.

Character.—James was not kingly in appearance or in manner. His legs were rickety, and owing to his thick tongue he could not speak distinctly. He had much natural ability, was well educated, was shrewd and witty. He wrote books on the divine right of kings, on the injurious effects of using tobacco, and on various other subjects. He was very vain, and fond of showing off his learning. He often made such silly use

of his knowledge that a French wit remarked, "King James is the wisest fool in Christendom." He was an arrant coward, and was in such dread of assassination that he always wore a shirt of mail. James loved flattery, and was thus easily influenced by favorites.

One King for two Kingdoms.—England and Scotland, though henceforth governed by the same sovereign, continued for another hundred years to be two distinct kingdoms, each having its own Parliament and laws.

Religion.—The three great religious bodies in England—Roman Catholics, Anglicans, and Puritans—each hoped for special favor from James. The Puritans were now numerous, outnumbering the other Protestants or Anglicans who used the Book of Common Prayer. Eight hundred of their ministers petitioned the king to make certain changes in religious matters. They disliked the government of the church by bishops, the wearing of the surplice and other usages in the church service.

James summoned a meeting of bishops at Hampton Court, to which he invited several leading Puritans to talk over their grievances. He wanted, however, to do all the talking himself, and he gave little heed to what they had to say, meeting all their objections with his favorite maxim, "**No bishop, no king.**" The Puritan divines were not convinced, and they showed that they did not intend to adopt the forms of the Prayer Book. James dismissed them with the resolve, "I will make them conform, or I will harry them out of the kingdom." Shortly after, ten Puritan ministers were imprisoned by order of the Star Chamber, and three hundred were driven out of their churches.

At first James was somewhat lenient towards Roman Catholics, and did not enforce the hard laws against them. This gave rise to much concern among Protestants, and it was rumored that the king himself was a Roman Catholic. There was some plotting for the purpose of removing James and placing another on the throne, but the scheme was soon discovered. Sir Walter Raleigh, charged with taking part in the plot, was imprisoned in the Tower.

Gunpowder Plot, November 5, 1605.—A more fearful con-

spiracy was now formed, known in history as "Gunpowder Plot." A few ill-advised Catholics, with Robert Catesby at their head, resolved on the destruction of the King, Lords, and Commons, by blowing up Parliament House with gunpowder when all had assembled at the opening of Parliament. They hired the cellar under the House of Lords, and stored in it thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which they carefully concealed. One of the conspirators, desiring to save the life of his friend, Lord Monteagle, wrote him to stay away from the opening, adding, "Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see who hurts them." The letter was shown to the king, who ordered the premises to be searched. A Spaniard named **Guy Fawkes** was seized in the act of making preparation for the work of destruction. Most of the conspirators were put to death. The anniversary of the Gunpowder Plot was long celebrated in England, and down to the present time officers go through the form of searching the building on the eve of the opening of Parliament.

Severe Measures.—More severe laws against Roman Catholics were now passed, and all had to suffer for the rash and criminal conduct of a few of their body. They were not allowed to be doctors or lawyers, nor were they allowed to live in the city of London. The law permitted any one to break into their houses and destroy their property.

A New Translation of the Bible, 1611.—The meeting at Hampton Court led to an arrangement for a new translation of the Bible. The king entrusted the work to fifty-four learned divines, who spent about seven years in bringing it to completion. The work was published in 1611, and was **the first Bible printed in** what are known as **Roman letters**, all previous translations being in old English characters. Known as "King James's Version," or "the Authorized Version," it is the one now in common use among Protestants.

Divine Right of Kings.—James held an absurd doctrine, called the "divine right of kings." This meant that the king derived his power from God alone, that he could make and unmake laws as he pleased, that he was above all law, and neither people nor Parliament should resist or even question

his public acts. Some of the clergy encouraged him in this foolish notion by preaching the duty of obeying the king in all matters, secular and religious.

Opposition of the Commons.—James found the House of Commons very troublesome. This body bravely withstood his claim of divine right, and refused to vote money for his use until he removed grievances and ceased to violate the law. He at last got into a way of trying to get on without Parliament. There was one period of seven years (1614–1621) when the members were not called together.

Illegal Acts.—James resorted to various illegal ways of getting money. He imposed duties on imported goods without consent of Parliament; he exacted benevolences from wealthy subjects, taxed the estates of young heirs who were his wards, took bribes from those who sought to marry heiresses, sold titles of various ranks, sold monopolies, and demanded purveyance when he travelled through the kingdom.

Favorites.—In the early part of his reign James's chief minister was **Robert Cecil**, Earl of Salisbury, son of Lord Burleigh. On the death of Cecil, James came under the influence of unworthy favorites. The first of these was Robert Carr, who was raised to the peerage as Duke of Somerset; but later, he being charged with foul crimes, was dismissed. Then the king took, as his adviser and bosom friend, George Villiers, whom he made Duke of Buckingham.

Francis Bacon.—One almost hesitates to tell the story of the fall of one of the greatest men of the reign, Francis Bacon, who held the office of Lord Chancellor, and was made a peer under the title of Baron Verulam. He was a distinguished scientist, and one of the most famous writers of the reign. Convicted of accepting presents from persons whose causes he was deciding, he fell into disgrace and was removed from office.

Sir Walter Raleigh.—Another sad tale is that of Sir Walter Raleigh. After eleven years of imprisonment on a charge of treason, during which he amused himself by writing a history of the world, he was sent to South America by the king to look for a gold mine. He failed to find any gold, but

he allowed his men to destroy a Spanish town on the Orinoco. To satisfy the King of Spain, whom James did not wish to offend, Sir Walter, on his return, was put to death on the old charge of treason.

Virginia.—During the reign of Elizabeth, Sir Walter Raleigh had tried to found the colony of Virginia, in America. The scheme was a failure, and the surviving colonists returned to England. Early in James's reign another settlement was formed here under the famous adventurer, Captain John Smith. The saving of Smith's life by Pocahontas, daughter of the Indian chief Powhatan, and the story of the girl's life afterwards, give a touch of romance to the history of the settlement.

Nova Scotia, 1605.—It was in the reign of James that the first French settlement in Nova Scotia, under De Monts, was made at Annapolis, and also the settlement at Quebec, under Champlain. It was James the First also who created the order of **Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia.**

The Pilgrim Fathers.—Owing to religious persecution, the Puritans found living in England very uncomfortable. A large company of them went to Holland, where they had liberty to worship as they pleased. After eleven years' sojourn there, fearing their children might intermarry with the Dutch, and thus lose their language and nationality, they resolved to go to America. They first returned to England, and then, in the autumn of 1620, they sailed from Plymouth in the *Mayflower*. These founders of New England were called "The Pilgrim Fathers."

Ireland.—During the reign of Elizabeth, the power of England was more fully established in Ireland. Early in the reign of James, through unwise measures, the people in the north of Ireland were incited to rebellion. The insurgents were soon put down, and their lands, comprising a large portion of Ulster, were taken from them and given to settlers from England and Scotland.

The Thirty Years' War.—James courted alliance with Spain. For this he had two special reasons. His daughter **Elizabeth** had married the German Prince Frederick of the

Rhine Province. Between this prince and Ferdinand of Austria there arose contention for the crown of Bohemia. During this contest, which led to the Thirty Years' War, Frederick not only failed to obtain Bohemia, but lost his territory on the Rhine. James wanted Philip's aid in behalf of his son-in-law, which he failed to obtain. The marriage of the Princess Elizabeth and Prince Frederick, however, was a matter of much importance. Their grandson, a hundred years later, sat on the English throne as **George the First**.

Prince Charles and the Infanta.—James also desired to bring about a marriage between his eldest son Henry and the Infanta—that is, the eldest daughter of the Spanish king. Prince Henry died, and then James wanted his second son to marry the princess. To urge on the suit, **Charles**, accompanied by Buckingham, **visited the Spanish court**. Here he remained for several months, failing to obtain a private interview with the princess. Finally, climbing to the top of a high wall and jumping down into the garden where she was, he nearly frightened the young lady out of her wits. The Spaniards wanted Charles to become a Roman Catholic, which he was not disposed to do. The scheme fell through, and Charles married Henrietta of France instead.

CHARLES I.

1625-1649.

Character.—Charles the First was handsome, dignified in manner, scholarly, and of cultured taste. He resembled his father, however, in his ideas of the divine right that belonged to a king. His illegal acts, his obstinacy, and his utter disregard of the promises that he made, caused him a world of trouble, and in the end cost him his life. His wife, Henrietta of France, by her foolish counsel, led him into many difficulties. His other chief adviser in the early part of his reign was **Buckingham**, who had been his father's favorite minister.

Ways of getting Money.—Parliament, the majority of

which were Puritans, gave him a small grant of money for carrying on war with Spain, and asked for an account of its expenditure. Angry over the scanty war supply, and because of an attack made on Buckingham, Charles dismissed Parliament. He then proceeded to raise money by illegal ways. Among these methods was that of **tonnage** and **poundage**—a duty on every ton of wine and on every pound of certain other kinds of merchandise brought into the country. Another of his taxes was **ship-money**. In earlier times port towns had been required to furnish and equip vessels for defense of the coast in time of war. Charles imposed this tax in time of peace, and on towns of the interior, as well as on those of the maritime districts. He also compelled people to give free board to his soldiers.

Buckingham killed.—The King of France was at this time carrying on war against his Protestant subjects, who were called Huguenots. A quarrel between Buckingham and Cardinal Richelieu, the French king's minister, led to an expedition under Buckingham in aid of the Huguenots. The enterprise was a disastrous failure. While Buckingham was getting ready to sail from Portsmouth on a second expedition, he was fatally stabbed by an officer named Felton, whom he had dismissed from the service.

Petition of Rights, 1628.—Charles's need of money forced him to call a new Parliament. Before making any grant, the House of Commons passed the famous Petition of Rights, which forbade the king to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament, to keep any one in prison without regular trial, or to billet soldiers in private houses. Having given his assent to the Bill, Charles received a grant of £400,000; but he soon showed that he had little intention of keeping his promise.

Members of the Commons imprisoned.—As the House of Commons was about to pass measures that the king disliked, he ordered an adjournment. Indignant at this interference with their freedom, some of the members forcibly held the Speaker in the chair until the business was completed. Charles immediately dissolved Parliament, nor did he call another for eleven years. He also imprisoned nine of the leading members,

one of whom, Sir John Eliot, died in prison after three years' confinement.

The King's Advisers.—The king's chief advisers now were **Archbishop Laud** and **Thomas Wentworth**. Laud had the oversight of religious matters, in the management of which he showed bitter hatred of Puritans and Presbyterians. Wentworth had taken an active part, as member of the House of Commons, in passing the Petition of Rights; but on the death of Buckingham he went over to the king's party, and soon became the favorite minister.

Persecution.—By means of the Star Chamber and the Court of High Commission, the clergy who would not use the established forms of worship were fined, imprisoned, or otherwise punished. A Puritan minister, Dr. Leighton, who preached against ruling the church by bishops, had his ears cut off. A lawyer named Prynne, for speaking against theatres, was punished in the same way; and for a second offense the stumps of his ears were sheared more closely. The strict observance of the Sabbath was distasteful to the king's party. The clergy were ordered to read notices from the pulpit inviting the people to spend Sunday afternoon in amusements, as provided by the "Book of Sports" issued by James the First. One London clergyman read the notice, and then the Fourth Commandment, and told his people they could take their choice.

Scotland.—King Charles and Laud tried to force their forms of worship on the people of Scotland. The introduction of the Prayer Book into St. Giles's Church, Edinburgh, created a sensation. While the minister was reading, an old woman named **Jenny Geddes** hurled her stool at his head, crying out, "Traitor, do you say Mass at my lug?"

All Scotland was aroused. A document called **The National Covenant** was drawn up, pledging the people to hold by their religion. It was signed by thousands in Greyfriars' Churchyard in Edinburgh, and then carried throughout the kingdom for signature. Some persons opened their veins and **wrote their names with their blood**. The attempt to force Anglican forms of worship on the Scots had to be given up.

John Hampden.—Charles's right to levy taxes was disputed in England. Ship-money was specially offensive. John Hampden, a prominent Puritan, refused to pay this tax. The courts compelled payment, yet Hampden's bold stand had a wide influence throughout the land.

Ireland.—Sir Thomas Wentworth was sent to Ireland as lord-deputy, where he ruled with absolute power. By means of a small army he enforced order, but it was by setting all law at defiance. He introduced some good measures, however,



ST. GILES'S CHURCH, EDINBURGH.

and encouraged the raising of flax and the manufacture of linen.

The Short Parliament, 1640.—In his difficulties Charles recalled Wentworth from Ireland, and made him **Earl of Strafford**. Acting on this minister's advice, he summoned a Parliament, the first for eleven years. On being asked for aid to subdue the unruly Scots the members shook their heads. Instead, they demanded redress of grievances. Very angry over this refusal, Charles dissolved the House, and tried

to borrow money from foreign countries to help him to fight his subjects. Here, too, he failed.

The Long Parliament, 1640-1660.—Charles now summoned his last Parliament, the famous body called the Long Parliament. Among its prominent members were **John Pym, John Hampden, and Oliver Cromwell**. One of its first measures was the passing of a Bill of Attainder against Strafford. This was a mode of dealing with crimes not covered by written law. Among the charges brought against Strafford was that of advising the king to bring over an army from Ireland for the subjugation of his English subjects. Strafford was condemned to die. Charles had assured him, on the word of a king, that no harm should come to him; but after a little hesitation, he signed the warrant for his execution. As Strafford's head fell from the block, a great shout of joy rent the air. Church bells rang and bonfires blazed, so great was the rejoicing over the death of the man who had trampled on the freedom of the people. At the same time, Archbishop Laud was sent to the Tower, where he was kept for three years, when he too was beheaded.

Reform.—Parliament then abolished the courts of the Star Chamber and High Commission, and other instruments of tyranny. An Act was passed providing that Parliament should meet at least once in three years, and that the one then in session should be dissolved only with its own consent. To these measures Charles assented, though all the while he was planning counter-movements. Soon after, he went to Scotland, where he courted the favor of the Presbyterians, attended their worship, and bestowed honors on their leaders.

Ireland.—Meanwhile Ireland, freed from Strafford's iron rule, rushed into wild rebellion and outrage. English settlers were massacred by the thousands, and all sorts of crime went on unchecked.

The Grand Remonstrance, 1641.—Parliament proceeded with its work of reform by passing the Grand Remonstrance, containing a long list of grievances and charges against Charles's government. One of its demands—that the king's advisers

should have the confidence of the Commons—is the foundation principle of government as we have it to-day.

The discussion on this bill was one of the great occasions in English parliamentary history. The two parties were almost evenly divided. The debate, continuing until midnight, was accompanied by wild shoutings, waving of hats, and brandishing of swords. More violent scenes were averted by the quieting influence of John Hampden.

A Scene in the Commons.—Charles thought he might end the movement by striking down its leaders. Urged on by Queen Henrietta, who called him a coward, and told him never to see her again if he did not “pull out the rogues by the ears,” he ordered the House to give up five of its boldest members, including Pym and Hampden. Next day, as his demand had not been complied with, having stationed a guard outside, Charles entered the House. “I am come,” he said, “to know if these accused persons are still here. I must have them. Is Mr. Pym here?” The Speaker replied, “I have no eyes to see but as this House directs me.” “Well, well,” said the angry king, “I think my eyes are as good as another’s. I see the birds have flown.” This was true, for, informed that the king was coming, the members had sought a hiding-place.

Terms of Peace rejected.—Some effort was made for peace. Among the conditions named by Parliament was the exclusion of the bishops from the House of Lords. To this the king consented. To the demand that he give up control of the army he replied, “Not for an hour.”

Preparation for War.—The whole kingdom, divided into two great parties, was now in a ferment. The king’s supporters, comprising a large part of the nobility and gentry, were called **Cavaliers**; those of the Parliament **Round-heads**, a name given because some of the party, differing from the common custom of the age, wore their hair cut close. The Royalists in Parliament, finding themselves in a minority, withdrew, and a little later formed a rival Parliament at Oxford, with Charles as its head.

Both parties prepared for war. There being at this time no regular army in England, the fighting force consisted of

militia. Parliament, having the support of the common people, soon had plenty of funds. Women even gave their wedding rings in aid of the cause. The king was much embarrassed for lack of men and money. His men, however, were superior in point of training to those of the Parliament. Queen Henrietta fled to the Continent, taking with her the crown jewels, which she sold to obtain funds.

Battle of Edge Hill, 1642.—With public humiliation and prayer, the Commons entered upon the war against the king "as a most mournful necessity." London was the centre of Parliamentary power. The first battle, fought at Edge Hill, ended in some advantage to the Royalists. Through the winter also the king's party prevailed. Bristol was taken by the king's nephew, Prince Rupert, and Oxford was made the royal headquarters. The supporters of Parliament, depressed by their reverses, were still further weakened by the death of two leaders, Pym and Hampden, the latter having received fatal wounds in battle.

The Solemn League and Covenant, 1643.—Thus for two years and a half fortune frowned on the Roundheads. In their straits they sought aid from the Scots. A treaty, called the Solemn League and Covenant, was now entered into between the English Parliament and Scotland, by which it was agreed that the Presbyterian religion should be established in England, and a Scottish army should be sent to the aid of Parliament against the king. At the same time, under the authority of the English Parliament, an **Assembly of Clergymen**, most of whom were Presbyterians, met at **Westminster** in London, and drew up the famous document called **The Westminster Confession of Faith** and the Catechisms which are still used by Presbyterians. **The Book of Common Prayer** was set aside, and a new form of worship was adopted, to which all were required to conform.

Irish Troops.—While the Scottish army was in England a body of Irish troops, brought over by Montrose, made fearful slaughter in Scotland. Later, some of the Scots returned, defeated Montrose, and took revenge by putting every prisoner to death.



Cromwell's Ironsides.—Oliver Cromwell was a colonel in the Parliamentary army. Seeing that the untrained Roundheads were not able to cope with the king's Cavaliers, he selected for his regiment men of deep religious tone, whom he placed under thorough drill and discipline. There was no drinking, swearing, or gambling, but much prayer and psalm-singing. His officers were chosen for their ability, and not on

account of their birth. The regiment soon became distinguished, and was known as "**Cromwell's Ironsides.**"

The Battle of Marston Moor, 1645.—The Ironsides soon made their power felt in the great battle of Marston Moor, in which the Roundheads and the Scots gained an important victory over the king's force under Prince Rupert. A serious offset to this victory was the defeat of Essex and the loss of a large part of his army in Cornwall.

The Independents.—Meanwhile a new religious party, called the **Independents**, had gained ascendancy in the army. They were more tolerant of other religions than were most people of this period, but they wanted a republican form of government. Parliament, made up largely of Presbyterians, viewed their rising power with alarm. They might be even more troublesome than King Charles. Some effort was made to bring about peace with the king; but, hoping much for dissension among his enemies, he refused the terms offered.

The Self-denying Ordinance.—Cromwell saw that the war against the king was not pushed with vigor, and that the slackness was due to the officers, many of whom, including Essex, the chief in command, were members of Parliament. Accordingly, he secured the adoption of a measure, called the **Self-Denying Ordinance**, by which officers holding seats in Parliament were required to resign their command. Essex was thus removed from the army, and **Sir Thomas Fairfax** was appointed in his place. **Cromwell** also would have been excluded by the Ordinance; but he was too good an officer to be set aside, and was given second position as **Lieutenant-General**. The reorganized army was called **The New Model**.

The Battle of Naseby, 1645.—Then followed the decisive battle of the war at Naseby, in which the Royalist forces under Prince Rupert were utterly routed. The king's private papers, which fell into the hands of the victors, revealed his utter duplicity, showing that his most solemn promises had been made with little intention of keeping them. Charles fled to Wales, where he had many supporters. He held out for a few months, but seeing that his position was hopeless, he gave himself up to the Scottish army.

Terms of Reconciliation rejected.—Charles's subjects had made war against him, but they were still willing to have him for their king. Parliament offered him allegiance on certain terms, the chief of which were the establishment of the Presbyterian religion and the surrender of the militia for twenty years. The Scots urged him to accept, but he firmly refused.

The Scottish soldiers had been in the service of the English Parliament, and there was now due them the sum of £400,000. On receiving this they gave over the king to Parliament, and withdrew across the border.

Disagreement.—The conquerors of the king had been told by an old royalist that, having done their work, if they did not quarrel with one another, they could go and play. But they did quarrel. They could not agree as to the sort of government they would have. Parliament, with its Presbyterian majority, wanted a monarchy based on its own religious type; a portion of the army, which was largely Independent, wanted a monarchy with more freedom for the different religions, except for Roman Catholicism, for which even they had little toleration; another portion preferred a republic.

Parliament said that, now the war was ended, the army should be disbanded. But the army would not disband—at least until freedom of worship was secured, and the soldiers had got their pay, of which large arrears were still due. Moreover, the army said that Parliament should now dissolve and allow men to be elected who would more fitly represent the people. Meanwhile, Charles, interested in the dissension, thought to play his game by setting one party against the others.

