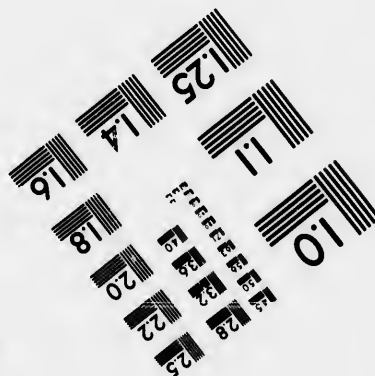
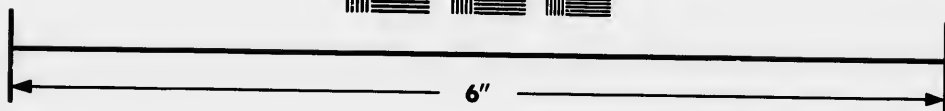
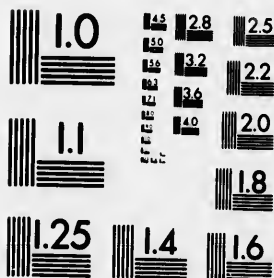


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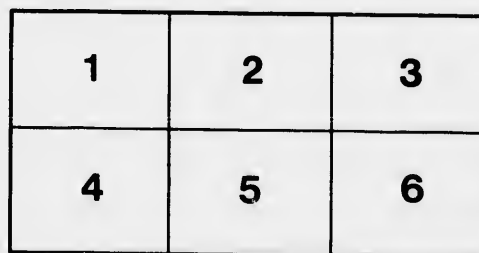
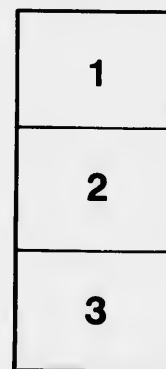
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PREFACE.

It will be seen that the following sketch of English History is presented on a plan differing materially from that in ordinary use. The principal events of each period are summarily given in chronological order; the leading topics are briefly discussed in their proper places, and short biographies of eminent persons complete the sketch of the period. Useful tables are given at the end of the book. No questions are given, as they tend to make the study too mechanical. All the essential facts are dealt with, but necessarily in a brief way, it being left to the skill of the earnest teacher to amplify where necessary.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

BRITONS AND ROMANS, B. C. 55 TO A. D. 449 . . . 5

CHAPTER II.

SAXON AND DANES, A. D. 449 TO 1066 . . . 8

CHAPTER III.

THE NORMAN LINE, A. D. 1066 TO 1154 . . . 14

CHAPTER IV.

HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET, OR ANJOU, A. D. 1154 TO 1399 23

CHAPTER V.

HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK, A. D. 1399 TO 1485 38

CHAPTER VI.

HOUSE OF TUDOR, A. D. 1485 TO 1603 . . . 48

CHAPTER VII.

HOUSE OF STUART, A. D. 1603 TO 1714 . . . 65

CHAPTER VIII.

HOUSE OF HANOVER, A. D. 1714 TO PRESENT TIME . 87

APPENDIX . . . 117

1. The British Constitution . . . 117
2. Principal Treaties . . . 119
3. Important Statutes . . . 120
4. The Sovereigns of England . . . 122
5. Pronunciation of Difficult Proper Names . . . 124

ENGLISH HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

BRITONS AND ROMANS.

B. C. 55 TO A. D. 449.

LEADING FEATURES.—Romans conquer Britain and remain in possession nearly four centuries.—Britons become civilized, but lose their warlike skill.

Principal Events. B. C. 55.—Julius Cæsar, a celebrated Roman general, invades Britain, defeats the natives in several battles, but does not effect a permanent conquest. A. D. 43.—The Emperor Claudius lands in Britain with a large army, and leaves a force sufficient to secure a firm foothold in the island. A. D. 43 to 61.—Caractacus and Queen Boadicea successively maintain a gallant but ineffectual struggle against Roman progress. A. D. 78 to 85.—Britain is finally conquered and reduced to a Roman province by Julius Agricola. Christianity is introduced about the end of the first century, and becomes popular among the natives. The Pope sends two missionaries to instruct them. The Christians are severely persecuted by the Romans. St. Alban becomes the first British

martyr. In the fourth century, three British bishops go to attend the Council of Arles. The Romans remain in possession of Britain for about 400 years, when the troops are withdrawn to defend their own country against foreign invaders.

The Ancient Britons.—That part of the island of Britain now called England is said to have been peopled by a colony from Gaul (France), about a thousand years before the Christian era. The Ancient Britons were of the Celtic race, robust, brave, and warlike, but rude and savage in their mode of living. They were divided into a number of independent tribes, but in times of danger they formed confederacies for common defence, chiefly against the Picts and Scots who inhabited Caledonia, the northern part of the island. Their religion was that pagan form called Druidism, from their priests, the Druids, who were also their physicians and law-givers. In Cæsar's time, thick forests covered the western and southern districts, while in the east the land was low and swampy. Mines of copper and tin were worked to some extent in the south-west, but agriculture and other useful arts were little known or practiced.