The King changes Hands.—In the *mêlée* the king was the prize. Parliament had placed him under guard in Holmby House, Northamptonshire. Shortly after, by Cromwell's orders, he was seized and brought to Hampton Court. The army leaders now tried their hand at treating with the vanquished king. But Charles would yield nothing. Then, seizing an opportunity, he fled to the Isle of Wight, hoping to

find his way to France. Instead, falling into his enemies' hands, he found himself in Carisbrooke Castle, still the army's prisoner.

A Reaction.—While treating with the different parties among his English subjects, Charles was secretly bargaining with the Scots, who were becoming alarmed over the rising power of the Independents. A reaction set in for the king. There were risings on his behalf in Wales, Essex, and Kent, and a Scottish army under the Duke of Hamilton, sent to their



HOLMBY HOUSE.

aid, crossed the border. A large part of the fleet, which had stood unbroken for the Parliament, now changed sides. The war had to be fought over again.

The Second Civil War, 1648.—The contest was short and sharp. Leaving Fairfax to deal with the English Royalists, Cromwell, having subdued Wales, **marched against the Scots**, whom he utterly defeated at Preston, taking ten thousand prisoners, including their leader. Fairfax also was victorious. Hamilton and other leaders were put to death.

The king was still a prisoner on the Isle of Wight. Par-

liament once more tried to make terms with him, but the army leaders had seen enough of his duplicity. Indeed, at a prayer meeting held on the eve of setting out to put down the recent insurrection, they had vowed, if ever they returned in peace, to bring to the bar of justice Charles Stuart, whom they regarded as the source of all the mischief that had befallen the nation. To prepare the way for this step it was now resolved to rid the Commons of its Presbyterian members.

Pride's Purge, 1648.—Under orders from Cromwell, Colonel Pride, posting himself at the door of Parliament House with a military force, turned away the Presbyterian members, to the number of one hundred and forty-three. This act was called Pride's Purge.

Trial and Execution of Charles, 1649.—With little delay the remnant of the House of Commons, called "The Rump," consisting of Independents, proceeded to appoint a High Court of Justice for the trial of the king. More than half of those appointed refused to act. With the dignity becoming a king, Charles refused to plead before this mock court. None the less the trial went on. A lawyer named Bradshaw was the president. Charles was condemned to die as a tyrant and traitor, and three days later he was brought to the scaffold erected in front of Whitehall Palace. The executioner, lifting his head before the multitude of spectators, called out, "Behold the head of a traitor."

THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE PROTECTORATE.

1649-1660.

The Commonwealth organized.—Colonel Pride's remnant of the Long Parliament resolved that England should be a commonwealth or republic, ruled by the Commons alone without King or Lords. Truly the government bore little resemblance to a republic. The House of Commons, comprising about one hundred members, a fragment of a Parlia-

ment elected ten years before, and largely controlled by the army, could not claim to represent the people. It appointed a council of state as an executive, consisting of forty-one members, chosen mainly from the Commons and the army.

The Commonwealth in ill odor.—Horror-stricken at the killing of King Charles, the governments of Europe for some time would have nothing to do with England, and dismissed its ministers from their courts. Nor was the new government in very high esteem at home. Half of the judges resigned

their seats on the bench rather than acknowledge its lawfulness. Both Scotland and Ireland resisted its authority, and wanted the late king's son Charles to be king.

The Rump.—Cromwell and the army thought the Rump should be dissolved, and allow a new Parliament to be elected. But this body, while talking about dissolving, had little intention of doing so. One of its members, Henry Martyn, humorously comparing the existing government to the infant Moses, said that the



best nurse for the new-born babe was its own mother.

Ireland.—For some time Ireland had been a scene of violence and bloodshed. The native Irish were having a free hand in rooting out the English colonists. The Marquis of Ormond, the leader of Charles's party, held all the strongholds except Dublin, Derry, and Belfast. Cromwell was sent over with an army to bring the island into subjection. To all who were disposed to be peaceable he offered protection; those who resisted his authority he quelled with terrible slaughter. Drogheda, Wexford, and Clonmel, refusing to

surrender, were taken by force, and the garrisons were slain without mercy.

The Curse of Cromwell.—Irish landowners were driven off their estates, and their lands were divided amongst Cromwell's soldiers as a reward for their service. Some of the Irish people were driven into the western province of Connaught, and some were banished to the West Indies for servitude little better than slavery. Many of the young men went to the continent of Europe, where they enlisted as soldiers in the service of different countries. Such was "the Curse of Cromwell" which Irishmen were accustomed to invoke on their foes.

Scotland.—The Scots had little love for the Independents or for their rule. They offered to take Prince Charles for their king if he would become a Presbyterian and sign the Covenant. He desired the throne, but he had no liking for the terms on which it was offered. He first sent the Marquis of Montrose to Scotland, hoping that he might be able to raise an army that would secure the throne for him in spite of the Covenanters. Montrose was defeated, taken prisoner, and hanged. Then Charles, disclaiming all connection with the schemes of Montrose, came to Scotland. He made a wry face, accepted the distasteful Covenant, and with much mental reservation said he was a Presbyterian.

Battle of Dunbar, September 3, 1650.—Cromwell hastened to Scotland with an army of fifteen thousand men. Crossing the Tweed, he found himself in a district laid waste and destitute of food supply. Here he was hemmed in between the sea and a Scottish force superior to his own under David Leslie, and having the advantage of position on high grounds. To his surprise and delight, however, when his men were nearly starved, he saw the Scots descending to the plain and offering battle. **Cromwell's victory was complete.** Three thousand Scots were slain, ten thousand were taken prisoners, and all their baggage and guns were captured. Shortly after, **Edinburgh and Glasgow** fell into his hands.

Battle of Worcester, September 3, 1651.—On the following New Year's Day **Charles was crowned at Scone.** Then.

while Cromwell was completing the conquest of Scotland, the Scots, with their newly-made king, pushed forward into England. Cromwell, hastening in pursuit, overtook the invaders at Worcester. Here, on the anniversary of Dunbar, he gained another great victory, which he called his "**crowning mercy.**"

Charles's Escape.—Charles, accompanied by Colonel Careless, lurked around for some days, hiding in the woods, in barns, and other places. At one time Cromwell's soldiers, searching for him, passed under an oak tree, amid the branches of which he was concealed. Though a thousand pounds reward was offered for his capture, and it was accounted treason to give him aid, Charles found true friends. Finally, disguised as the servant of a lady travelling on horseback, he made his way to the coast, and escaped to France.

War with Holland.—Holland was at this time the great rival of England as a maritime power. She gave offense also to England by affording asylum to Royalist refugees. Bad feeling at length resulted in war. The Dutch **Admiral Tromp defeated Admiral Blake** of the English navy, and then, making a boastful show of his power to sweep the English navy from the sea, he sailed through the English Channel with a broom tied to the masthead. He failed, however, to sweep the seas clear of English ships, for not very long after **he was defeated by Blake** off the coast of Portland.

Cromwell expels the Rump.—Four years had passed since the execution of Charles the First. During this period the fragment of a Parliament left by Pride, once so ready to do Cromwell's bidding, had become so offensive to him that he resolved on its dismissal. Placing three hundred soldiers at the door of the House, he entered and took his seat. After a little he rose, full of passion, and cried out, "The Lord has done with you. Get you gone and give place to better men." Addressing Sir Harry Vane, he said, "It is you that have forced me to do this. I have sought the Lord night and day that He would rather slay me than put me upon the doing of this work!" Then stamping on the floor, he called in his soldiers, turned out the members, and locked the door.

Beginning of the Protectorate.—Cromwell and his

officers, now supreme, called a convention, the members of which were nominated by various Independent ministers. This body was not a Parliament, as it was not elected by the people, but it was nicknamed **Barebone's Parliament**, after one of its members who bore the odd name Praise-God Barebone. For a short time this convention worked in business fashion to bring about reform in the various departments of the public service, but in the end it proved disappointing. Very soon, however, it dissolved, and left Cromwell free again.

England, Scotland, and Ireland united.—Cromwell and his council of officers drew up a new scheme of government, uniting England, Scotland, and Ireland under one Parliament. Roman Catholics, and those who had fought for King Charles, called "malignants," were not allowed to vote. Parliament was to meet at least once in three years. Cromwell, under the title of Lord Protector, was given royal power for life. Soon, however, he and his Parliament quarrelled, and by military force he excluded all members who refused to acknowledge his authority. Shortly after he dissolved this House, nor did he call another for nearly two years.

Foreign Policy.—Cromwell made **the name of England respected abroad**. He took Nova Scotia from France, and the island of Jamaica from Spain. By strong protest he saved the Waldenses in the south of France from persecution. He aided France in a war against Spain, for which he was rewarded by the gift of Dunkirk, a fortress on the north-east coast of France. On the conclusion of the war with Holland he insisted that Prince Charles should be expelled from that country. During his reign the naval power of England rose to high rank. Admiral Blake was one of the most noted of England's warriors.

Cromwell's second Parliament.—At the beginning of his second Parliament, Cromwell excluded one-fourth of the members for disloyalty to himself. This House asked him to take the title of King, but fearing that he would give offense to the army he refused. He now added a House of Lords to his Parliament. Most of the old Peers declined to take their seats, and the new ones that he created failed to secure respect

from the Commons. Finding this Parliament as unmanageable as the former one, he dissolved it, and during the remainder of his life he ruled alone.

Religion and Morals.—For the period in which he lived Cromwell was broad in his religion. To his state church he readily admitted Presbyterians, Baptists, and Independents. Even Episcopalians were not disturbed if they abstained from the use of the Prayer Book, and promised loyalty to the government. Roman Catholics were not so highly favored; yet there was little active persecution. It was at this time that **The Society of Friends or Quakers** was established by **George Fox**. Public amusements were closely restricted. Horse-racing, cock-fighting, dancing round the Maypole, and theatres were forbidden. **The Jews**, who had been shut out of England since the time of Edward the First, were **allowed to return**.

Cromwell's last Days.—Cromwell's government was as despotic as that of the Stuarts, but it was far more just. He probably would have liked to give more freedom, but he had many foes to hold in check. His last days were full of trouble. Plots were formed against his life. A book, entitled "**Killing no Murder**," taught that the taking of his life would be a public benefit. To protect himself he wore a shirt of mail under his clothes, and carried pistols. Conspirators were encouraged by Prince Charles after he fled to France. One of them, falling into Cromwell's hands, pleaded that he had not seen Charles in France. "You speak the truth," said Cromwell, "for your interview with him was in the dark."

Cromwell's Death.—Cromwell escaped the chances of war and the plots of assassins, to be worn out in middle life with the cares and anxieties of governing a restless people. His end was hastened by grief for the death of a favorite daughter. He died on September 3, 1658, the anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester.

Character.—For several generations the name of Oliver Cromwell was detested. By some people he was regarded as the murderer of a martyr king; by others as an apostate, who, to secure his own glory, deserted the republicans. In

later times he is held to have been one of England's greatest rulers—as an enthusiast, perhaps a fanatic, but an honest, God-fearing man. He was needed for his times. We may agree with the saying, "It was well for the English people that they had one Oliver Cromwell, and that they had but one."

Noted Men.—Among the famous men of the time was the poet **John Milton**, who was Cromwell's Foreign Secretary. Other men of distinction were John Dryden, **John Bunyan**, Jeremy Taylor, and Sir Matthew Hale.

Richard Cromwell.—Cromwell's eldest son, Richard, was quietly accepted by the nation as the successor of his father in the office of Protector. He was also recognized abroad as the chief ruler of England. He was a good-natured, modest man, without either fitness or ambition for governing a nation. He was not a soldier, and the army soon became dissatisfied with a ruler destitute of the power of command. After a troubled reign of five months he retired into private life. He died in 1712, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

Anarchy.—Affairs were now managed by the officers of the army; but as there was among them no strong leader, anarchy and violence held sway. Some of the people clamored for the restoration of the monarchy, others wanted a republic.

General Monk.—At this crisis a new force came into play. General Monk, who had been placed by Cromwell at the head of affairs in Scotland, marched with an army of veterans to London, and quietly took command. He called together such as were living of the members of the Long Parliament, elected in 1640. This body, after some deliberation, agreed to dissolve. Monk then called for a Convention to be elected by the free choice of the people. A majority of the members of this assembly favored recalling Prince Charles, who was then in Holland, and a fleet was sent to convey him to England.

CHARLES II.

1660-1685.

Charles made welcome.—Charles's journey from Dover, where he landed, to London was one unbroken ovation. The people were tired of military rule, and they thought that now they would have peace and freedom. The very name of king had for them a sort of charm. In the crowd that thronged the streets through which Charles passed were many sick people, who sought the touch of his hand as a remedy for their maladies.

Charles's Character.—Charles was called the "Merry Monarch." He took matters easily, and gave himself up to pleasures, some of which were low and immoral. He was heartless, selfish, and sensual. Worthless characters, men and women, stood high in his favor. He was wholly false and unreliable. While at heart a Roman Catholic, he, all his life, until he came to die, professed to be a Protestant. He was humorous and witty. Even on his deathbed he could not restrain his pleasantry, but apologized to the waiting courtiers for being so long in dying. It was said that on one occasion, when Charles's life seemed to be in danger, and his brother James offered him the protection of his own guard, Charles replied, "Don't be afraid, brother; nobody will kill me to make you king."

Some one playfully wrote these lines as an imaginary epitaph for King Charles :—

" Here lies our sovereign lord the king :
His word no man relied on ;
He never said a foolish thing,
He never did a wise one."

"This is all true," said Charles. "My words are my own, my acts are my ministers'."

The Declaration of Breda.—Before leaving Holland Charles issued a declaration, **promising a general pardon** to all, except such persons as should be excepted by Parliament, and also that no one should be disquieted for any religious opinions that did not disturb the public peace.

Early Acts.—Cromwell's army was at once disbanded, with the exception of about five thousand, retained as a guard. The Restoration brought vengeance upon the "regicides," or king-murderers, as those who had taken part in the trial and execution of Charles the First were called. Thirteen of them were hanged, some were imprisoned, and some fled out of the country. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were torn from their graves and hanged, and their heads were placed on the top of Westminster Hall. "The judgment of Heaven was upon these men; almost all of them came to violent ends," remarked a Royalist. "So did almost all the apostles," was the Puritan's reply.

The Cavalier Parliament, 1661-1679.—Early in the year following his accession, Charles called a Parliament. It was composed largely of persons who had been friendly to Charles the First, and was called **the Cavalier Parliament**. It continued through the long period of nearly eighteen years. It was intensely royalist, and took no steps to guard the kingdom against the abuse of power by the king. It granted Charles for life the immense income of £1,200,000.

Religious Affairs.—The Episcopal religion, with its bishops and Prayer Book was again established. Notwithstanding the promise of religious freedom, there was bitter persecution. An Act of Uniformity was passed by Parliament, requiring all ministers and teachers to accept the Anglican doctrines and form of worship. Fourteen hundred ministers refused, and were turned out of their churches and homes. More severe measures followed. **Open-air meetings** of Dissenters were **forbidden**, as were also meetings in private houses of more than five persons in addition to members of the family. The ejected ministers were not allowed to come within five miles of the place where they formerly had charge. This persecution differed from that of Charles the First in being made legal by Act of Parliament.

The Corporation Act, passed in 1661, required all officers of incorporated towns to take an oath acknowledging the king's supremacy, and to sign a declaration against the Solemn League and Covenant. It also excluded from such offices

all persons who had not, within a year, partaken of the Lord's Supper according to the usage of the Anglican Church.

John Bunyan.—For violation of these laws many Dissenters were thrust into prison. For thirteen years John Bunyan was kept in Bedford jail, where he wrote the famous book "The Pilgrim's Progress."

John Milton.—The poet John Milton also was sent to prison for a short time. The wonder is that he was let off so easily. It was during these dark days of his life, when he was totally blind, that this great man enriched the English language with that wondrous burst of song, "Paradise Lost."

The Quakers.—The Quakers, too, had their full share of persecution. Their patron, **William Penn**, in order to make a home for his people, obtained from Charles a grant of territory in America, to which the name Pennsylvania was given.

A Loose Age.—Many restrictions imposed by the Puritans during the period of the commonwealth were removed, and in the reaction from one extreme the people rushed into the other.

The King's Advisers.—During the early part of his reign, Charles's chief adviser was Edward Hyde, who became Earl of Clarendon. He by-and-by gave offense to his royal master by opposing his scheme of granting to all religious freedom. In that age, when a minister lost favor, he was liable to lose his head for high crimes of which perhaps he was not guilty. Clarendon saved himself by fleeing out of the country. The king's advisers now were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale, usually called **the Cabal**, a word spelled by the initial letters of their names.

The Great Plague, 1665.—During this reign a fearful plague visited London, and swept off one hundred thousand inhabitants. The people became panic-stricken, and were afraid to enter each other's houses, or even to meet on the streets. Carts went around at night to gather up the dead, preceded by a crier who called aloud, "**Bring out your dead.**" One great cause for such pestilence was **lack of cleanliness**. The streets of London were then very narrow. The upper

stories of the houses projected, nearly meeting from the opposite sides, shutting out light and pure air.

The Fire in London, 1666.—In the year following the Great Plague a terrible fire swept away a large part of London. For three days the fire raged, consuming thirteen thousand dwellings and eighty-nine churches. While it left many people poor and homeless, in the end it did good by burning up filthy houses, the breeding-places of pestilence.

A Hostile Fleet in the Thames, 1667.—The English and the Dutch were the greatest commercial peoples of this period. The keen rivalry of their traders in far-off India and Africa finally led to war between the two nations. In the early part of the conflict the English captured the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, and named it New York. Later, England met with naval reverses nearer home. Money voted for defense Charles had spent on his pleasures, and the navy was left in a weak condition. The Dutch fleet sailed up the Thames, destroyed Sheerness, and burned eight warships that lay at anchor.

The Triple Alliance.—Louis the Fourteenth of France was one of the most powerful and ambitious sovereigns of this time. He was regarded as a source of danger by several other states of Europe. To thwart his schemes, a combination called the Triple Alliance was formed by England, Holland, and Sweden. But Charles's heart was not with his allies, and soon by intrigue and bribery Louis enticed him to enter into a secret compact with himself, known as the Treaty of Dover. Charles agreed to aid Louis against Holland and Spain, and in return he was to receive from the King of France a large sum of money and assistance in establishing the Roman Catholic religion in England. The last part of the scheme was not carried out.

Declaration of Indulgence, 1672.—The withholding of religious liberty was more the fault of the Cavalier Parliament than of the king. Charles issued a Declaration of Indulgence, granting freedom of worship to Roman Catholics and Dissenters. Parliament, however, insisted that the king had no right to interfere with the operation of its laws, and protested

so strongly that Charles was obliged to recall the Indulgence. It was generally believed that his chief object was to favor the Roman Catholics.

The Test Act, 1673.—Parliament now determined to exclude Roman Catholics and Dissenters from all positions of trust. For this purpose it passed the Test Act, which required officers of the army and navy, and persons holding positions under the government, to take an oath against transubstantiation, and to receive the sacraments according to the forms of the Anglican Church. This Act, by excluding its Roman Catholic members, broke up the Cabal, and also forced the king's brother James to resign his command of the fleet.

Scotland.—The Anglican Church had been established in Scotland also, and, as in England, all ministers who would not conform were driven from their churches and forbidden to preach. The Presbyterian Covenanters held their meetings, which were called **conventicles**, in the mountain glens. A troop of dragoons under Graham of Claverhouse was sent to hunt them out, and with fearful brutality was the work done. While the worship was going on, sentinels were posted on the hills to give the alarm on the approach of the soldiers. Sometimes the Covenanters carried their swords as well as their Bibles to the conventicle, prepared to fight as well as to worship. At **Drumclog** they defeated the king's troops, but shortly after, at **Bothwell Bridge**, they suffered terrible slaughter. Many of these Scottish Presbyterians were tortured and put to death, and many were banished to the West Indies.

The Habeas Corpus Act, 1679.—One of the most important Acts of Parliament passed in this reign, or of any time in British history, is that known as **The Habeas Corpus Act**. It was not unusual for sovereigns to detain in prison for long periods subjects whom they disliked, but against whom no crime could be proved. This Act provides that no subject shall be kept in prison beyond a certain time without trial and sentence by a legal court of justice.

The Succession.—Towards the close of Charles's reign there arose a question in regard to his successor on the throne. He had no children who could lawfully succeed him. The

nearest heir was his brother James, Duke of York, who was a Roman Catholic, on account of which there was strong feeling against him. James had two daughters, Mary and Anne, both Protestants and married to Protestants—the one to William, Prince of Orange, the other to Prince George of Denmark. The next heir after these daughters of James was this Prince William of Orange, who was a grandson of Charles the First. Many persons who did not desire James for king thought it advisable to submit to it for the short time he would be likely to survive his brother King Charles. Some wished to place his daughter Mary on the throne. Others again wanted the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles, who had no legal claim to the crown.

A false Alarm.—A shameful persecution of Roman Catholics was brought about by a story made up by one Titus Oates. This man testified that the Roman Catholics had formed a plot to kill the king, put James in his place, and then massacre the Protestants of London. On these false charges several Roman Catholics were put to death.

The Exclusion Bill, 1679.—Public feeling over the succession ran high. During the agitation there came into two names to distinguish the two great political parties of the kingdom. The supporters of James were called **Tories**, those who were opposed to him **Whigs**. The terms were first used as names of reproach, but later they lost their offensive character. A Tory was one who upheld the existing order of things, a Whig one who worked for change and reform. An Exclusion Bill, cutting off James from the succession, passed the House of Commons. It failed to pass, however, in the Lords, and so came to nothing.

The Rye House Plot.—After the failure of the Exclusion Bill, a few of the extreme Whigs formed a plot to murder the king and the Duke of York, and place Monmouth on the throne. From the name of the place where the assassination was to take place, the conspiracy was called the Rye House Plot. It was discovered before the time fixed for its execution, and several of those concerned in it paid the penalty with their lives.

Charles's Death.—In his last illness Charles sent for a Roman Catholic priest, from whom he received the last rites of the Church of Rome. He was but fifty-five years of age when he died, but he was worn out with dissipation.

JAMES II.

1685-1688.

Character.—The Duke of York was crowned king with the title of James the Second. Although a Roman Catholic, he promised to uphold the Church of England as then established, and in every way to govern the kingdom according to law. He soon showed, however, that he as firmly believed in the "divine right of kings," and was as faithless, as any of the Stuarts who had preceded him. He became so despotic and openly defiant of law that even ardent Tories ceased to support him. Though making more pretension to piety, his morals were no better than those of Charles the Second. Unlike his genial brother, he was cruel and vindictive. As viceroy of Scotland during the late king's reign, he could calmly witness the torture of the thumbscrew and the boot applied to the persecuted Covenanters, when others had been forced to retire from the sickening spectacle.

First Parliament.—James's first Parliament, elected under his supervision, was a pliant tool in his hands, and of which he remarked that the greater portion of the members were the very men he himself would have chosen. It voted him a revenue of £1,900,000 a year for life. As he was a pensioner of the King of France, as had been his brother Charles, with his large income he was well-nigh independent of Parliaments.

Monmouth's Rebellion.—The Duke of Monmouth had not given up the idea of securing the throne. On the discovery of the Rye House Plot he had fled to Holland, where, with some of his friends, including the Duke of Argyll, he was now residing. A double invasion was planned—one of England led by Monmouth, and the other of Scotland by Argyll.

Both were utter failures. Argyll, taken prisoner, was executed, and, according to the barbarous custom of the times, his head was publicly exposed on the top of the Tolbooth prison in Edinburgh. Monmouth was defeated at Sedgemoor, the old hiding-place of King Alfred. Half famished, with only raw peas for food, he was captured as he lay hiding in a ditch. Admitted to the presence of James, he crawled to him on his hands and knees, grovelled at his feet, and implored him to spare his life. He would become a Catholic, or comply with any conditions that might be imposed. James told him he could see a priest if he wished, gave him little pity, no pardon, and turned coldly away to sign his death warrant.

Punishment of the Rebels.—Fearful was the punishment that overtook those who had taken part in the rebellion. Colonel Kirke, without judge or jury, hanged many of them on the sign-post of the White Hart Inn. Then **Judge Jeffreys**, in his court known as **The Bloody Assize**, made his name a symbol for all that can be imagined in human cruelty. Over three hundred persons were hanged; over eight hundred were condemned to a life of toil on the plantations in the West Indies; while others were fined, mutilated, or imprisoned. Some who had wealthy friends gained pardon by bribing the judge or others who had influence at court. Poor peasants paid the full penalty with their lives. A widow named Alice Lisle, for giving shelter and food to a rebel, was sentenced to be burned alive. Through the influence of friends, her punishment was changed to beheading.

Illegal Measures.—Emboldened by his easy triumph over the rebels, James moved madly on in his fatal career. At that time the crown appointed and dismissed the judges of the civil courts at pleasure. James used this power to secure judges subservient to his purposes. They told him that his authority was greater than that of Parliament, and that he had the right to set aside its Acts if he pleased to do so. Accordingly, when he could not persuade Parliament to repeal the Test Act, he took the matter into his own hands, and issued a Declaration of Indulgence, granting religious freedom to Roman Catholics and Dissenters. He illegally appointed

Roman Catholics as officers in the army, and to other positions of authority. He also, contrary to law, interfered with the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, appointing Roman Catholics as principals, and compelling the Senates to admit to degrees persons whom the rules disqualified. When Parliament showed any sign of independence it was dismissed. To strengthen himself against possible rebellion, James increased the army to forty thousand men.

Trial of the Bishops.—James issued an order commanding the clergy to read his Declaration of Indulgence from the pulpits. Many of them refused, while others read the declaration in the empty churches after the people were dismissed. The Archbishop of Canterbury and six bishops petitioned the king to withdraw the order. Enraged by their boldness, James commanded that they be sent to the Tower and prosecuted for libel. The court in which the bishops were tried presented an exciting scene. All day the lawyers and judges contended over the case. All night the jury were locked up, trying to agree on a verdict. At ten next morning, when they filed into court, the room was packed with an eager crowd. When the verdict "**Not Guilty**" was announced by the foreman, one grand burst of applause rent the air, and soon the news was hailed with joy all over London.

Persecution in Scotland.—Meanwhile the persecution of the Scottish Covenanters had been going on. The Parliament of Scotland passed a law that all who attended a conventicle should be punished with death. This law was carried out by Graham of Claverhouse and his dragoons with brutal ferocity. Torture with the thumbscrew and the boot was used to compel persons to testify against their fellow-worshippers. Those condemned were shot or hanged before their own doors. One of the martyrs was a young girl named **Margaret Wilson**, who was tied to a stake on the beach and left to be drowned by the incoming tide.

A new Heir to the Throne.—The people of England had submitted to James's violation of law, because they thought his rule would be short. On his death they expected the crown would pass to his daughter Mary. But now it was

announced that his second wife had borne a son, who would be the heir to the throne. Many persons, indeed, thought the whole story was false, and that the boy did not really belong to the king and queen, but was some child that had been smuggled into the palace. On this account the prince was afterwards called **The Pretender**.

Invitation to William, Prince of Orange.—Several prominent men in England, some of whom belonged to the Tory party, sent a letter to William, Prince of Orange, inviting him to come over and rescue the nation from despotic rule. William accepted the invitation, and a few weeks later he landed at Brixham, on Torbay, with an army of fifteen thousand men. Soon large numbers flocked to his standard.

James deserted.—When James learned what was going on, he offered many concessions; but it was now too late. Many old friends forsook him, among whom was Churchill, his most famous general, afterwards Duke of Marlborough. The hardest thing for him was when **his daughter Anne** and her husband, Prince George of Denmark, **went over to his enemies**. A large part of his army deserted, and the men that remained could not be depended on. No serious fighting took place.

James flees to France.—Becoming alarmed, James resolved on flight. In passing through London he threw into the Thames the Great Seal, with which public documents were required to be stamped, foolishly thinking to embarrass any government that might be formed. Having sent his wife and child to France, it was his purpose to follow them. Stealing away from London by night in disguise, he got to Sheerness, where he hoped to embark. Here he was seized by some fishermen and turned back. William had no desire to detain him, and so gave him an opportunity to escape to France.

A Convention called.—There was now no one in England who could summon a legal Parliament. William had no intention of seizing the throne and holding it by right of conquest. He accordingly called a Convention of the peers and representatives from all parts of the kingdom, and to this body he left the settlement of the government. After much

discussion a **Declaration of Rights** was passed, asserting that by violating the laws James had released his subjects from all obligation of loyalty, and that by fleeing from the kingdom he had abdicated the throne. It was agreed that William and Mary should be joint sovereigns with William as the active ruler. On the death of either, the throne remained to the survivor. Next in order of succession were their children, if any, and after them James's second daughter Anne and her children.

The Revolution of 1688.—This change, by which James's son was cut off from all right to the throne, is known in British history as the Revolution. It ended the long struggle between the sovereign and the Parliament, and established the principle that **the King of Great Britain rules by the consent of the people.**

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

1689-1702.

THE accession of William and Mary to the throne marked the beginning of a new era in English history. During the Tudor and Stuart periods the sovereigns ruled with almost despotic sway. From this time onward the government is more democratic, the people, through a free Parliament, becoming the source of power. William was indeed a strong king, but his highest ambition was to humble his great rival, Louis the Fourteenth of France; and so long as he got the means of doing this, he was willing to let Parliament govern the kingdom.

The Bill of Rights.—Now that William was king, he declared the **Convention** that he had summoned to be a **legal Parliament**. The Declaration of Rights was then confirmed and extended by the passing of the **Bill of Rights**. The principle was established that **the King rules by the will of the people**, and that without the consent of Parliament he can neither make nor annul a law, impose taxes, keep a standing army, or dismiss a judge. It was provided that

no long interval should pass without Parliament being called together, and that a new Parliament should be elected every three years. It was also provided that the sovereign must be a Protestant.

Religious Affairs.—A **Toleration Act** was passed, securing freedom of worship to Dissenters. Roman Catholics were still left under the disabilities of the Test Act, and they did not obtain the proper privileges of citizens of the country until one hundred and forty years later. Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, seven bishops, and about four hundred of the clergy, refused to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, and were removed from office.

William was weak physically, and he was all his life troubled with asthma, but he was full of energy and ambition. He was not a handsome man. It was his nature to be cold and reserved. He talked little, and that little was in bad English. His English subjects had not much love for him. This probably gave him less anxiety than did his war schemes for the defeat of Louis the Fourteenth of France.

The Jacobites.—Some of the English people would have been glad to have James the Second restored to the throne. They were called Jacobites, a word formed from *Jacobus*, the Latin for James. Louis of France tried to encourage them and help them in their object, as will be seen later. His efforts, however, in this regard only made the English people more loyal to William, for they did not care to have foreigners interfere in their affairs. Although a few Jacobites once formed a plot to kill William, there was little done in England to restore King James.

The Battle of Killiecrankie, 1689.—The Scottish people generally were willing to take William and Mary for their rulers. It was otherwise, however, among some of the Highland clans, with whom James's Scottish descent counted for much. Graham of Claverhouse, the persecutor of the Covenanters, now holding the title of Viscount Dundee, collected an army from among these supporters of King James. He met William's troops under General Mackay in the pass of Killiecrankie near Blair Athol, and, rushing down upon them

and thirty-eight others were killed on the spot. The rest fled to the hills, where the greater number of them perished from cold and hunger.

Ireland.—It was in Ireland that William met the greatest opposition. The Irish people had been treated badly by former English sovereigns. Especially in the north they had been driven from their homes into the poorer districts of the west, and their lands had been given to English and Scottish colonists. Tyrconnel, the lord-lieutenant, gathered an army, and James went over from France with men and money furnished by Louis.

The Siege of Londonderry.—William's supporters were not numerous. Their strongest place was Londonderry, on the river Foyle, where many of them took refuge. For over three months the place was besieged by James's army, until food was exhausted, and the starving citizens were glad to get even dogs and rats to eat. They would perhaps have given up, and opened their gates to the enemy, had it not been for the encouragement of a clergyman named **George Walker.**



Finally, English ships came up the river, bringing supplies and aid, and the besiegers were driven away.

Battle of the Boyne.—Shortly after, William came over from England, bringing with him his Dutch army. He met James's forces near the river Boyne, and gained over them a great victory. James fled once more to France. His supporters were defeated again at Aughrim, and once more at Limerick. This ended the contest. The Irish people were still made to suffer. They had a Parliament, but only Protestants could hold seats, and some of its laws bore severely against Roman Catholics.

Teignmouth and La Hogue.—While William was in Ireland, Louis sent a fleet for the invasion of England. Some of the French soldiers landed at Teignmouth, on the south coast, and burned a few houses; but they were soon driven away. Two years later a strong naval and military force was sent from France against England. Admiral Russell, who commanded the English fleet, was a Jacobite, and the enemy thought he would play into their hands. But he was too much of an Englishman for this, and he said he would attack the French ships even though James himself were on board. And so he did, gaining a great victory off Cape La Hogue.

Death of Queen Mary, 1694.—Vaccination for the prevention of smallpox had not yet been discovered. The disease,



PART OF GREENWICH HOSPITAL.

which was at this time very common, seized the queen, and in a few days proved fatal. William was very fond of her, and grieved greatly for her loss. She was a noble woman, and was highly esteemed by the English people. **Greenwich Hospital**, which she fitted up for the care of disabled sailors, remains a monument of her kindly interest in the men who suffer in the service of their country.

Treaty of Ryswick, 1697.—After many years of warfare between William and Louis, peace was made by the Treaty of Ryswick, and a short breathing spell followed. Louis then acknowledged William as rightful King of England.

Milling the Coin.—The coin in use as money at the present time has its edge made rough and slightly raised above the general surface. The process by which this is done is called

milling. It was adopted in William's reign to prevent "clipping" the coin. Rogues were in the habit of shaving off strips from the edge of the silver pieces, taking off so little at any one time that the loss was not readily detected. After several clippings a shilling lost a fourth or more of its value.

Freedom to the Book-makers.—In the early times governments were much afraid of criticism. Before a new book was allowed to be published, it was carefully examined by an inspector to see if it contained anything objectionable. This foolish restriction was now removed, and authors were left free to point out to their rulers the mistakes they were making. The **newspapers**, however, were **not yet allowed to publish the speeches made in Parliament**. Another good measure was that which provided that persons accused of treason should be furnished with a copy of the charges made against them, and be allowed counsel to aid in their defense.

The Ministry.—Parliament was now divided into the two great parties, Tories and Whigs. Before this time each minister was individually accountable to the king for the work of his own department, and was appointed or dismissed without regard to the position of other ministers. The plan was now adopted of choosing the ministers in a body chiefly from the party which for the time had the majority in the House of Commons. This body of ministers was called **the Ministry** and also **the Cabinet**. At the same time, it became the custom for the ministers privately to discuss and prepare measures to be submitted to Parliament.

The Spanish Succession.—The peace of Western Europe was at this time seriously disturbed by disputes over the proper heir to the Spanish throne. The King of Spain had died, and a grandson of Louis of France succeeded to the throne. The Emperor of Germany claimed it for his son Charles, and resolved to take it by force. William, who disliked anything that would add to the power of his rival Louis, joined the emperor. The English people at first did not look with much favor on the alliance. But they soon changed their views. James the Second died, and Louis at once recognized his young son, known as the "Pretender," as the King

of England, with the title of **James the Third**. This aroused the anger of the English. They would not allow a foreign king to say who should rule over them.

William's Death.—In the midst of his preparation for war William met with an accident. His horse stumbled and threw him to the ground, breaking his collar bone. The injury did not appear to be serious, but William was feeble. Fever set in, and he died within a few days.

ANNE.

1702-1714.

QUEEN ANNE was a kindly woman, but she was dull and weak. She had little mind of her own, and was greatly influenced by favorites. Of these the Duchess of Marlborough was the most famous. The two had been intimate as girls, and now, laying



aside the dignity of royalty and difference of rank, they wrote letters to each other under feigned names. The queen was Mrs. Harley, and the duchess Mrs. Freeman. The duchess's name was Sarah, and so much did she control affairs that it was sometimes said "Queen Anne reigns, but Queen Sarah rules."

The queen's husband, Prince George of Denmark, was a sot, and little need be said about him.

War with France.—Home affairs were less stirring than in former times, but the reign was noted for brilliant military exploits abroad. In alliance with Germany and Holland, the war with Louis was continued. Its main object was to determine who should be King of Spain. In Europe it was known

as the War of the Spanish Succession ; in America, where it was carried on between the English and French colonies, it was called Queen Anne's War. The English commander, who had also command of the German forces, was the Duke of Marlborough. He was one of the greatest military officers that England ever produced, and it was said of him that he never lost a battle. He was very avaricious, and did some unworthy things. He had once been a supporter of James the Second, but had deserted him in his time of need.



GIBRALTAR.

Blenheim and Ramillies.—Marlborough gained splendid victories over the French, of which the two most famous were at Blenheim, in Bavaria, and Ramillies, in Belgium. Parliament was so delighted with his success that it gave him a large estate near Woodstock, in Oxfordshire, and built for him a magnificent palace, which is still known as Blenheim House.

After these disastrous battles Louis wanted peace, but the allies would agree to it only on condition that he would help them to drive his grandson out of Spain. To this he replied, "If I must be at war, I prefer to fight my enemies rather than my own children."

Capture of Gibraltar, 1704.—During the war the English took the fort of Gibraltar from Spain. On a saint's day, while the garrison was at prayers, Admiral Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel, at little cost, gained possession of this the strongest fortress in the world. Gibraltar has ever since been held by Great Britain.

Union of England and Scotland, 1707.—The greatest event of the reign was the union of England and Scotland. From the accession of James the First to the throne of England one common sovereign had ruled over the two kingdoms, each of which had its own Parliament. Trade had been carried on as between foreign countries, imports from each into the other paying heavy duty. There was much hesitation about union, the English people fearing that their markets would be spoiled by Scottish produce, and the Scots fearing that they would lose their freedom. Finally, the terms of union were agreed on, and the kingdom of Great Britain was formed, with a single Parliament meeting in London. Scotland still kept its own laws and Presbyterianism as the established religion.



THE UNION JACK IN USE FROM
1606 TO 1800.



THE UNION JACK IN USE AT
THE PRESENT DAY.

The Union Jack.—The flag known as the Union Jack, though not just as we have it now, was adopted as the national emblem. This flag, which combined the red cross of St. George and the white cross of St. Andrew, had been used in the time of James the First, and was called the Union Jack from Jacques, the French for James.

Capture of Port Royal, 1710.—The war between the English and the French was carried across the Atlantic into their colonies in America. One of its chief events was the taking of Port Royal by the English. In honor of Queen Anne its name was changed to Annapolis Royal.

Whigs and Tories.—In the early part of the reign the Tories held the reins of power. Marlborough, who was the

real leader of the government, failed to get full support for his schemes from this party, and through his influence with the queen he forced his opponents to retire, and filled their places with Whigs.

For some time Marlborough's great victories kept the Whigs in power. But war is an expensive thing, and the people became weary of heavy taxes. Then a clergyman named Sacheverell stirred up the country by a famous sermon against the Whigs and the Dissenters whom the Whigs favored. The House of Lords ordered the sermon to be burned, and forbade Sacheverell to preach for three years. This only made a martyr of him, and brought reproach on the Whigs. Meanwhile a new election gave the Tories a large majority in the House of Commons.

A Tory Government.—Queen Anne had never liked the Whigs, but she had been persuaded by the Duke and Duchess of Marlborough to favor them. But now the duchess, always haughty, had become very offensive, and had lost her influence over the queen. She was dismissed from court, and her place was filled by a new favorite, Abigail Hill, known as Mrs. Masham. The Whig ministers were forced to retire, and a Tory ministry came into power, of which two prominent leaders were Robert Harley and Henry St. John. At the same time twelve peers were created to overcome the Whig majority in the House of Lords. The Duke of Marlborough was now dismissed from the service, and was accused of taking bribes from dishonest contractors who furnished the army with inferior supplies.

The Dissenters.—The Test Act, passed in 1673, was still in force, and applied to all who refused to receive the sacrament from the Anglican clergy. It thus excluded Dissenters as well as Roman Catholics from office. Many, however, who called themselves Dissenters conformed to the rule once or for a short time, until they had obtained the desired office, and then they went back to their own church, except, perhaps, that once a year they came to Anglican Church communion. While the Whigs were in power they allowed this practice, which was called **occasional communion**, to pass

unnoticed. To break up this system an Act was passed which fined and disqualified all officials who attended Dissenting places of worship. Another Act was passed which prevented Dissenters from becoming teachers.

The Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.—Peace was made with France by the Treaty of Utrecht, which gave Louis more favorable terms than he himself had offered at an earlier stage. His grandson Philip was recognized King of Spain; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay Territory were ceded to Great Britain.

A Jacobite Plot.—But for one thing, the Tories would now have felt sure of a long lease of power. Queen Anne was in bad health, and by the Act of Settlement the heir to the throne was George, Elector of Hanover, son of the Electress Sophia. This prince was known to favor the Whigs. So a plot was devised for bringing back James the Pretender, whom Louis of France had once recognized as James the Third. Anne favored the scheme, and the leading Tories set to work to bring it about.

Death of Queen Anne.—Before these plans of the Jacobites were matured, Queen Anne died. The hopes of the Tories were dashed to the ground. "In six weeks more," said one of their leaders, "we should have put things in such a condition that there would have been nothing to fear. What a world is this, and how does Fortune banter us!"

Great Men.—This reign was noted for famous scholars and authors. Among these were Sir Isaac Newton, Locke, Bentley, Bunyan, Addison, Steele, Pope, Swift, and Defoe. There were no poets of the first rank, though Pope's verses are distinguished for their smoothness and finish. Addison wrote some of the finest prose in the English language. The little sheets called the *Spectator* and the *Tatler* were founded by him and Steele. Swift was the author of "Gulliver's Travels," and Defoe of "Robinson Crusoe." Defoe was condemned to stand in the pillory for some of his writings; but, instead of pelting him with mud and rotten eggs, as was the custom, the people, who were pleased with what he had said, decked him with flowers.

SOCIAL CONDITION DURING THE STUART PERIOD.

MANY parts of England, where now are cultivated fields and fruitful orchards, were, during this period, waste marshes and forest lands, the home of deer, wild boars, and other animals not found at the present time in England.

The great mineral wealth of Great Britain was still undeveloped. Tin, lead, and copper mines were worked to considerable extent. Coal and iron were greatly neglected. Iron ore was smelted only by charcoal fires, which were regarded as too destructive of wood.

The manufactures were chiefly domestic, carried on in the homes of the people, with little use of machinery. Woollen goods were the most important. To promote this industry, a law was made requiring the dead to be buried in woollen sheets. Ironware of the commonest kind, pottery, and finer goods of all kinds were imported largely from France, Holland, and the Far East.

There were no railways or steamboats. The public roads were very bad, though some improvement was made by the turnpike system. At certain places gates or horizontal bars fastened to an upright post stopped people on the road until they had paid a toll, which was expended on repairs.

Travelling was still largely done on horseback, and goods were often carried on packhorses. Wealthy persons used their own coaches, which, owing to the state of the roads, often required six horses. Sedan chairs were much used in the towns.

London had a population of about half a million. Its houses were mostly of wood. The streets were narrow and very filthy. They were not lighted until during the last year of Charles the Second, and then only in winter.

Bristol was next to London in population and commerce. Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, and Liverpool were very small towns. The total population of England was not greater than that of London at the present time.

During this period tea was little used by the common people. Coffee had become a favorite beverage. Coffee-houses, where coffee and other refreshments were served, had become a

noted institution in London, corresponding somewhat to the club-houses of the present day. Each set, allied by social rank, occupation, or other feature in common, had its own coffee-house, where the members met and discussed politics, religion, general news, or the scandal of the day. The few newspapers of the time were small sheets, containing little news, and the coffee-house, where each member retailed what he had gathered up, took their place.

Crime was very common. Executions were carried out in public, and they were witnessed by eager crowds of people, who resorted to them as to places of amusement.

During this period was laid the foundation of Great Britain's trade and maritime power. At first the Dutch took the lead in these matters, having great trading-posts in Asia, Africa, and America. The English soon followed in the same career, and at length there grew up between the two peoples a keen rivalry which at times resulted in war.

Great English companies held monopolies from the king, giving them sole right of trade in certain goods or in certain places. Through these trading companies and through colonization, often brought about by private enterprise or resulting from religious persecution, Great Britain came into possession of most of the vast territory which she now owns. The Indian Empire in Asia was secured in this way through the East India Company, first chartered by Queen Elizabeth in 1600, and the great North-West in North America through the Hudson's Bay Company, chartered by Charles the Second in 1670. Large territory was gained also in West Africa through merchants who carried on the slave trade between Africa and the West Indies.

Colonization during this period was chiefly in North America, on territory now within the United States. The principal colonies, or plantations, as they were called, were in Virginia, where large estates were devoted to raising tobacco; in Pennsylvania, formed by the famous Quaker William Penn as a home for his persecuted people; and in New England, begun by the Pilgrim Fathers, who came seeking religious freedom.

THE HANOVERIAN PERIOD.

1714 to the present day.

SOVEREIGNS.

George I., 1714-1727.

George II., 1727-1760.

George III., 1760-1820.

George IV., 1820-1830.

William IV., 1830-1837.

Victoria, 1837-1901.

Edward VII., 1901.

GEORGE I.

1714-1727.

Character.—George the First was the great-grandson of James the First. His grandmother was James's daughter Elizabeth, and his mother was Sophia of Hanover, who died a few weeks before Queen Anne. He was now fifty-four years of age, was dull and awkward, and could not speak a word of English. He was elector or chief ruler of Hanover, a small German state, for which he cared much more than for his island kingdom, and where he spent much of his time. Most of his English subjects disliked him, and some of them would gladly have exchanged him for a Stuart king. As he left the government chiefly in the hands of his ministers, he was less troublesome than had been some of the kings before him.

The Whigs.—King George owed his throne to the Whigs, a fact of which he was ever mindful. He at once dismissed the Tory ministers and put Whigs in their place. The Whigs also had a large majority in the new House of Commons, and for about fifty years they held the reins of power.

Tory Leaders impeached.—Some of the leaders of the Tory party were placed on trial for being in league with the Jacobites, and for yielding too much to France in the

Treaty of Utrecht. Two of them escaped to France and joined the Pretender. Another was sent to the Tower, where he was kept for two years.

The Jacobite Rebellion, 1715.—Hoping to obtain aid from Louis the Fourteenth of France, the Jacobites in Scotland and the north of England rose in rebellion. Their object was to place the **Pretender James** on the throne. Indeed the Scots wanted to break up the Union and have a king of their own. The rising ended in failure. Meanwhile Louis of France had died, and now, after the failure of his friends, the Pretender landed in Scotland without bringing either men or money to help them. He made much ado in preparing for his coronation; but on learning that King George's forces were marching against him, he left his followers to take care of themselves and hastened to France. Several of the leaders in the rebellion were executed. One noble earl escaped from prison clad in his wife's clothes, which she managed to smuggle into his cell.

The Septennial Act, 1716.—The law limited the duration of Parliament to three years, and the time for a new election was at hand. The country was in a disturbed state, and it was thought advisable not to increase the trouble by political agitation. Accordingly a Bill was passed, which still remains in force, extending the limit of Parliament to seven years.

The South Sea Bubble, 1720.—Many schemes were started at this time for gaining wealth rapidly. Among them was a company which had a monopoly of trade with the Spanish colonies of South America and the islands of the Pacific Ocean. It was called **The South Sea Company**, from the old name of the Pacific Ocean. Its profits were large, and its members had become wealthy.

The interest on the public debt had at this time become a serious tax on the revenue. An arrangement was made between the government and the company, by which this debt would be greatly reduced and the interest made very much less. In exchange for privileges granted, the company was to buy up all the government bonds or promises of payment that the people held, and become sole creditor. Fabu-

lous stories were then told about the company's profits. Soon people who held bonds hastened to exchange them for South Sea stock, and others who had money rushed to the company's office to buy shares. Prices of stock went up until it sold for ten times its value. Suddenly the people found out that they had been cheated. Many persons had invested all they had in this stock, and now they were ruined. A panic ensued. The blame fell on the government, for its members had encouraged the scheme. One of them was sent to the Tower; another, overwhelmed with shame, took poison and killed himself. The South Sea stock was like sea foam, that for a time looks bulky, but soon bursts and leaves little behind. The scheme thus got the name of "**The South Sea Bubble.**"

Sir Robert Walpole.—A new Whig ministry was formed, of which Robert Walpole was the leader. He was a strong, clearheaded man, but coarse and rough in manner. Fox-hunting was his delight, and the letters of his gamekeeper had for him more interest than state papers. Yet, skilled in money affairs, he attended faithfully to business, and for twenty years he was the real ruler of England. He was a shrewd man, but he had a very low idea of the public men of his time. "Every man has his price," was his maxim. He did not enrich himself out of the public funds, but he kept himself in power and carried his measures by wholesale bribery. He suited his gifts to his men. To one he promised a peerage or some smaller dignity, to another he gave an office of emolument, to another bank bills.

In many ways Walpole did his country good service. By distributing the losses on the South Sea scheme he made the burden less ruinous. He disliked war, and used his influence for peace. He removed export duties on many articles and import duties from raw materials used in manufactures.

The Prime Minister.—It had been the custom for the king to preside at the meetings of the cabinet. As King George could not speak English, he did not attend these meetings. It then became the custom, which has been followed ever since, for the chief minister to preside. It is said that the

term **Prime Minister** or **Premier** was first given to Walpole. No sovereign since this time has attended meetings of the cabinet.

Other Changes.—Bills passed by the Commons and Peers do not become law until they have received the assent of the Crown. In former reigns Bills were often rejected by the sovereign. King George gave himself little trouble about these matters, and signed all Bills without question. He thus established a custom, and no sovereign since his time has withheld assent from Bills that have passed the two Houses.

Heretofore, also, the speech from the throne was regarded as coming directly from the sovereign, and any criticism of it was thought to show disloyalty. But now this speech began to be looked on as the views of the ministry, and hence as fair game for the opposite party.

Further, there began to be a **shifting of power and responsibility from the king to his ministers**, so that accountability for any mistakes rested on them. Then, as the House of Commons could turn out a ministry by an adverse vote, this House became accountable to the people for the acts of the ministry.

Parliament.—In former reigns the king ruled, but Parliament and the ministry now governed the kingdom. True, the sovereigns after this time sometimes strove to assert old-time power, but in the end they had to yield. Parliament, however, did not now, or for many years after, represent the people. In the counties only landowners could vote for members of Parliament. A borough or small town often sent as many members as a county. In certain towns, called "pocket" boroughs, the voters were so dependent on some wealthy noble that they were compelled to vote as he directed. Then there were "rotten" boroughs—that is, old forsaken places that had very few voters, but still sent members to the House of Commons. Add to all this the fact that the elections were largely influenced by bribery, and it will be seen that **the doings of Parliament were controlled by comparatively few people.**

Death of the King, 1727.—George the First, while on a

visit to Hanover, died suddenly as he was driving in his carriage. He was succeeded on the throne by his son George, with whom he had been quarrelling for many years.

GEORGE II.

1727-1760.

GEORGE THE SECOND was a small man, obstinate, and of base morals. He was trained in the art of war, and he had much ability and courage as a soldier. His wife was the beautiful and clever Princess Caroline of Anspach.

Walpole.—Walpole had not been on friendly terms with Prince George, and he probably would now have been dismissed but for the good offices of Queen Caroline, who knew better than did the king the value of his services. While he continued in power, during the first fifteen years of the reign, he met with much opposition from some of the leading men of his party, whom he failed to please. Among these opponents was **William Pitt**, the famous orator and statesman. By the death of the queen, in 1739, Walpole lost a strong supporter.

The Porteous Riot, 1736.—Early in the reign Scotland was much stirred by an incident known as the Porteous Riot. The mob of Edinburgh, excited over the execution of a smuggler, pelted the hangman and the guard. At the command of Captain Porteous, the guard fired upon the crowd and killed some of the citizens. Porteous was tried and sentenced to be hanged, but delay in the execution led to the belief that he would be pardoned; whereupon the mob took him in hand, and carried out the sentence.

War with Spain, 1739.—At this time the kingdoms of Europe allowed their colonies very little trade with foreign countries. Spain permitted Great Britain to send but one trading ship each year to her colonies in South America. The English traders, however, smuggled in their merchandise as they found opportunity. Sometimes, while their ship was unloading her cargo, they had small vessels laden with mer-

chandise lying off out of sight during the day, which at night came in and filled up the ship again.

The Spanish coastguards often caught the smugglers, and treated them roughly. Of this the traders made loud complaint when they returned home. Much excited over the matter, the people of England demanded war with Spain. Walpole strongly objected to this mode of settling the trouble, but his opponents in Parliament supported the demand, and he was forced to yield.

Fall of Walpole, 1742.—The war turning out badly, Walpole was charged with not doing all he could to make it a success, and he was forced to retire from the government. Instead, however, of being impeached and beheaded for



treason, as had been the custom in earlier times, Walpole was given a seat in the House of Lords.

Anson's Voyage round the World.—One of the incidents of the war was Anson's famous voyage. He set out with six ships to fight the Spaniards, and concluded to sail round the world, doing the enemy all the mischief he could on the way. After three years he returned home with a single ship, having plundered a Spanish town on the coast of Chili, and seized a Spanish ship with silver on board valued at \$1,500,000.

The War over the Austrian Succession, 1742.—The crown of Austria had been left to Maria Teresa by her father. France, Prussia, and Bavaria united to deprive her of her territory. Great Britain sent aid to the young queen, and

King George himself, leading the British troops in one engagement, gained a victory over the French near Dettingen in Bavaria. This was the last battle in which a sovereign of Great Britain took part.

Louisburg captured, 1745.—While the war was going on in Europe, the New England colonies fitted out a fleet of their own and captured from the French the strong fortress of Louisburg.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748.—By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle the various powers agreed to restore all their conquests, and leave Austria to Maria Teresa and her husband. Louisburg was thus given back to France.

The Young Pretender, 1745.—Meanwhile, by encouraging the Pretender to make another move for the throne, Louis the Fifteenth of France had been giving Great Britain something more serious to think about. James's son, Charles Edward, sometimes called the Young Pretender, and also "Bonnie Prince Charlie," landed on the north-west coast of Scotland. He brought little aid with him from France, but the Highland chieftains, loyal to the Stuart line, with their clansmen gathered around him.

At Perth, Charles Edward was proclaimed regent in place of his father "King James the Third." With four or five thousand men he entered Edinburgh without opposition, and took up his residence in Holyrood Palace, that ancient home of the Scottish kings. The handsome and courteous prince soon captivated many hearts.

At Prestonpans, eight miles east of Edinburgh, Charles gained his first victory over a royalist force led by Sir John Cope. The Highlanders, after one volley, threw away their firearms, as was their custom, and rushing forward with their claymores, in ten minutes put Cope's soldiers to flight.

To Derby and Back.—With six thousand men the prince marched southerly to Derby in England, taking Carlisle by the way. He had gained little strength, and now came tidings that King George's forces were within an hour's march of his camp. He was no coward, this Young Pretender, and he

would have faced the foe; but his Highlanders refusing to risk an encounter, he was compelled to retreat.

At **Falkirk**, twenty-four miles north-west of Edinburgh, the prince gained an easy victory. An incident of the battle



is half amusing. One of the prince's officers mounted a horse which he had captured. Shortly after, the drums beat for rally in the royalist army, and the horse, in spite of all resistance, galloped off with his rider to the enemy.

Culloden, 1746.—And now the Young Pretender's star waned rapidly to its utter extinction. Some of his men deserted to their homes to store the plunder they had seized at Falkirk. Those remaining were without sufficient food. There were jealousies among the Highland chieftains. The Duke of Cumberland, the king's son, with an army of ten thousand men, was only ten or twelve miles distant. Hoping to take him by surprise, Charles Edward moved forward stealthily under cover of night. But when within three or four miles of the enemy he was compelled by the approach of morning to retreat.

Next day **the Battle of Culloden** decided the Pretender's fate. His Highlanders, weary from their night's march and faint with hunger, were utterly routed by Cumberland's royalists, who outnumbered them by two to one.

Closing Scenes.—The Duke of Cumberland crushed the rebellion with fearful brutality. His soldiers went over the battlefield, shooting the wounded, and braining them with the butts of their muskets. Then they went through the Highlands, plundering and burning the houses of the rebels. Many of those who had taken part in the rebellion were executed. To prevent risings of this kind, the Highland chieftains were stripped of their feudal power, by which they had been accustomed to summon their clans to war, and they were forbidden to wear the Highland costume.

Charles Edward's Escape.—Thirty thousand pounds were offered for the capture of the prince. The story of his escape is like a romance. During his hiding for five months he fell into many hands, rich and poor, but he was betrayed by none. For three weeks he made his home in a cave with a band of robbers, who tried to persuade him to become one of them. He was aided in his flight by a lady named **Flora Macdonald**, whom he attended, disguised sometimes as a servant, sometimes as a waiting-maid. Finally he escaped to France in a coasting vessel. A broken-down drunkard, he ended his days in Rome.

A short Year, 1752.—The year 1752 is remarkable for having been eleven days shorter than ordinary years. The

length of a year is measured by the time the earth takes in making one complete revolution round the sun. The old style of reckoning gave three hundred and sixty-five days to ordinary years. During this time the earth did not quite complete the circuit. Accordingly one additional day was added every fourth year. This again was a few minutes too much, and brought the earth a little beyond four revolutions. Thus it came about that during the centuries the surplus made by the leap years had allowed the earth to get eleven days beyond the starting-point. The first day of the year by the almanac was



WILLIAM PITT.

the eleventh day by the earth's position. To bring matters right, the third of September 1752, Old Style, was called the fourteenth day, New Style.

The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763.—Several of the nations of Europe became embroiled in what was known as "The Seven Years' War." As usual, Great Britain and France were on opposite sides. The war between these two countries was carried across the ocean to their colonies in America and India, where occurred the events that most interest our people.

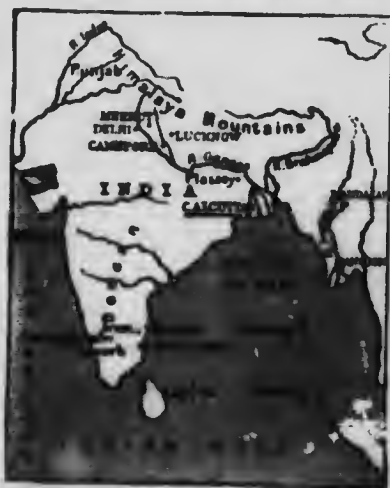
William Pitt.—For some time the victories in America, through the blundering of British officers, had been on the side of the French. At last there came to the helm of affairs a strong man named **William Pitt**. He was a Whig, but he had always opposed Walpole and his system of bribery. Pitt had been in the House of Commons many years, where he was famous as a brilliant debater, and was called "**The Great Commoner**." For some reason he was disliked by the king. The Duke of Newcastle was now Premier, but Pitt was the strongest force in the government.

The Conquest of Canada, 1759.—Louisburg and Quebec were the two strongholds of the French in America, and with

the capture of these, Louisburg by General Amherst and Quebec by General Wolfe, the whole of Canada fell to Great Britain. The story of the war is more fully told in the history of Canada.

The War in India.—At first the English had little thought of ruling all India, with its hundreds of millions of people.

The East India Company was formed near the close of Elizabeth's reign for carrying on trade. This Company from time to time extended its business, and for the protection of its trade built forts at **Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta.** The French also had trading stations in Southern India, and during the wars between Great Britain and France they formed alliances with native rulers, and attempted to drive the English out of the country. They destroyed the fort at Madras, and made prisoners of the



Company's officers.

Robert Clive.—Among the prisoners carried off from Madras was an Englishman named Robert Clive, one of the Company's clerks. He escaped from his captors, and joined a military force in the service of the Company. Then, at the head of a handful of men, English and natives, he captured Arcot, the capital of a native state in alliance with the French, and held it against a force greatly outnumbering his own.

The Black Hole of Calcutta, 1756.—Some years later, during the Seven Years' War, a powerful native ruler, Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, attacked and captured the Company's fort at Calcutta. He thrust one hundred and forty-six prisoners, whom he had taken at the fort, into a dungeon less than twenty feet square, which has since been known as the Black Hole of Calcutta. Here, poisoned by foul air and tortured by thirst, the wretched prisoners, driven to mad-

ness, trampled on each other, until in the morning but twenty-three remained alive.

Plassey, 1757.—And now Robert Clive appears again on the scene. In the famous Battle of Plassey, with one thousand Englishmen and two thousand natives, he defeated Surajah Dowlah, whose forces outnumbered his own by twenty to one. Thus came the beginning of Britain's great Indian Empire.

The Methodists.—Religion in this reign had pretty much gone out of fashion. The lower classes were left uncared for in their ignorance and low vice. Drunkenness and immorality disgraced the higher ranks of society. On this world of moral decay there dawned a day of revival. The change originated with **George Whitefield** and the two brothers **Charles** and **John Wesley**, three clergymen of the Anglican Church. These earnest men travelled through the land, preaching to the people, especially to the miners, the fishermen, and the poorer classes in the large cities. Shut out of the churches, they gathered eager crowds around them in the open fields. From the regularity of their habits and their strict method of working, they were derisively called **Methodists**, a name with which they were not ill-pleased. John Wesley united their converts into a society, which afterwards became the Methodist Church.

Death of George II., 1760.—George the Second died suddenly. His eldest son Frederick had been killed many years before by a blow from a cricket ball. The throne thus fell to Frederick's son, who succeeded his grandfather as George the Third.

GEORGE III.

1760-1820.

Character.—George the Third was but twenty-two years old when he came to the throne. He possessed little mental ability, and was unable to take a broad view of things. The strongest part of his mental make up was his will; he

was obstinate. He was, however, a good sort of man, honest, simple, and religious, desiring to do what was right. His education was defective, and in some respects harmful. His mother, seeming to think that he needed bracing up, was always saying to him, "George, be a king."

The first two Georges were foreigners, and so long as their pleasures were gratified, and Hanover was cared for, they were willing to leave Great Britain under the rule of their ministers. George the Third was **proud that he was born a Briton**, and, following the counsel of his mother, he determined that he himself would be king. Hence he claimed the right to appoint his own ministers. By bribing members of the House of Commons with money and titles, he often managed to get rid of ministers he disliked, and keep in power those with whom he was pleased. As he and Queen Charlotte lived in a very simple way, he had the more to spend in buying support for his ministers and the measures he wished to carry out.

The Treaty of Paris.—George the Third disliked the Whigs, whom he found in power, and he soon got a Tory ministry, with his old tutor, the Earl of Bute, for Premier. Spain became an ally of France, and the Seven Years' War went on until peace was restored by the Treaty of Paris. Although Canada and Cape Breton were ceded to Great Britain, the English people were not at all pleased with the treaty, and Bute became so unpopular that he was forced to resign.

The Grenville Ministry.—A Whig ministry, with George Grenville as Premier, followed. **Grenville and the king**, by their foolish blunders in dealing with the colonies, **lost for the empire half the continent of America**. But first they got into trouble at home.

John Wilkes, a member of the House of Commons, a very clever man, but of bad character, published a severe criticism of the king's speech in closing Parliament. Grenville had him arrested and sent to prison. The court decided that, Wilkes being a member of Parliament, the arrest was illegal, and gave him £1,000 damages. Wilkes was then outlawed and compelled to leave the country. Returning to England

some years after, he was elected member for Middlesex. The House of Commons refused to admit him. Several times he was re-elected to the House, and as often rejected. This made a hero of Wilkes, and led to serious riots in his favor. "Wilkes and Liberty" was the rallying cry of the mob. He was made Lord Mayor of London. Finally, on being elected again for Middlesex, he was allowed to take his seat.

Liberty of the Press.—At this time it was **not lawful** to report or **publish parliamentary speeches**. Thus it was known only by rumor what the members said in the House or how they voted. The London papers, however, often published these speeches, sometimes altered and under disguise of name and place. The House of Commons sent officers to arrest the editors. The Lord Mayor and Aldermen forbade their arrest. In the end the House had to yield in this matter also, and ever after the papers have been allowed to publish parliamentary speeches.

Taxing the Colonies.—The great blunder of King George the Third and his ministry was taxing the colonies. A large public debt had been incurred by expensive wars with France, and they thought that the American colonies, having been greatly benefited by these wars, should pay a part of the cost. Accordingly the House of Commons passed **the Stamp Act**, by which the colonists were compelled to place a government stamp on deeds, wills, and other legal documents. The money paid for these stamps went into the British treasury. To this the colonists objected, not so much because they thought it unjust for them to bear part of the cost of the war, as on account of being taxed by a Parliament in which they had no representation.

The colonies had also other grounds of complaint. Great Britain treated them as if they existed simply for the advantage of the British people in the home land. The colonies were **not allowed freedom to manufacture articles for themselves**, or to buy what they pleased in foreign markets. They were required to use British manufactures, and to purchase foreign goods from British merchants.

Duties in Place of Stamps.—William Pitt did not approve

of taxing the colonies. Now quite feeble, wrapped in flannels, he was carried to the House of Commons, where he spoke so strongly against **the Stamp Act** that it was **repealed**. Still, the House of Commons thought that the colonies should be taxed, and a duty was imposed on various kinds of imported goods. Over this the colonists were even more enraged than they had been at the Stamp Act.

The Tea Tax.—King George thought that the colonies must be forced to yield, and he found in **Lord North** a minister willing to carry out his plans. All the duties were removed except threepence a pound on tea—not enough to give much revenue, but sufficient to show that Great Britain had a right to tax her colonies.

Trouble in Boston, 1775.—Although tea was sold in the colonies for less than in England, the people agreed that they would avoid the tax by using no tea. To remove temptation from the tea-drinkers, a few colonists in Boston, disguised as Indians, boarded the vessels laden with tea in the harbor, and threw their cargoes into the sea. As punishment for this act, the British Government forbade trading vessels to enter Boston harbor, and placed the city and colony under military government.

Rebellion, 1775.—The other colonies, except Canada and Nova Scotia, decided to stand by Massachusetts, and they united in war against the mother country. The war began near Boston, and eight years passed before peace was made. During the contest the forces of the colonists were under the command of **George Washington**, who afterwards became **first President of the United States of America**.

Declaration of Independence, 1776.—In 1776 the colonies declared their independence. Shortly after, France, glad to show her hatred of Great Britain, recognized their independence and sent them aid. Spain also joined in the war, and made a vain attempt to recover Gibraltar. William Pitt, now Lord Chatham, who had pleaded against taxing the colonies, urged the government not to yield to France. He was now old and feeble, and while speaking he staggered and fell, smitten with apoplexy.

The United States of America, 1783.—Great Britain failed to subdue her rebellious children. At Saratoga, in 1778, General Burgoyne and his army were taken prisoners by the colonists. The last battle was fought at Yorktown in 1781, when Lord Cornwallis was compelled to surrender his whole army to General Washington.

The war with France and Spain was continued for some months, during which Great Britain gained an important victory over France in the West Indies, and forced Spain to



abandon the siege of Gibraltar. **In 1783 peace was restored** by treaty, in which Great Britain recognized the independence of the colonies.

Lord North and Fox.—Lord North's failure to hold the colonies led to the fall of his ministry and to a brief Whig rule. Among the Whig leaders was **Charles James Fox**, one of the most brilliant orators of his time. Taking offense for some cause, he deserted his party. He and North had long been on opposite sides, and had said abusive things about each other. They now joined forces, turned the Whigs out of

power, and formed a new ministry. The king did not like Fox, and he now turned against North also.

Fox prepared a Bill for the better government of India. It passed the Commons by a large majority. The king informed the Peers that he would regard any one of them who voted for it as a personal enemy. Accordingly the Bill failed. Thereupon George dismissed his ministry, and sought a new Premier.

William Pitt the Younger, 1784.—The Earl of Chatham had a son whose name also was William Pitt. He had been in Parliament several years, and to distinguish him from his father he was called **William Pitt the Younger**. As an orator he was not equal to his father, but he was a greater statesman, and knew better how to manage the House of Commons. This was the man whom King George now chose for Premier. He was not yet twenty-five years old—the **youngest Prime Minister** Great Britain ever had. From this time until his death in 1806, with the exception of three years, he was leader of the government.



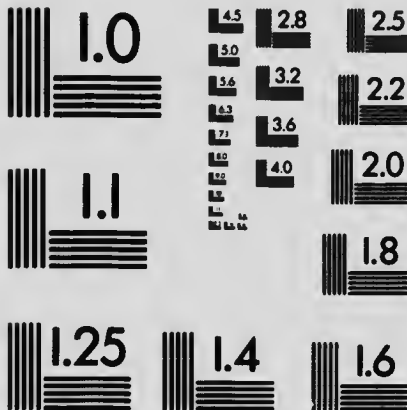
WILLIAM PITT THE YOUNGER.

Pitt's Victory.—It was no easy task that Pitt had undertaken. He had no able supporters in the Commons, and in this House his opponents, among whom were **Fox, Burke, Sheridan, and North**, had a large majority. They ridiculed him on account of his youth, and called upon him to resign. Pitt had the king behind him, and royal support counted for much in those days. Soon the opposition weakened, until finally it had but one of a majority. Then the king dissolved the House. In the new Parliament Pitt had all the support he needed.



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India.—Robert Clive, or Lord Clive as he came to be, amid many difficulties, during his rule in India extended the power and trade of the East India Company, and gained for himself great renown. Later, Warren Hastings, as governor-general, by his ability and courage, triumphed over the opposition of powerful native princes incited by French jealousy. He established a prosperous business for the Company, and laid the foundation of a vast Indian Empire for Great Britain.

The India Bill.—For some time it had been felt by British statesmen that this great country should not be left under the government of a trading company. One of Pitt's earliest measures was his India Bill, which placed the Company's government of India under the supervision of a national Board of Control.

Trial of Warren Hastings.—When Warren Hastings returned from India, he was greeted as one who deserved well of his country. Soon there came a change. He was charged with having treated native princes with shameful cruelty, forcing them by torture to give up their wealth, and with having hired out British troops to aid certain tribes in disgraceful warfare. For seven years, with intervals of rest, the trial went on before the House of Lords. Though the charges were enforced in masterful fashion by Fox and Burke, Hastings was acquitted, though not until his vast fortune had been spent in his defense.

Loss and Gain.—George the Third might well feel sad over having, in his unwisdom and wilfulness, driven thirteen colonies from the empire. On the other hand, he could point with pride to the vast new territory that during his reign was being added, to be handed down as gems in the British crown. The Treaty of Paris had given **Canada** and **Cape Breton**; Captain Cook, the great navigator, in 1770 planted his nation's flag on **Australia** and **New Zealand**; Clive and Hastings added the **Indian Empire**; and during the wars with Napoleon, **Cape Colony** was taken from the Dutch.

Progress —It was an eventful era, this long reign of George the Third, and the pages of its history need not be wholly filled with the story of politics and war. The forces of peace-

ful labor had also their triumphs. **Farming was carried on more skilfully.** The soil was drained and fertilized; large areas that had lain in common were fenced and cultivated; more and better grain and vegetables were raised; **improved breeds of cattle and sheep** were reared.

But it was the **manufacturing industries** of Great Britain that now entered on the most wonderful new life. England had always been a farming country; henceforth it was to become one great workshop. Woollen manufactures had long been carried on. Interest was now awakened in the making of **cottons, iron goods, and pottery.**

Wonderful inventions came to the aid of the manufacturer. Spinning and weaving had been hand-work, carried on in the homes of the workers. James Hargreaves invented a machine called the **spinning-jenny**; Richard Arkwright improved on this by his **spinning-frame**; Samuel Crompton then invented the **spinning-mule**, which could spin more in an hour than many men in a day. A little later Cartwright, a clergyman, made a **weaving-machine**; and then James Watt made a **steam-engine** for driving machinery; while in another field of industry Josiah Wedgwood discovered ways of making the **finest porcelain** from English clay, and others found out that **iron ore** could be **smelted with coal** fuel in place of wood.

The public roads also were greatly improved, and **canals** were constructed, so that raw material could be more easily brought to the centres of industry, and manufactured goods taken to market. All these things led to the establishment of factories—mostly in the coal and iron districts in the north of England. Thus great towns and cities grew up where before there had been few inhabitants.

All this, however, was not brought about without much disadvantage. One machine did more work in a day than several men could do in a month. Many laborers were thrown out of employment, and their families were starving. Besides, to obtain cheap labor, heartless employers brought pauper children into the factories to tend the machines. These children, often only half-fed, were compelled to work long hours

beyond their strength. Maddened by so much distress, unemployed laborers rushed into riot, tore down the factories, and destroyed the machines. In the end, however, **the inventions helped everybody**. New markets were found, better and cheaper goods were made, and there was work enough for all.

The French Revolution, 1789.—The Revolution which broke out in France in 1789 was one of the great world-events of history. During the reigns of Louis the Fourteenth and Louis the Fifteenth, **bad government, war, and waste** brought this beautiful country to the verge of ruin. The poor peasants were taxed heavily, while the nobles and others who were wealthy paid little to meet the public expense. Finally



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

oppression drove the people to madness. The **mob of Paris** rose in all its strength and fury, and there followed **the Reign of Terror**, during which humanity and reason and law yielded to wild passion. The great stone prison called the Bastille was torn down, and the prisoners were set free to join in the mad career. Many of the nobles and those who took their part were put to death. As the headsman's axe was too slow in cutting off men's heads, a machine called **the guillotine** was invented for

the work. **Louis the Sixteenth** and his queen, **Marie Antoinette**, were among its victims.

The French Republic.—Soon the French republic, set up in place of the monarchy, began to intermeddle in the affairs of other people. Several of the nations of Western Europe, including Great Britain, gained some naval victories; but on land the French army, led by **Napoleon Bonaparte**, soon to become one of the greatest generals the world has ever seen, was victorious. Several of the powers were frightened into

submission. Spain became an ally of France, and Holland a republic under French control. **Great Britain stood alone.**

Dark Days, 1796-1797.—Affairs in England looked serious. There was trouble in Ireland. Britain had sent large subsidies to help her late allies against France, and there was little gold left in the country. The Bank of England refused to cash its notes. Two serious **mutinies** broke out in the **navy**—one at Spithead, and one at the Nore.

Two great naval victories brought some relief—one over Spain, off Cape St. Vincent, the other over Holland, off Camperdown. In the British Parliament Pitt urged the prosecution of the war, Fox called for peace.



ADMIRAL NELSON.

Napoleon in the East, 1798-1801.—With a French fleet and army, Napoleon set out for the East. A part of his plan was the conquest of India, in which Great Britain's power was threatened by the insurrection of a native prince. In Egypt he gained **the Battle of the Pyramids** near Cairo. His plans, however, were broken up by the destruction of his fleet in Aboukir Bay by **Admiral Nelson**. Marching across the desert with his army, he entered Palestine, where he captured Jaffa, but was defeated at Acre. Leaving his army in Egypt, he now hastened back to France, where affairs were in a disturbed

state. His failure in the East had led to a strong alliance of European powers against him.

Napoleon First Consul.—France was now placed under the rule of three consuls, but Napoleon, with the title of First Consul, wielded all the power. Having broken up the strong alliance formed against France during his absence, he soon had the chief nations of the Continent under his control. **Great Britain's navy** was the great obstacle in his pathway, and this he resolved to crush.

Britain seizes the Danish Fleet.—These were dark days for Britain. She stood alone against Europe. A coalition of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark had been formed, and their fleets were about to unite with those of France and Spain against her. A bold measure wrought a wondrous change. A British naval force, under Parker and Nelson, appeared before Copenhagen, demanded the surrender of the Danish fleet, and bombarded the town until the ships were given up.



The Peace of Amiens, 1802.—Other reverses coming at the same time, Napoleon thought best to let matters rest for a little. Peace was restored by the Treaty of Amiens, in which the islands of **Ceylon** and **Trinidad** were **ceded to Great Britain**.

Ireland.—Irish affairs claim a brief notice. Ireland had never been well governed, nor had its people been fairly treated. Some of the best parts of the island had been given to English and Scottish settlers, while the native Irish had been forced into the poorer districts, or driven out of the country. **An Irish Parliament** met in Dublin; but this Parliament could originate no Bills—only say **Yes or No**

to measures proposed by the British Privy Council. Perhaps this was well for the great body of the Irish people, for they had no voice in their Parliament. Although forming over three-fourths of the population, Roman Catholics and Dissenters could not sit in that Parliament or vote for its members. Not only this, but they were excluded from all public offices, civil and military. Nor did the Irish Parliament fairly represent the Anglicans. The House of Commons was composed of about three hundred members, one half of whom held their seats as the gift of twenty-eight great landowners. After 1782 freedom was granted this Parliament to originate its own Bills.

Moreover, in matters of trade with England, Ireland was treated as a foreign country, its products being taxed with heavy duties. Pitt wanted to remove the duties, but the English farmers feared this would spoil their markets.

Irish Rebellion.—The independence of the American colonies, and the French Revolution, stirred up an agitation among the Irish people. A society, called **The United Irishmen**, composed of Roman Catholics and Protestants, was formed, bent on securing reform. During the agitation Roman Catholics secured the right to vote, but they were not allowed to hold seats in Parliament. Rebellion broke out, and the country was soon in a state of anarchy. The insurgents entered upon warfare and outrage of the fiercest sort, and the measures used to put them down were equally brutal. Finally the rebels were defeated at Vinegar Hill, and visited with punishment too shocking to be described.

Union, 1800.—Hoping thus to secure harmony, Pitt set about uniting Ireland with Great Britain in one common Parliament. He had little trouble in persuading the British Parliament to adopt the measure, but it was not so easy to carry a resolution for union in Ireland. What could not be gained through persuasion he got by purchase. By a free use of money and peerages he obtained a majority of the Irish Parliament, and the Union was effected. Ireland was allowed to send twenty-eight members to the House of Lords, and one hundred members to the Commons.

It was part of Pitt's scheme to remove all religious barriers and give Roman Catholics equal privileges with Protestants. To this King George replied, "I count any man my personal enemy who proposes such a measure." Failing to persuade him, **Pitt resigned** the office of Prime Minister. His resignation took place in the year preceding the Peace of Amiens.

Napoleon crowns himself Emperor, 1804.—Napoleon now took the title of Emperor. After bringing the Pope all the way from Rome to Paris to crown him, in the midst of the coronation ceremony he took the crown from the Pope's hands and placed it on his head himself.

Peace is broken.—Napoleon asserted that Great Britain had not done as she promised in the Treaty of Amiens. This was true, but neither had he fulfilled his part of the agreement. Two years had not passed before war was again declared. Napoleon began hostile measures by imprisoning several thousand English tourists whom he found in France. He gathered a force of a hundred thousand men at Boulogne for the invasion of England, and he collected a great fleet of French and Spanish warships to convoy the army across the Channel. So sure was he of victory, that he had a medal struck to commemorate the event.

Trafalgar, 1805.—All Britain was astir. Pitt was recalled to power, and though broken down in health, he responded to the call. At the sound of the war trumpet, three hundred thousand volunteers gathered for military drill. But England looked specially to her navy and to **Admiral Nelson** for defense.

Off Cape Trafalgar the great admiral met the enemy. From the masthead of the *Victory* he signalled

his famous message to his fleet, "**England expects every man to do his duty.**" The victory was complete, and Napoleon's



naval power was utterly destroyed. But England scarcely knew whether to rejoice more in a national triumph or to mourn the loss of a hero. **Nelson** had fallen **fatally wounded**.

Napoleon's Victories.—Meanwhile, on land, Napoleon was everywhere victorious over Britain's allies. Austria was beaten at Ulm, Austria with Russia at Austerlitz, Prussia at Jena. From Prussia's capital Napoleon issued the famous **Berlin Decree**, forbidding the nations to trade with Great Britain, and closing the harbors of Europe to vessels sailing from British ports. He and Alexander of Russia, having formed an alliance, forced Sweden to break friendship with Great Britain and join them.

Death of Pitt, 1806.—Great Britain had been supplying money for carrying on the wars, and the defeat of her allies was a serious matter. To Pitt, in his feeble health, it was a fatal blow. In the following year Charles Fox also died, and the two statesmen, who once opposed each other so strenuously, now sleep side by side in Westminster Abbey.

The Orders in Council.—The new ministry, led by Lord Grenville, replied to the Berlin Decree by **Orders in Council**, declaring all ports of France and of her allies to be under blockade, by which all ships visiting them were liable to seizure.

Abolition of the Slave Trade.—An important work of this ministry was the abolition of the slave trade between West Africa and America, a measure for which **Wilberforce** had long contended, and which was even now stoutly opposed by the merchants of Liverpool.

Change of Ministry, 1807.—Since the Union, Irish Catholics were allowed to hold position in the army up to the rank of colonel. By proposing to give the same privilege to English Catholics, the Grenville Ministry aroused the anger of King George, and brought about its dismissal. The Tories now came back to power, which they held until the close of George the Fourth's reign.

Seizure of the Danish Fleet, 1807.—George Canning, the most active member of the cabinet, was Foreign Minister. Learning that Napoleon and Alexander of Russia were about to gain possession of the fleet of Denmark, he hastened to fore-

stall them. A British naval force, secretly dispatched to Copenhagen, demanded the handing over of the Danish fleet to Great Britain, with the promise of its restoration at the close of the war. This demand being refused, it was enforced by the bombardment of the city.

The Peninsular War, 1808-1813.—By attempting to place



DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain, Napoleon aroused the opposition of that country. For five years the conflict known as the Peninsular War was waged in Spain and Portugal by the French under Napoleon's generals against the allied forces of Spain and Great Britain. The British generals were **Sir John Moore**, who was killed early in the war, and **Sir Arthur Wellesley**, better known by his later title, Duke of Wellington. After many brilliant exploits, not without some reverses,

Wellington drove the French out of Spain, and followed them closely across the Pyrenees into France.

Napoleon's Retreat from Moscow, 1812.—In the ever-changing scene of alliances and conflicts, France and Russia were again at war with each other. At the head of nearly half a million men, **Napoleon** marched into Russia, and after gaining a victory at Borodino he pushed on to **Moscow**, then the largest city in the Russian Empire, where he intended to winter with his army. The Russians, adopting extreme measures, set fire to the city, and instead of homes the French found only heaps of ashes. It was winter in that northern land, and now with neither shelter nor food Napoleon's only course was retreat to France. A fearful march was that retreat of the great conqueror. His men died of cold and of starva-

tion, and they were slaughtered by the Russians, who closely followed them as they fled. Of the vast host but one hundred thousand reached France.

Napoleon on Elba, 1814.—In his hour of misfortune Napoleon had no allies that he could call to his aid. Defeated by the united forces of Russia, Prussia, and Austria in the hard-fought battle of Leipzig, he was driven into Paris. Beaten at last, he gave himself up. The victors stripped him of the remnant of his power, and gave him the little island of Elba for his kingdom.

Napoleon again in France, 1815.—Louis the Eighteenth was seated on the throne of his ancestors, and the allied powers were busy readjusting the disordered affairs of Europe. Scarcely a year had elapsed when the nations were startled by Napoleon's return to France. His old soldiers, at least, welcomed his return, and flocked to his standard. As he marched in triumph to Paris, King Louis fled from the city. There followed throughout Western Europe commotion, hurry, and preparation for renewed conflict. **The main burden fell on Great Britain, Belgium, and Prussia.** Their forces gathered in Belgium—the British and Belgians under **Wellington**, the Prussians under **Blücher**. The two divisions were some miles apart. Napoleon's plan was to fight each separately, and he sent Marshal Ney against Wellington, while he attacked Blücher.

Quatre Bras and Ligny, June 16.—Wellington was at Brussels, watching the movements of the enemy. On the evening of June 15, he and his officers attended a ball given by the Duchess of Richmond. About midnight he was told that the foe was advancing. To guard against panic, orders were whispered to the officers, and one by one they quietly withdrew from the scene of festivity for the more serious arena of the battlefield. On the following day was fought the Battle of Quatre Bras, in which Wellington was victorious. On the same day Blücher was defeated at Ligny by Napoleon.

Waterloo, June 18.—The two great armies had measured strength with each other, but the contest was not decisive. Napoleon now massed his forces and attacked Wellington at

Waterloo before Blücher, who was twelve miles distant, could come to his aid. Napoleon's army comprised about 72,000 men. Wellington's forces numbered about 68,000, of which a considerable portion consisted of Belgian troops who were in sympathy with Napoleon, and would gladly have changed sides. For several hours both armies fought with desperation, each in the main holding its ground. But now, towards evening,



Blücher, who had all day been struggling through swamps made almost impassable by heavy rain, arrived with his army of relief. The French soon gave way, and fled in disorder from the field. The slaughter on both sides had been fearful. The allies lost in killed and wounded over 20,000 men; the French probably a much larger number.

Napoleon on St. Helena.—Napoleon fled in haste to Paris.

Realizing that all was lost, he abdicated the throne. With the hope of escaping to America he now hastened to Rochefort; but finding that the coast was closely watched, he gave himself up to the British admiral. Shortly after he was placed by the allied powers on the island of St. Helena, where, under close guard, he was kept for the remainder of his life. He died on May 5, 1821. *or second war 1812-1815*

The second American War, 1812-1815.—During the last three years of the wars with Napoleon, Great Britain had renewed conflict with her old colonies, then forming the United States of America. One cause of the war was Great Britain's claim called "the right of search," by which she insisted on searching foreign vessels for deserters from her navy. To this was added the seizure of American vessels caught running the blockade into French ports in violation of the Orders in Council. The war was waged chiefly on Canadian soil and on the sea. It is more fully described in the history of Canada.

King George's great Troubles.—King George the Third at different times during his reign so lost his reason that he was unfit for business, and in 1810 he became hopelessly insane. To add to his misfortunes, he lost his sight and hearing. His son George, Prince of Wales, afterwards George the Fourth, was then made regent, and continued to act in place of the king while his father lived.

National Troubles.—Long wars are apt to be followed by hard times. During the wars with Napoleon, not only had Great Britain equipped and fed her own soldiers, but she had given large sums of money to her allies for the maintenance of their armies. **The National Debt** was thus increased from £239,000,000 to £860,000,000. To pay the interest on this vast sum, and meet ordinary expenses of government, called for heavy taxes. To make matters worse, **trade was dull**, there was no market for British manufactures, and many **factories were closed**. Then, soldiers not now needed for war were disbanded, and there was nothing for them to do. Add to all this, **food was very scarce**, and for the benefit of the landowners the price of grain was kept up by the **Corn Laws**, which imposed high duties on foreign grain.

Agitation for Reform.—At this time the British Parliament represented only the higher classes and the great landowners. The manufacturers and laboring men had no voice in the government. A clamor now arose for parliamentary reform. Among the agitators was **William Cobbett**, a bookseller and author. He told the people that bad government was the cause of all their troubles, and that to make things right every man should have a vote.

The ministry of the day was not led by broad-minded men who knew how to bring about needed reform. Fearing revolution, they tried only to put down disorder, by which course they sometimes nearly drove the people to rebellion. A serious blunder of this kind happened at Manchester, where a mass meeting for the discussion of grievances was broken up by military force.

Death of George III., 1820.—During this period of agitation George the Third, after one of the longest reigns in British history, passed away. He was succeeded by his son George, who for several years had acted as regent.

GEORGE IV.

1820–1830.

Character.—On account of the elegance of his manners and the fine clothes he wore, George the Fourth was called the "first gentleman in Europe." It is said that his coats cost \$50,000 a year. But with all his polish and finery he was a man of very bad morals, the worst of all the Georges.

The Cato Street Conspiracy.—Early in the reign a plot was formed by a man named Thistlewood to murder all the members of the cabinet as they were dining together. It had its origin not so much in any personal spite against the ministers as in the foolish notion that their removal would secure more freedom to the people. A part of the scheme was to set free all criminals from the prisons, burn London, and bring about a revolution. The police crept on the conspirators as they

were about leaving their hiding-place in Cato Street to carry out their wicked plans. This brought them and their plot to grief.

3 **Queen Caroline.**—Prince George and his wife, Caroline of Brunswick, never could agree, and they separated shortly after their marriage. They had one lovely daughter, the Princess Charlotte, who died the year before George came to the throne. Had she outlived her father, she would have been Queen of England.

For years the Princess Caroline had lived abroad, but when George became king she returned to share his honors. The king refused to receive her, and asked the House of Lords to dissolve the marriage. Caroline was ably defended by the clever Whig lawyer, Henry Brougham, afterwards Lord Brougham, and so strong was public sympathy in her favor that the case was abandoned. During the coronation ceremony the queen came to the door of Westminster Abbey, but she was not allowed to enter.

4 **Reform.**—During the reign there was much agitation for reform. The ministry consisted chiefly of high Tories, like the Duke of Wellington, who thought that little change was needed. There came in, however, two or three new members of more liberal views who were able to secure some good measures. **Robert Peel** brought about **reform in criminal law** by persuading Parliament to remove the death penalty from many small offences, such as stealing a fish from a pond or injuring Westminster Bridge. For about a hundred small crimes that had been punished by hanging there was fixed a lighter penalty. Trade was encouraged by taking off some of the high duties from foreign goods.

5 **The Holy Alliance.**—After the wars with Napoleon had ended, several of the sovereigns of Europe entered into an agreement, called **The Holy Alliance**, promising to aid each other in putting down any revolt that might arise in their kingdoms. Thus a French army quelled a rebellion against despotic rule in Spain. Then Spain tried to prevent the people of Portugal from having a Parliament to make laws in place of a despotic monarchy. **George Canning**, who was then

Foreign Minister—that is, the member of Cabinet who has charge of the business of the government with foreign nations—opposed this interference.

Again, some of the powers of Europe were planning to help Spain to subdue Mexico and other colonies in South America that were asserting their independence. Canning, supported by the United States, objected to this, and said that Spain might conquer her rebellious subjects if she were able, but other nations must not intermeddle. In this way originated the famous "**Monroe Doctrine**," by which the United States forbids European nations to extend their power over territory in America.

Changes in the Ministry, 1827.—The ministry was composed of two parties—high Tories and those of more liberal views. Towards the end of the reign **George Canning**, one of the latter class, became **Premier**. The high Tories, including Wellington and Peel, refused to serve under him, and the cabinet fell apart. Canning got aid from the Whigs, but his rule was cut short by death. After a brief interval Wellington was chosen as leader of the government, with Robert Peel as his strongest colleague.

Repeal of the Test Act and the Corporation Act.—The Corporation Act, passed early in the reign of Charles the Second, and the Test Act later in the same reign, excluding Roman Catholics and Dissenters from town offices and positions under the government, were still on the statute book. For a century, however, these laws had not been enforced against Dissenters, though any movement to repeal them always raised a storm of resistance. Not without strong opposition, they were now repealed as far as they concerned Dissenters. Roman Catholics and Jews were still not allowed to hold office.

Daniel O'Connell.—It remained for the great Irish leader Daniel O'Connell to break down the barriers. O'Connell had a strong voice, ready wit, and a rough eloquence by which he could sway his countrymen as he pleased. Though a Roman Catholic, he was elected member for Clare.

Catholic Emancipation, 1829.—Wellington and Peel saw the breakers ahead. Exclude O'Connell, and rebellion in Ire-

land would follow. To the disgust of many of their Tory followers, they passed the Emancipation Bill, making Roman Catholics eligible for any position in the kingdom, except that of king, regent, lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and chancellor.

Death of George IV., 1830.—George the Fourth died in 1830, leaving no child to inherit the throne. He was succeeded by his brother William, second son of George the Third.

SOCIAL CONDITION UNDER THE FOUR GEORGES.

DURING this age **manufacturing industry**, for which the country has since become so famous, started on new lines. **The introduction of machinery** greatly reduced the cost of products. At first it threw many laborers out of work and led to serious riots. The destitute families of these laborers were aided as paupers out of the public funds. In this way began the system of "**outdoor relief**" which at length, becoming such a heavy burden on tax-payers and destroying all spirit of independence, called for **new poor laws** in the reign of William the Fourth.

The introduction of **cotton manufactures** aroused the fierce opposition of the woollen weavers. People who wore cotton garments were attacked in the streets, and their clothing was torn from their backs.

The roads throughout the country, though somewhat improved by the turnpike system with its toll-gates, were still very bad. Wheeled vehicles travelled slowly, and were little used. The mail-coach from London to Edinburgh, which went over the route once a month, made about twenty-five miles a day. Often it stuck in the mud, or was upset by a wheel falling into a deep rut. It was liable, also, to be held up by mounted highwaymen, disguised in masks, who robbed the passengers of their money and valuables.

Robbery was common even on the streets of London. It is said that George the Second, while walking in Kensington Garden, was robbed of his purse, watch, and shoe buckles by a fellow who climbed over the garden wall.

There was **little education** in those times, and the means of spreading knowledge were very limited. There were few schools, no telegraphs or telephones, and very few newspapers. Indeed, many of the people could not read. In country districts they rarely went abroad, and they knew little of what was going on in the world. Under this mode of life each little community became a world by itself, formed its own customs, and even spoke a sort of dialect of its own.

Criminal laws were very severe. But this very severity caused many evildoers to go unpunished. A jury would bring in a verdict of not guilty rather than send a man to the gallows for stealing five shillings or injuring a tree.

To deter from crimes, the bodies of those who were hanged were left exposed to public view until little more than the skeleton remained. Until 1790 the law required that women sentenced to death should be burned.

Prisons were very filthy, full of vermin, and pestilential with germs of disease. Judge and jury sometimes took fever or other disease from sitting in the court, the air of which was infected by the clothing of a prisoner. It was during the reign of George the Third that the noted philanthropist **John Howard** sacrificed his life in the work of prison reform.

Duelling was a common mode of settling disputes between gentlemen. Even members of Parliament sometimes ended their quarrels in this way.

There were **many fashions of dress** that would appear odd enough at the present time. A lady's headdress was a showy affair. Another marked feature was the great hoop-skirt worn beneath her dress. Her face was dotted over with patches of black court plaster, and she put them in such positions as to show whether she was Whig or Tory. The fan was a most necessary part of a lady's outfit. This she was constantly opening, furling, and fluttering.

The gentlemen also had their fashions. The coat was of velvet or silk, and of some showy colour—sky-blue, claret, or pink—trimmed with gold lace and linen frills. The vest was of flowered silk, coming down half way to the knees. Their legs were clad in knee-breeches and long silk stockings.

Their shoes were adorned with buckles set with diamonds. They wore their hair very long and dusted with powder, or the head was covered with a periwig of false hair, closely matted and hanging down over the shoulder in long curls. A three-cornered hat was often carried under the arm. In place of a fan, a gentleman carried a gold snuff-box, which he often displayed. To carry an umbrella exposed him to ridicule, and to his being followed on the street by a jeering crowd.

WILLIAM IV.

1830-1837.

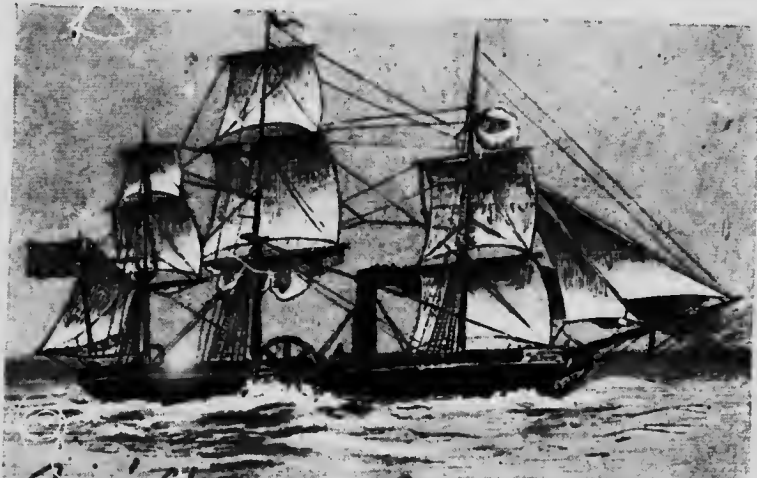
Character.—William the Fourth was sixty-five years old when he began his reign. Having spent much of his life in the royal navy, he was called "the sailor king." Kind-



FIRST LOCOMOTIVE USED ON THE STOCKTON AND DARLINGTON RAILWAY.

hearted, jovial, and caring little for strict court ceremony, he tried to do what he thought best for his people and to gain their good-will. Happily the story of his reign is not darkened by war, but tells instead of reform and progress.

Railways and Steamboats.—Early in the century railways with trucks driven by steam were used for carrying coal from the mines. In 1825 the **Stockton and Darlington Railway** had been opened, suited to both steam and horse power, the latter being used for passenger cars. Meanwhile **George Stephenson**, the son of a poor collier of Northumberland, by long study and toil, had been working at a locomotive engine that could be used for rapid travel. This locomotive



Built in Quebec.
EARLY ATLANTIC STEAMER. 1833.

was first used on the **Liverpool and Manchester Railway**, opened in 1830.

Ocean travel by steam came a little later. The first ship to cross the Atlantic, driven wholly by steam, was the *Royal William*, built in Quebec. In the summer of 1833 she made the voyage from Pictou, Nova Scotia, to London in nineteen days.

Parliamentary Reform.—The great question of the day was reform in choosing members for the House of Commons. Parliament was supposed to represent the people, but in fact its members were chosen chiefly by a few great landowners. The counties sent two members each. Some of the boroughs sent two, some one; while others, like Manchester, Leeds, and

Liverpool, though much larger, had no representative. The population of a place had nothing to do with the matter. Forty-six boroughs, having each less than fifty voters, sent a total of ninety members to the House of Commons. There was a deserted village, called **Old Sarum**, without a single inhabitant, which had its two members, chosen by the owner of the land.

Moreover, in many of these "**rotten boroughs**," as they were called, the inhabitants had little choice in selecting their member. They were tenants of some great landlord, and they were compelled to vote as he directed. In this way eighty-four landlords controlled one hundred and fifty-seven seats in Parliament. These seats they sometimes sold to wealthy men who desired to sit in the Commons, or they presented them to a friend, who was expected to vote on important questions as the landlord desired.

In Scotland matters were still worse. The county of Bute had but twenty voters, and many of these seldom went to the polls. On one occasion there came but one elector. He voted for himself, and thus became the member for the shire.

Earl Grey's Ministry.—These were some of the evils of which the people complained. But the Duke of Wellington, who was Prime Minister, said matters were well enough—reform meant revolution. The king, favoring the popular demand, dismissed the ministry, and called on Earl Grey, a man of much culture and power as a speaker, to form a new government. Among his strong supporters were his son-in-law Lord Durham, Lord Melbourne, Lord Palmerston, Lord Brougham, and, in the House of Commons, Lord John Russell.

The Reform Bill, 1831.—The Reform Bill introduced by Lord John Russell failed to pass the Commons. A new election made such change that in the new House it was carried by a large majority. Its rejection by the House of Lords aroused the indignation of the people. Serious riots followed. Wellington's house was stormed by the mob, and its windows were broken. In the following year the Bill again passed the Commons and again failed in the Lords. Earl Grey then asked

the king to create new peers, so as to secure a majority for the measure. To this his Majesty would not consent, and Grey resigned. The Duke of Wellington, failing to secure the support of the Commons, Grey was soon recalled, with the understanding that if the Lords would not yield new peers would be created. The Tory members of the House of Lords would not vote for the Bill, but they allowed it to pass by absenting themselves from the House when the vote was taken.

Results of the Act.—The measure wrought great change. Fifty-six boroughs lost their members entirely, thirty others lost one each, and twenty-two large towns for the first time secured representation. The Act was a great blow to the landowners. One of them lost eleven seats, another nine, another seven. The franchise—that is, the privilege of voting—was largely extended by giving a vote to tenants in the county paying £50 a year rent, and to those in the towns paying £10 a year.

Abolition of Slavery, 1833.—The Parliament elected under the new law contained many members who were eager to carry the work of reform still further. Some of them, indeed, who were called **Radicals**, wanted to go so far beyond what was thought to be for the public good that they were a source of trouble.

A burning question which had long waited for solution was freedom for negro slaves in the West Indies. **William Wilberforce**, the great leader in the movement, nearly half a century before began an agitation against the slave trade. This traffic was put down in 1807. After the labors of a lifetime, he lived just long enough to see a Bill passed for the abolition of slavery. To make up for the loss of the planters the sum of £20,000,000 was voted by Parliament.

X **Other Reforms.**—A change in the Poor Law was greatly needed. Large sums of money were paid every year for "out-door" relief—that is, in helping the poor in their own homes. Men quite able to support themselves and their families were willing to be classed as paupers, and live in idleness at public expense. This had grown to be a shameful evil and a heavy burden on the tax-payers. A law was now passed which

provided that all who received aid, except aged and infirm persons, must be sent to the workhouse.

A law was enacted also for the protection of women and children working in factories and in the mines. The hours of labor were shortened, and the cruel treatment from which the laborers had suffered was forbidden.

Hitherto persons on trial for felony—that is, high crime punishable by death—could speak in their own defense, but they were not allowed the aid of a lawyer. They were now allowed legal assistance.

The monopoly of the East India Company was abolished, and trade with India was thrown open to all.

The cheapening of newspapers was a most important reform. This was brought about by removing the heavy excise duty on paper, and reducing the postage on newspapers from fourpence to one penny. This led to a vast increase in the circulation of papers, by which people were made more intelligent and taught to take more interest in public affairs.

The friction match came into use in this reign. People of the present day can scarcely imagine how those of the olden time obtained fire without this simple but most useful article.

Change of Premier.—Earl Grey's rule was short. Lord Melbourne succeeded him as Prime Minister, with little other change in the cabinet. Disturbed alike by Tories, Radicals, and the Irish, his government was never very stable. Daniel O'Connell stormed Parliament on the great Irish question, Repeal of the Union, and on the Abolition of Tithes, by which Roman Catholics and Dissenters in Ireland were compelled to support the Anglican Church.

Fearing, perhaps, that the Whigs were making too many changes, the king dismissed them from office, and called on Sir Robert Peel to form a ministry. Peel was an able statesman, and he was one of the most liberal-minded men of the Tory party, but he could not at that time secure a majority in the Commons. Thus King William was obliged to reinstate Lord Melbourne.

The Tories now began to call themselves **Conservatives**,

by which they meant to show that it was their aim to conserve or hold fast by all that was wise and good. The Whigs dropped their old name, too, and took the name of **Liberals**.

Death of the King, 1837.—King William died at the age of seventy-two, leaving no child to succeed him.

VICTORIA.

1837-1901.

Early Life and Character.—The Princess Alexandrina Victoria was the only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George the Third. Her father died when she was but a few months old. Her mother, a lady of good sense and noble character, brought her up in a simple way, allowing her to see little of court life, which at that time was not such as she wished her daughter to imitate. The princess was trained in habits of economy and self-reliance. She was not brilliant. To be good and to do right were her highest aims.

It was about five o'clock in the morning of June 20, 1837, when the princess was awakened to receive the messengers who had come from Windsor Castle to Kensington Palace to tell her that she was Queen of Great Britain. She showed more grief over her uncle's death than joy over the high honors which had come to herself. Her modesty, grace of manner, and calm dignity commanded the admiration of all who were admitted to her presence.

Hanover.—Since the accession of George the First the crown of Hanover had been united with that of Great Britain. As the laws of that country did not allow a woman to occupy the throne, it now passed to the queen's uncle, Ernest Augustus.

Difficulties.—As Queen Victoria looked abroad over her wide domain she saw much to cause anxiety. There was **unrest at home and abroad**. Aided by the Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, who was ever at her call as instructor and guide, she applied herself with great diligence to the study of the situation.

The Chartists.—The more moderate of the Whig party, including the leaders, thought that reform had been carried far enough. Extremists, however, wanted much more radical changes. The measures they called for were embraced in a document called "**The People's Charter**," and those who urged these measures were called Chartists. The Charter included six articles:—

1. **Universal Suffrage**—that is, every man should have a vote.

2. **Voting by Ballot**—which meant secret voting, so that every man could vote as he pleased.

3. **No Property Qualification for Members of Parliament**—so that a poor man might be eligible.

4. **Annual Parliaments**—a new election every year, to keep Parliament in constant touch with the people.

5. **Salaries for Members of Parliament**—so that a poor man having been elected could afford to take his seat.

6. **The Division of the Kingdom into Electoral Districts of equal Population**—so that each member might represent the same number of people.

These demands at that time seemed wildly extravagant, yet the first three have long ago been practically secured without any disastrous consequences. The Chartists were impatient and tried to force matters. Hence arose riots and outrage.

Rebellion in Canada, 1837-1838.—Trouble in Canada drifted into rebellion. Here, as in England, the people were clamoring for reform. In Upper Canada affairs were managed by the governor, aided by a council chosen from a few old families; in Lower Canada, where the people were nearly all of French descent, the council was chosen from the English-speaking people. The rebellion was easily put down, and soon after the two provinces were united under one Parliament, with a ministry responsible to the peoples' representatives.

Postal Reform, 1840.—Postage on letters was very high, varying from one shilling to two shillings, according to the distance, and to the number of sheets of paper in the letter. The officials were authorized to open sealed letters to find out

the number of sheets used. It was not customary to prepay the postage. A change was brought about in a singular way.

The poet Coleridge, when visiting a town in the Lake District of England, saw a postman call at a house and give a letter to a young woman. The girl looked at it and gave it back, saying that she could not pay the postage. Coleridge, feeling sorry for her, paid the money demanded, and gave her the letter. When the postman had gone, she opened it and showed the poet that it was simply a blank sheet. She then explained that she and her brother, who was in London, had agreed on this plan of letting each other know that all was well with them.

When Coleridge returned to London he told the story to Rowland Hill. Mr. Hill thought over the matter, and then set to work to bring about reform. The outcome was the reduction of the rate to one penny for all parts of the kingdom. The thing that greatly surprised the statesmen of that day was that more money was received under the new system for postage than under the high rate.

Cunard Steamers, 1840.—Passengers and mails, as well as freight, up to this time had been carried across the Atlantic between Europe and America by sailing vessels, occupying about thirty days on the voyage. A regular line of steamships was now established by **Samuel Cunard**, a native of Halifax, Nova Scotia. The first voyage was made by the *Britannia* from Liverpool to Halifax in July (4-19) 1840.

The Queen's Marriage, 1840.—Three years after she came to the throne, the queen married her cousin **Prince Albert** of Saxe-Coburg. Prince Albert, who became known as the Prince Consort, was a man of varied scholarship, of high culture, and of sterling character. He was thoroughly devoted to the queen, and aided her greatly by his wise counsel.

War with China, 1840.—A war with China arose over the opium trade. The Chinese were much addicted to the use of opium, and English merchants persisted in smuggling it in from India after its importation had been forbidden. The Chinese Government seized and destroyed large quantities of

the drug. At the close of the war Great Britain compelled China to pay for this and also for the cost of the war.

War in Afghanistan, 1839-1841.—Of all her great neighbors Russia is the one which Great Britain has to watch most closely. The Czar would like to have India. The easiest route of march to this country from Russia lies through



Afghanistan. Thus each nation is desirous of holding first place in the friendship of the chief ruler, the Ameer.

Early in the queen's reign a British army from India replaced on the throne of Afghanistan a ruler who had been deposed by a prince who was friendly to Russia. A large part of the army then withdrew, leaving a force insufficient to guard Britain's ally or for self-protection against hostile natives.

After some of their officers had been treacherously murdered, the British decided to withdraw from the country. The story of their retreat to India is one of fearful massacre.

It was winter, and the way led through narrow mountain passes overhung by high cliffs. The troops numbered four thousand five hundred, with several thousand camp followers. As they clambered over ice-covered rocks, through the gorges, they were shot down by fierce Afghans who lay in wait along the route. Of all the thousands who set out from Cabul only one man, Dr. Brydon, remained alive to reach Jellalabad, and his escape was due to his falling behind on a weary horse.

The Peel Ministry, 1841.—Melbourne's Ministry had for months been tottering to its fall. Once he resigned, but Sir



SIR ROBERT PEEL.

Robert Peel, the Conservative leader, refused to take office, because the wives and lady friends of the other party still remained in attendance on the queen. Later, this matter having been settled by the retirement of the chief ladies-in-waiting, Peel became Prime Minister. Unlike the rigid Tories of the Wellington type, he was quite liberal in his views. One of his supporters in the House of Commons was **William E. Gladstone**, who afterwards became the great leader of the Liberal party.

The Anti-Corn-Law League.—High duty on foreign grain still caused great complaint. The cost of living made high wages necessary, and manufacturers could not compete with other countries in the foreign markets. To carry on agitation for change, a society was formed, called **The Anti-Corn-Law League**. At its head were two noted men, **Richard Cobden** and **John Bright**, a Quaker, and one of the greatest orators of his time.

Famine in Ireland, 1845.—The agitators were aided by a great national calamity. Potatoes formed the chief food of many of the Irish people. A blight on this crop in 1845 left them in wretchedness and want. During the following winter many thousands were swept off by famine and fever. Liberal supplies of food were sent to the sufferers from England and the United States. Many of the Irish emigrated to other lands. All this, however, did not remove the distress.

Repeal of the Corn Laws, 1846.—As a relief measure Sir Robert Peel urged his party to remove the high duty on foreign grain. Some of his followers were willing. Others were angry, broke away from him, and formed a new party, called **Protectionists**. The Liberals, however, with Richard Cobden and Lord John Russell at their head, came to his aid, and the Corn Laws were repealed. The measure brought great relief to the poor in England as well as to those in Ireland. Peel very generously gave Richard Cobden the credit of the good deed.

The Russell Ministry.—The Protectionist section of the Conservative party looked on Peel as a deserter, and they soon found opportunity of voting with the Liberals on some question, and thus bringing about the fall of their old leader. In the new government Lord John Russell was Prime Minister, and Lord Palmerston was Foreign Secretary.

The Year of Revolutions, 1848.—The year 1848 is noted for wild excitement, riots, and revolutions among the various peoples of Europe. The French again dethroned their king, and set up a republic. This republic soon ended, as did the other, in an empire with a Napoleon at its head, a nephew of Napoleon the First.

The Chartist Petition, 1848.—The Chartists of England, seized by the epidemic of revolution, in milder form, rushed into action. Under the lead of Feargus O'Connor they got up a monster petition, signed, they said, by five millions of people. They called for a grand muster on Kennington Common, from which they planned to march, a hundred thousand strong, to Parliament House with their petition. The government, alarmed, called on citizens to volunteer as

special constables to keep order. A force of nearly two hundred thousand men under the hero of Waterloo responded to the call.

The Chartist gathering was a failure, and so was their petition. The names on the document did not number two millions. Many of them also were forged, and others were pure inventions. Among the forged signatures were those of the Queen, Prince Albert, the Duke of Wellington, Davy Jones, Pugnose, and Wooden-legs. Thus ended Chartism.

The Young Ireland Party.—In the same year came to grief a movement in Ireland for Repeal of the Union. Its advocates called themselves "The Young Ireland Party." Among its leaders were Smith O'Brien, John Mitchel, and Thomas Francis Meagher. Mitchel, who was a clever writer, published seditious articles, for which he was banished to Bermuda. O'Brien and Meagher were captured in open rebellion in the famous scene in the widow Cormack's cabbage garden. They were sentenced to be hanged, beheaded, and quartered, as the law required for high treason. The queen interposed, and they were banished to Australia.

Among the rebels was Thomas Darcy M'Gee. He fled to the United States, but afterwards came to Canada, was elected to Parliament, and became a member of Sir John A. Macdonald's Government.

The Exhibition of 1851.—The first of the world's great Exhibitions was in large measure due to Prince Albert. It was held in a great palace made of iron and glass, erected for the purpose in Hyde Park. It brought together for competition the products of many lands, and it gave marked impulse to the manufacturing industries of Great Britain.

In the same year the **discovery of gold in Australia** led to the colonizing of that great island-continent, now the seat of the prosperous Commonwealth of Australia.

Lord Palmerston.—Lord Palmerston was one of the ablest ministers in the government. His bold and vigorous policy made Great Britain respected among the nations. He failed, however, to please the queen. Her Majesty thought he showed her disrespect in his manner of doing business.

In dealing with foreign governments he had a habit of acting off-hand, without consulting the queen or his colleagues. Sometimes the queen was called on to assent to an arrangement of which she had no previous knowledge, and of which she disapproved.

The queen wrote to Lord John Russell, complaining of this treatment. Palmerston took the matter kindly, and promised amendment. Still he kept on much in the same way. He said the queen took too much time over questions submitted to her, and business was delayed.

Finally a crisis came. When Napoleon seized the throne of France, the queen and the ministry decided to recognize his government, but to express neither approval nor disapproval of his action. Palmerston, notwithstanding, told the French minister in London that Napoleon had taken the right course. The queen was greatly disturbed, and Russell told the offender that he must retire from the cabinet. Palmerston yielded gracefully to the rebuff, and waited with patience for another turn in the wheel of fortune. Nor had he long to wait.

Fall of the Russell Ministry, 1852.—The English people were suspicious of Napoleon. The government, deeming it wise to be prepared for war, brought in a new Militia Bill. An amendment to this Bill, moved by Palmerston, was carried, and the government resigned.

The Derby Ministry.—The new cabinet, of which Lord Derby was Premier and Mr. Disraeli was the only other member of note, was nicknamed "**The Who-Who Ministry.**" This odd name came from a conversation between Lord Derby and the Duke of Wellington. One evening in the House of Lords Wellington asked the Premier whom he was choosing for his colleagues in the ministry. The duke was hard of hearing, and as each minister was named he repeated his question, "Who? who?" The conversation was overheard, and thus came the nickname. The duke died soon after, at the age of eighty-four years.

A Coalition Ministry, 1852.—Lord Derby's Ministry was short-lived. It was followed by a government formed by

the union of two parties—Liberals and Moderate Conservatives or Peelites, as they were called. Lord Aberdeen was Premier, and other leaders were Lord John Russell, Lord Palmerston, and Mr. Gladstone.

Gladstone and Disraeli.—The two great statesmen, William E. Gladstone and Benjamin Disraeli, now stood in the front rank on opposite sides of the House. Both had been many years in Parliament—Mr. Gladstone entering in 1832, and Mr. Disraeli in 1837.

Gladstone was the son of a wealthy Scottish merchant. After a brilliant university career, he entered the House of Commons as a Conservative. He became a follower of Sir Robert Peel, whom he greatly admired. From being a Peelite, he gradually moved further away from his old-time party to become the broadest of Liberals. He was a writer of much power, and as a speaker he had few equals in Parliament.

Disraeli was of Jewish birth, but when thirteen years of age he with his family adopted the Christian faith. In his youth he was a Radical in politics, but when he entered Parliament he had gone over to the Conservative side. He was peculiar in manner and in dress. His green coat, broad-check trousers, showy vest, and lavish display of watch-chain made him conspicuous. His first speech in the Commons was a failure; and when he sat down, amid the jeers of the House, he remarked, "You will not hear me now, but the time will come when you will hear me." He was ever patriotic and loyal to his country and his queen. He was noted as a writer of fiction, his first novel being "Vivian Grey," published when he was twenty-one years of age.

"The Sick Man."—The Czar of Russia thought his empire would be much improved as a great world power by the addition to it of European Turkey. In a private conversation with the British minister at St. Petersburg, he spoke of Turkey as "a sick man," and proposed that Great Britain and Russia should divide his estate between them—Great Britain taking Egypt, and Russia taking Turkey in Europe. But Great Britain did not fall in with the scheme.

The Crimean War, 1854-1856.—Many of the Sultan's sub-

jects belong to the Greek Church, and they sometimes complained of unfair treatment from the Mohammedan Turks. **The Czar**, as head of this church, said he was the **rightful protector** of these people. As this claim was disputed by the Turkish Government, he proceeded to make it good by force of arms. In the war that followed Great Britain and France supported Turkey as active allies.

The war was carried on chiefly in the Crimea. **The siege of Sebastopol** by the allies occupied many months. Noted battles were fought at Alma, Balaklava, and Inkerman. It was



at Ba'klava that by some blunder the British **Light Brigade**, consisting of about six hundred men, was sent to attack a strongly-entrenched Russian army. From "the valley of death" into which they rode less than one-third of them returned alive. The war was carried into the Caucasus region. Here, in the defence of Kars, **General Sir Fenwick Williams**, a native of Nova Scotia, gained distinction.

The war was badly managed by the British Government. Clothing, food, and medicines were sent out from England, but they failed to reach those who needed them. In a supply of boots sent all were for the left foot.

The sufferings of the soldiers were greatly alleviated by **Florence Nightingale** and her band of nurses, who went out from England.

The Treaty, 1856.—Russia was defeated. In the terms of peace she agreed not to rebuild the fortifications of Sebastopol, and to keep no large warships on the Black Sea. A few years later, however, she violated her promise, as she has done in many other cases.

The Indian Mutiny, 1857.—The blunders of the war led to the **overthrow of the Aberdeen Government.** Lord



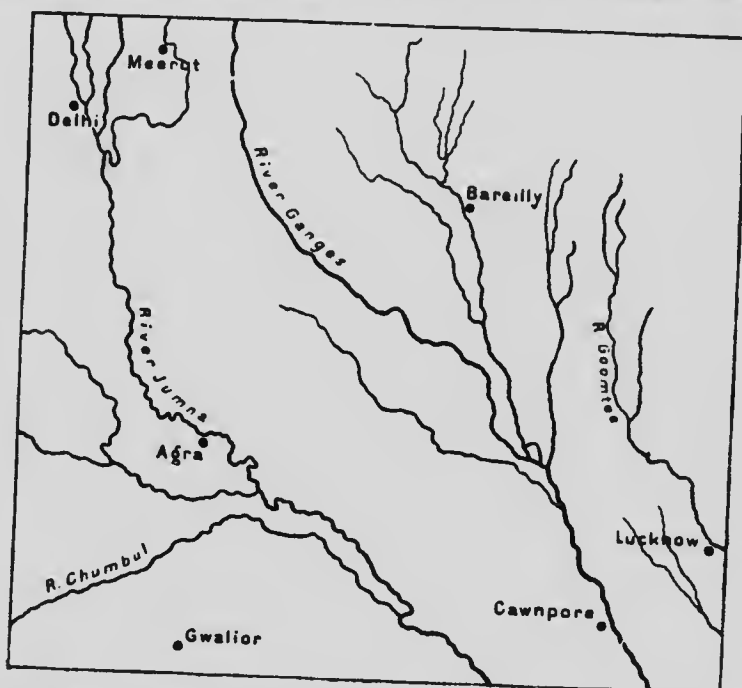
SEBASTOPOL.

Palmerston followed as Premier, a position which he held with short interruption until his death several years later. The most serious matter with which he had to deal was the Indian Mutiny. It came about in a singular way. The army in India consisted mainly of native troops, called Sepoys—Mohammedans and Hindus. A new muzzle-loading rifle was introduced, and with it were cartridges smeared with a mixture of lard and tallow. The soldier had to bite off the end of the cartridge. Pork was offensive to the Mohammedans, beef to the Hindus. They refused to use the cartridges, and rose in mutiny. The trouble began at Meerut, and spread to

other places—Delhi, Lucknow, and Cawnpore being its chief centres.

The Massacre of officers and English people generally, including women and children, is too horrible a tale to be told. Through the heroism of Sir Henry Havelock, Sir John Lawrence, Sir Henry Lawrence, Sir Colin Campbell, and other brave officers, the mutiny was quelled.

India under the Crown.—At the close of the war the rule



of the East India Company was abolished, and India was placed under the British Crown, with a viceroy to represent the sovereign.

Jews admitted to Parliament, 1858.—Admission of Jews to Parliament was another forward movement. Many times a measure of this kind had passed the Commons, but never before could it gain the assent of the Lords.

Death of Prince Albert, 1861.—The death of the Prince Consort of typhoid fever cast a deep shadow over the life

of the queen. He had taken an active interest in British affairs, especially in the progress of science and art, and his removal was felt to be a great national loss.

Civil War in the United States, 1861-1865.—A civil war in the United States of America between the North and the South affected Great Britain in various ways. By the blockade of Southern ports the supply of cotton was cut off. British factories were closed, and laborers were thrown out of employment.

At one time Great Britain and the United States were nigh **drifting into war**. Two Southern delegates, Mason and Slidell, proceeding to Europe on a British steamer, were seized by the captain of an American warship. Intense feeling was aroused in Great Britain. The government of the United States promptly gave up the captives, and quiet was restored.

In another matter Great Britain was the offender. **The steamer "Alabama"** was built on the Mersey for the South, as a cruiser to prey on the commerce of the North. This was contrary to the laws governing the action of nations that are at peace with each other. The *Alabama* wrought great mischief in the destruction of American trading vessels. The damages, estimated by arbitration at \$15,000,000, were paid by Great Britain.

Lord Russell Prime Minister, 1865.—Lord Palmerston did not favor new reform measures, but he was a strong statesman, and was popular with the people. On his death he was succeeded as Prime Minister by the Liberal leader, formerly known in the House of Commons as **Lord John Russell**, but now a peer with the title of **Earl Russell**, and usually called Lord Russell. Mr. Gladstone was leader of the government party in the House of Commons. A **Reform Bill**, widening the list of voters to include working men, was defeated, and led to the resignation of the ministry.

Disraeli's Reform Bill, 1867.—In the new government Lord Derby was Prime Minister. After a few months, however, he was succeeded by Disraeli, who was the real leader from the first. Much to the surprise of every one, Disraeli brought in and passed a **Reform Bill** more radical than any-

thing the Liberals had ever proposed. The property required for the franchise was so little that the great body of working men were given the right to vote for members of Parliament. In the following year a measure was passed doing away with **voting by proxy** in the House of Lords.

The Fenians, 1865-1867.

—The Irish trouble was always taking new form. One of its worst phases was the secret society of Fenians, a sort of military organization formed for freeing Ireland from British rule. The plots of the Fenians in Ireland, England, and Canada were most barbarous, involving outrage and murder, in many cases where the injured were in no way responsible



BENJAMIN DISRAELI.

for wrongs that Ireland may have suffered.

A Gladstone Ministry, 1869.

—A new election brought again the Liberals into power, with Mr. Gladstone as Prime Minister. The **disestablishment of the Irish Church** was one of the important measures of the government. In place of being supported from public funds, the Anglican clergy in Ireland were henceforth paid by their own people, like those of other churches. At the same time, Irish bishops



WILLIAM E. GLADSTONE.

ceased to hold seats in the House of Lords.

The Ballot Act, 1872.—The Ballot Act, now passed, secured one of the six demands of the Chartists. Education Acts for England and Scotland followed, bringing the public schools within the reach of the lower classes.

Disraeli's Second Ministry, 1874-1880.—Again a Conservative majority in the Commons made Mr. Disraeli Prime Minister. He was now raised to the Peerage, with the title **Earl of Beaconsfield**. During his terms of office he was specially courteous to the queen, and few statesmen held equal place with him in her favor. A measure of his which pleased her Majesty not a little was one which added to her titles that of **Empress of India** (1876).

A war between **Russia and Turkey** resulted in the defeat of the latter, and the loss by her of extensive European provinces, including Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, and Roumelia. It was the old story of Russian aggression. Beaconsfield was not disposed to allow Russia to annex these provinces to her empire, and through his influence a **Congress of the Powers** was held at Berlin to determine how they should be governed. Most of them were formed into independent states; others were given free government, tributary to Turkey.

While the Congress was in session, it became known that Beaconsfield had, by secret treaty with Turkey, secured the **transfer of Cyprus to British rule**.

Another of Beaconsfield's bold measures was the purchase for Great Britain from the Khedive of Egypt of all his shares in **the Suez Canal**, comprising nearly one-half the whole capital.

Irish Obstruction, 1877.—The Irish Home Rule members of the House of Commons, failing to secure the measures they desired, began a course of obstruction. They made long speeches and used various ingenious devices, so that no business might be done by the House. This led to the adoption of new rules to prevent the abuse of privilege.

Boycotting.—There were indeed serious wrongs in Ireland that called for redress. Tenants, at their own expense, often erected dwellings and made other improvements on the farms which they occupied. Then the landlords demanded of them

more rent, or turned them off the lands without paying them for improvements. The tenants formed a society called **The Land League**. The members pledged themselves to count as an enemy any one who took a farm from which a tenant had been evicted. An offender in this way became an outcast. Nobody would buy of him, sell to him, or speak to him. It happened that the name of the first man thus shunned was Boycott, and hence came the term "**boycott**," meaning to have no dealings with an offender. Very soon boycotting came to mean something worse than this. The offender's property was destroyed, his cattle were maimed, or serious personal harm was done to him.

Acts were passed by Parliament by which tenants could claim payment for improvements they had made on their farms, and also providing for the prevention of crimes.

The End of Beaconsfield's Ministry, 1880.—A war in Afghanistan was brought to a successful issue by the heroism of General (afterwards Lord) Roberts. In South Africa also a war against the Zulus, after some disasters, ended in the **annexation of Zululand** to the empire.

The British people now desired a change of rule. The Conservatives were defeated at the polls. A few months later, after a brilliant career, Lord Beaconsfield passed away.

Gladstone's Second Ministry, 1880.—On his return to power, Mr. Gladstone found it necessary to take active measures for the **relief of poverty in Ireland**, and for restoring order in that country. Refusal by tenants to pay rent was followed by eviction from their lands, and this again by outrage and murder. In the House of Commons the Home Rule members were so troublesome that in one day thirty-six were suspended. A court was established for the purpose of fixing rents and settling disputes between landlords and tenants.

The Boers of the Transvaal, 1881.—The Boers had originally belonged to Cape Colony, but becoming dissatisfied with British rule, especially because they were not allowed to hold slaves, they moved into the interior beyond the river Vaal. Here they soon got into difficulty with the natives. Great

Britain gave them aid, and afterwards claimed them as British subjects.

The Boers now rose in revolt, and gained decided victories over the British forces at Laing's Neck and Majuba F. Mr. Gladstone, thinking it unwise to hold them by force, gave them self rule, subject to Great Britain in their dealings with foreign nations.

Great Britain in Egypt.—In order to protect her interest in the Suez Canal, Great Britain has, in recent times, kept close supervision over Egyptian affairs. A revolt, led by Arabi Pasha in 1882, was put down by a British force under Sir Garnet Wolseley. In the following year a revolt broke out in the



Egyptian Sudan, under the lead of the Mohammedan "prophet" Achmet Mahomet, generally called **the Mahdi**. The British Government thought it best for Egypt to give up the country, and sent **General Charles Gordon**, who a few years before had been Governor of the Sudan, to aid in withdrawing the Egyptian troops from the country.

Gordon was besieged in Khartoum by the followers of the Mahdi. An expedition was sent for his relief, but two days before its arrival Gordon was captured and put to death.

Home Rule.—By further widening the franchise to include laborers, Mr. Gladstone added about **two millions to the list of voters**. His next great move was Home Rule for

Ireland. Many of the Liberals refused to follow him in this measure, and formed a separate party, called **Liberal Unionists**. The Home Rule Bill was defeated, and Gladstone resigned. The Conservatives, aided by the Liberal



Unionists, formed a new government under **Lord Salisbury** as Premier.

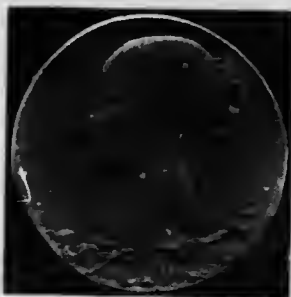
Home Rule again defeated, 1893.—The election of 1892 gave victory to the Liberals, and **Mr. Gladstone**, now in the eighty-third year of his age, again became Prime Minister. The Home Rule Bill was again brought forward. The measure

passed the House of Commons, but failed in the House of Lords. In the following year Mr. Gladstone **resigned office**, and was succeeded as Premier by **Lord Rosebery**. The Rosebery Government, never very strong, remained in power little over a year, giving place to Conservative rule under **Lord Salisbury**.

The Boer War, 1899-1901.—For nearly twenty years the Boers had ruled the Transvaal with little interference from Great Britain. Meanwhile, the discovery of rich gold mines in their country had led to a large inflow of people from various lands, chiefly from the British Isles. The Boers, fearing that these newcomers, "**outlanders**" they called them, might gain control of the country, made it difficult for them to secure the rights of citizens. At the same time they made them pay the chief part of the taxes.

In response to complaints from the English settlers, the British Government, with little avail, urged **President Kruger** of the Transvaal to give them fairer treatment. Meanwhile, Kruger was quietly **preparing for war**. Seeing that British troops were being sent to South Africa, Kruger, joined by the Orange Free State, hastened to begin hostilities by invading the colony of Natal.

In the war that followed, for several months **the Boers had the advantage** of more men and better equipment. The ablest generals of the British army, including **Lord Roberts** and **Lord Kitchener**, were sent to conduct the war. Finally the little states were subdued and annexed to the British Empire.



DIAMOND JUBILEE
MEDAL, 1897.

Queen Victoria: her Death, 1901.—In the summer of 1887, at the end of the fiftieth year of her reign, **The Queen's Jubilee** was celebrated throughout all parts of the empire. Again, at the end of another ten years, in 1897, her **Diamond Jubilee** was observed with all the display that wealth, and rank, and the enthusiasm of a loyal people could devise. And now, on

January 22, 1901, at Osborne House, in the Isle of Wight, in the eighty-second year of her age and the **sixty-fourth year of her reign**—the longest in British history—**Victoria the Good passed away**. Never was sovereign more beloved at home or more respected abroad.



KING EDWARD THE SEVENTH.

EDWARD VII.

1901.

Descent. — Albert Edward, eldest son of Queen Victoria, ascended the throne as Edward the Seventh, in the fifty-eighth year of his age. Tracing his descent back through royal lines to William the Conqueror, Alfred the Great, and Egbert of

Wessex, he has a lineage ancient and kingly as few sovereigns can claim. Ruling an empire which embraces over **one-fifth of the land surface** of the earth, and strong in the support of a loyal people, he stands without a rival.

Coronation.—Great preparations were made for a brilliant coronation ceremony. Deferred for several months on account of the King's serious illness, the event was much more simple than had been planned. During the few years that King Edward has occupied the throne, he has gained the confidence of his people and the goodwill of the other nations of the world.

Public Affairs.—Shortly after King Edward came to the throne, Lord Salisbury, now an old man, retired from public life, and was succeeded as Prime Minister by his nephew, **Arthur J. Balfour**. The person most prominent in the statecraft of the realm during these early years of the reign has been the Liberal Unionist, **Joseph Chamberlain**.

Opposed to Home Rule for Ireland, Chamberlain forsook his old leader Gladstone, gave his support to the Conservative party, and entered the ministry as Colonial Secretary. Later he resigned this office that he might be free to urge his scheme for the more thorough binding together of the various parts of the empire. His policy, which has startled British statesmen of the present day, seems to be directly opposed to that free trade for which Cobden and Bright contended. It differs from that of the free traders by imposing a duty on foreign imports; but this is not for the purpose of protecting home industries. He would have **the Mother Land and her Colonies** bound more closely together by a trade-bond—that is, by trading more freely with one another than with other peoples. But while Great Britain has free trade with every nation, she has no way of showing preference for her Colonies. Chamberlain would place a small duty on foreign products, and admit colonial products free.

CONCLUSION.

THIS little book has briefly traced the history of the British Isles, from the time when they were the home of unlettered and barbarous people, through their various stages of progress, to their present condition, the centre of the widest empire that ever existed on the earth. We have seen how the early **Celtic tribes**, the old Britons, were conquered and then abandoned by the Romans; then how they were driven into the background by **German tribes** from the shores of the North Sea; how these tribes—**Angles, Saxons, and Jutes**—established themselves on the island, contended with each other for centuries, until **Egbert, King of Wessex**, obtaining the supremacy, united them into one people, and laid the foundation of the **Anglo-Saxon nation**.

The Danish invasion was but an episode. Then came **the Normans**—not wholly a new people, but a different strain of the same stock, modified under new conditions. Nor did they drive out the Anglo-Saxons, as these did the Britons. Remaining distinct as the ruling class for a century or two, they then became intermingled and blended with the earlier inhabitants as one people in race and in language.

Government.—The government, we have seen, underwent various changes—sometimes making progress in giving freedom to the people, sometimes with rude foot trampling on their liberty. **The old Witenagemot** of the Anglo-Saxons, the people's assembly, was the highest authority, and by its voice decided who should rule on the throne. Then, for a period, the chief source of power centered in **the nobles**, with their strong castles and their bands of retainers.

The power of the nobles swept away by the Wars of the Roses, their castles demolished, and the serfs set free, there followed **the true monarchy**—the one-man power. During the Tudor Period it held sway, and it reached its highest development with **the Stuart kings**, who claimed to rule by divine right, to be **God's viceroy**s, and accountable to Him alone.

A reaction came. The House of Commons, with the people behind it, asserted its power. No mild measures sufficed to show these Stuarts that kings rule by the will of a free people. The weakness of the early Georges, and their indifference to English affairs, aided in shifting the power from the king to the people. It was then that the **Ministry** became a Committee of the House of Commons to carry out its principles, in place of being an agent to execute the will of a monarch.

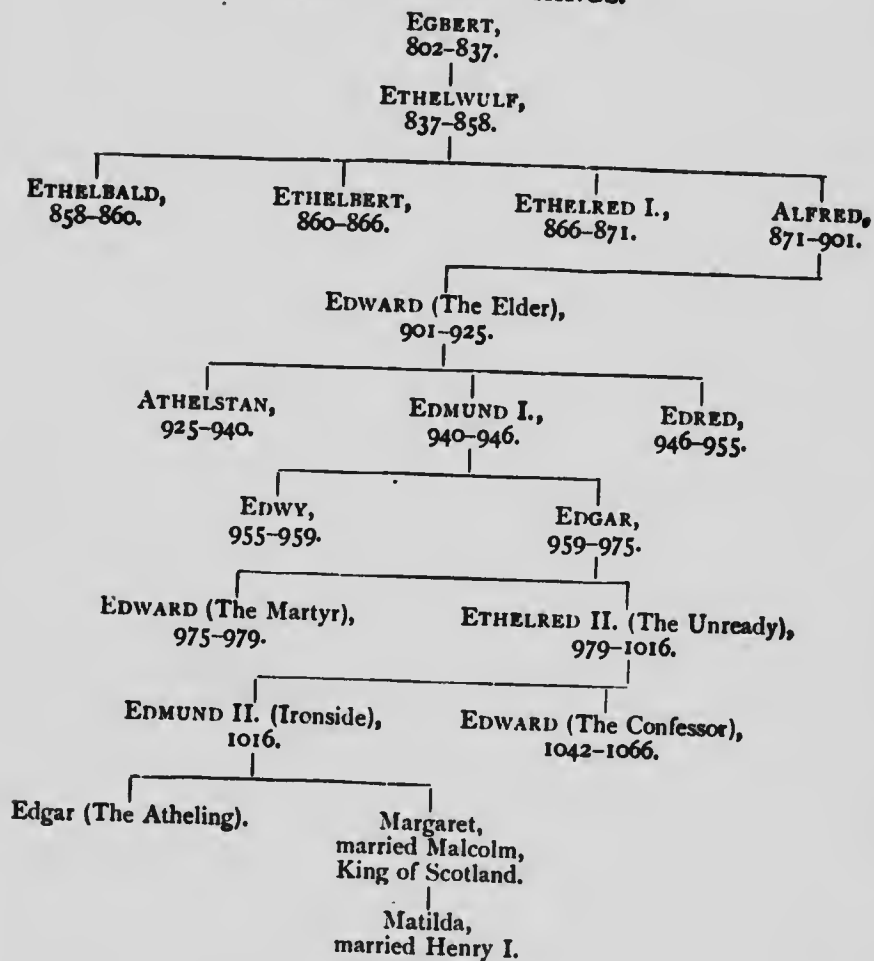
As yet, however, the House of Commons had not behind it the full, free voice of the people. This was secured by **the Reform Act of 1832**, when the great landowners lost their grip of power. And by yielding to the Commons in this measure, the House of Lords for ever gave up its independence as a distinct branch of Parliament. By continued opposition to the House of Commons, it would to-day imperil its very existence. The people, the great Witenagemot, henceforth hold the power. To-day, at their will, governments in Great Britain stand or fall.

The power of the king is a matter of personal influence. He can impose no tax, nor can he make or repeal a law. The withholding of his assent to a Bill might cause a revolution. He is said to declare war, make peace, summon Parliament, pardon criminals, and do many other things. The fact is, that in all his official acts he does as his ministry advises.

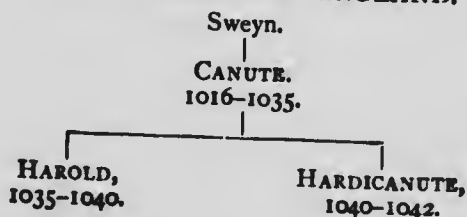
GENEALOGY OF SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.

I.

EARLY ENGLISH KINGS.



DANISH KINGS OF ENGLAND.



II.

NORMAN KINGS.

WILLIAM (The Conqueror),
1066-1087.

WILLIAM RUFUS,
1087-1100.

HENRY I.,
1100-1135,
married Matilda,
daughter of Malcolm
and Margaret of Scotland.

Adela,
married
Stephen of Blois.

STEPHEN,
1135-1154.

Matilda,
married Geoffrey of Anjou.

HENRY II.

PLANTAGENET KINGS.

HENRY II.,
1154-1189.

RICHARD (Cœur-de-Lion),
1189-1199.

JOHN,
1199-1216.

HENRY III.,
1216-1272.

EDWARD I.,
1272-1307.

EDWARD II.,
1307-1327.

EDWARD III.,
1327-1377.

Edward (The Black Prince).

RICHARD II.,
1377-1399.

Other sons of Edward III.
William (died young).
Lionel, Duke of Clarence.
John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.
Edmund, Duke of York.
Thomas, Duke of Gloucester.

III.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

John of Gaunt,
Duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III.
Died 1399.

HENRY IV.,
1399-1413.

HENRY V.,
1413-1422.

HENRY VI.,
1422-1461.

HOUSE OF YORK.

Lionel, Duke of Clarence,
third son of Edward III.

Philippa,
married Edmund Mortimer,
Earl of March.

Roger, Earl of March.

Edmund, Duke of York,
fifth son of Edward III.
Died 1402.

Richard, Earl of Cambridge, married Anne.
Died 1415.

Richard, Duke of York.

EDWARD IV.,
1461-1483.

EDWARD V.,
1483.

Elizabeth,
married Henry VII.

RICHARD III.,
1483-1485.

IV.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

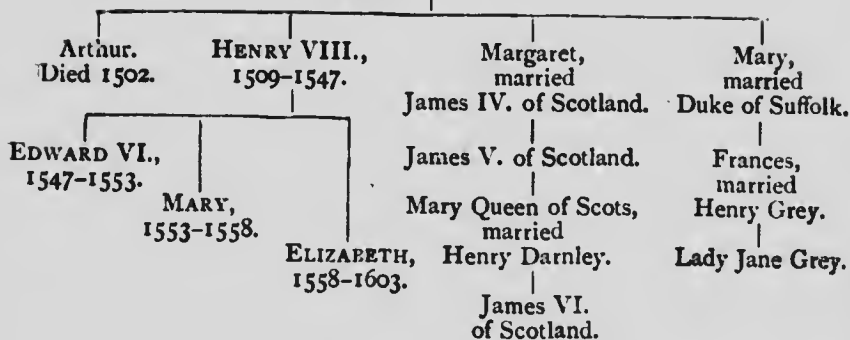
John of Gaunt,
fourth son of Edward III.

John, Earl of Somerset.

John, Duke of Somerset.

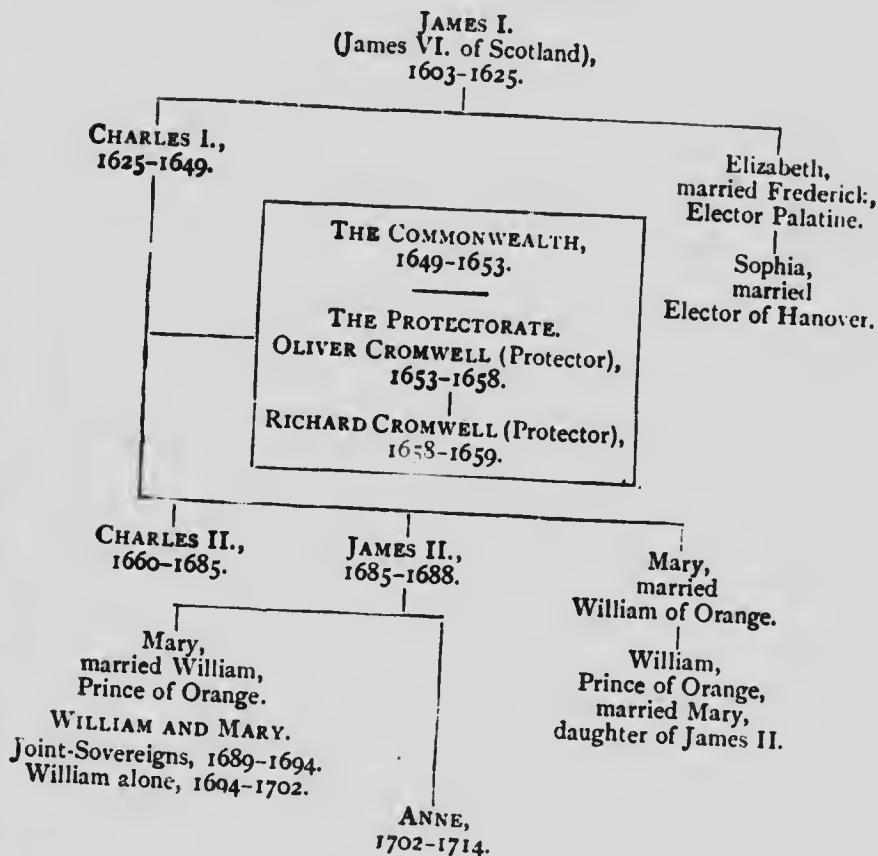
Margaret Beaufort,
married Edmund Tudor.

HENRY VII.,
1485-1509,
married Elizabeth,
daughter of Edward IV.



V.

HOUSE OF STUART.



VI.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

Elizabeth,
daughter of James I.,
married Frederick,
Elector Palatine.

Sophia,
married Elector of Hanover.

GEORGE I.,
1714-1727.

GEORGE II.,
1727-1760.

Frederick, Prince of Wales.
Died 1751.

GEORGE III.,
1760-1820.

GEORGE IV.,
1820-1830.

WILLIAM IV.,
1830-1837.

Edward, Duke of Kent.
Died 1820.

VICTORIA,
1837-1901.

EDWARD VII.
1901.

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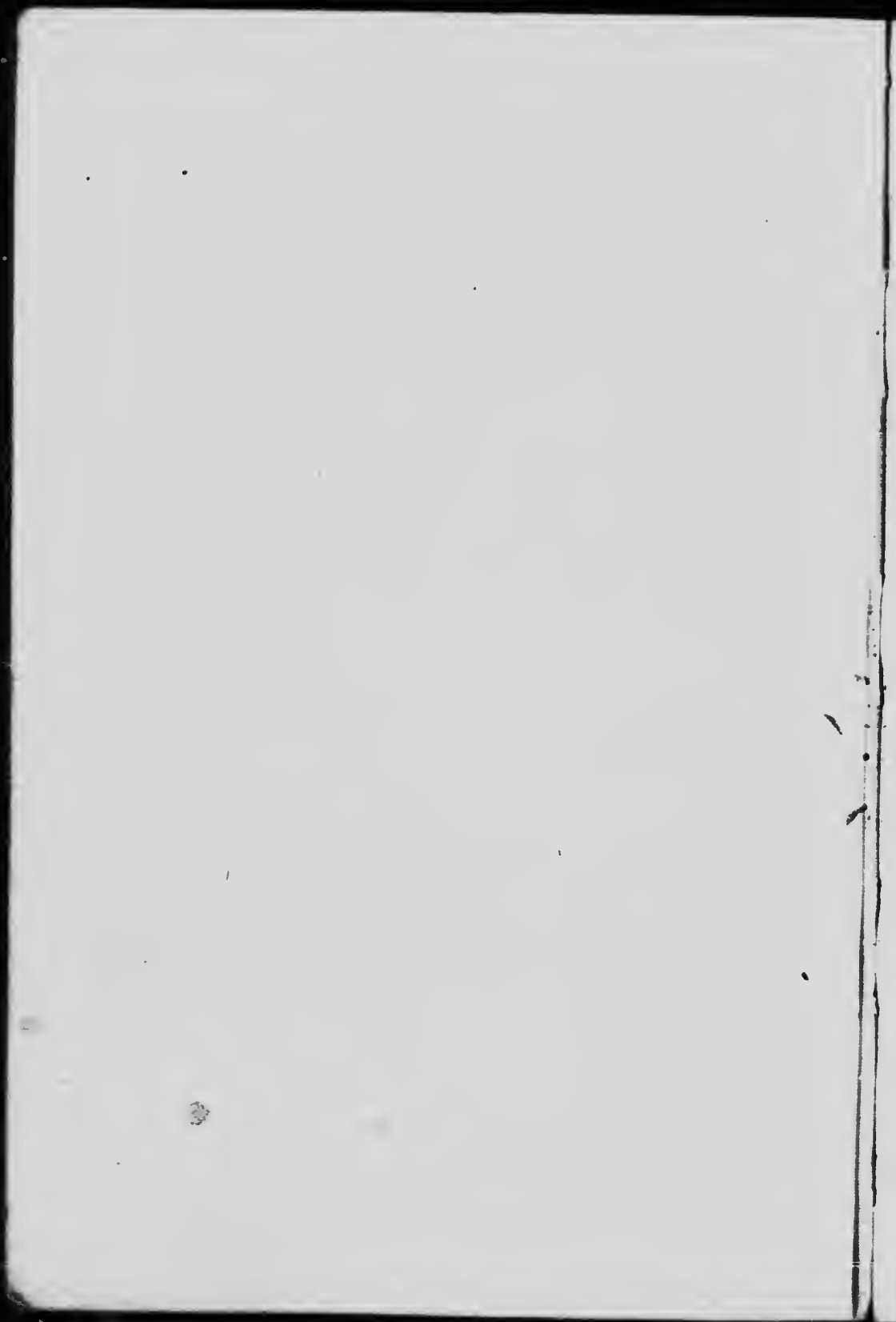
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