What the Romans did for Britain.—They built towns, made roads and bridges, drained marshes, raised walls in the north to keep back the Picts and Scots,*

* *Roman Walls.*—The principal were the Wall of Adrian, from the Tyne to the Solway Frith, built A. D. 121, and the Wall of Antonine, from the Forth to the Clyde, built A. D. 140.

established schools, improved agriculture and house-building, and, generally, cultivated in the Britons a taste for the arts of civilized life. But, in the meantime, the Britons lost their ancient skill in warfare, and became slothful and timid; so, when the Romans abandoned the island, the natives were no longer a match for their hereditary foes, the fierce and hardy Picts and Scots, who ravaged the country at pleasure.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Julius Cæsar, born B. C. 100; a renowned Roman general, statesman, and writer, and perhaps the greatest genius of ancient times; he became virtually the first emperor of Rome; he was assassinated, B. C. 44.

Caractacus, King of the Silures, a British tribe in Wales; he opposed the Romans for nine years, but was defeated and captured by the Roman general, Ostorius, who carried him to Rome; his gallant bearing soon won his release from the Emperor Claudius; he died about A. D. 54.

Boadicea, the brave and warlike British Queen of the Iceni; despoiled of her territory and publicly flogged by Roman officers, she gathered an immense army and, for a time, was successful; but was at last completely routed by the Roman general, Suetonius Paulinus; she poisoned herself, A. D. 61.

Saint Alban was born at Verulam, near the present town of St. Albans. He served seven years in the Roman army. While in Rome he became a scholar of note, and soon after his return to Britain he was converted to Christianity. On refusing to worship idols, he was put to death during the persecution of Diocletian, A. D. 303.

CHAPTER II.

SAXONS AND DANES.

A. D. 449 TO 1066.

LEADING FEATURES.—Britons conquered and almost exterminated by Anglo-Saxon tribes.—Re-introduction of Christianity.—Britain becomes England.—Struggles with the Danes.

Principal Events. A. D. 449.—Invited by the Britons, several tribes, principally Angles and Saxons from the north of Germany, land in Britain under the command of Hengist and Horsa. These first expel the Picts and Scots; then turning their arms against the Britons themselves, soon force the latter into Wales and Cornwall, and finally divide the country into seven kingdoms (the Saxon Heptarchy): Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumberland. About the end of the sixth century, —A. D. 596—Christianity (expelled by the pagan Saxons) is again introduced—by St. Augustine in the south-east, and by some Irish monks in the north-west, and gradually spreads over the island.

A. D. 827.—After centuries of warfare among themselves, the seven kingdoms are at last united by

Egbert, King of Wessex, who thus becomes the first Saxon king of all England. During his reign, the Danes begin their inroads and throw the country into disorder.

A. D. 870.—Alfred the Great, the ablest monarch of his time, virtuous, religious, and wise ; becomes king when the Danes are almost masters of England ; but by his superior skill he rapidly lessens their power, and in the battle of Ethandune completely crushes them. The vanquished Danes, on embracing Christianity, are allowed to settle in England. Alfred soon restores order to the kingdom ; frames an excellent code of laws ; divides England into counties ; establishes trial by jury ; founds Oxford University and many other schools ; translates several works into English ; rebuilds churches and towns destroyed by the Danes ; liberates many bondsmen ; encourages commerce and all kinds of industries ; and makes his country prosperous at home and respected in foreign nations. Besides attending to all this, he daily finds time for private study and devotion and the regular practice of Christian duties. He dies in 901, deeply regretted by all classes of his subjects. His grandson, Athelstan (905 to 941), is his ablest successor. He overcomes the Danes, and by his skill and wisdom rules the country in peace.

Ethelred the Unready (998 to 1019), a weak king, levies an annual tax on his people, called the Danegelt, to bribe the Danes to keep away ; causes a massacre of

the Danes settled in England, and thus provokes a fiercer invasion by the Danish king.

Danish Period. A. D. 1017 to 1041.—Canute, son of Sweyn, King of Denmark, conquers England, becomes a Christian, and rules with great ability not only England, but also Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. There were in all three Danish kings: Canute, and his sons, Harold and Hardicanute; the last two, degenerate monarchs.

A. D. 1041 to 1065.—On the death of the last Danish king, the Saxon line is restored in the person of the son of Ethelred—Edward, called the Confessor, on account of his piety and virtue. He frames a code of laws (famous in after-ages), providing for the rights of all classes of his subjects; abolishes the Danegelt; and by his wise and gentle rule makes England happy and prosperous. Edward dying without issue, Harold, a powerful Saxon noble, is proclaimed king. The following year, William, Duke of Normandy, invades England, defeats Harold at the battle of Hastings (Senlac), and seizes the crown (1066).

The Anglo-Saxons.—The tribes that landed in Britain with Hengist and Horsa were of the Teutonic race, brave and hardy, but barbarous and idolatrous. Having conquered the Britons, they effaced all traces of Roman civilization, destroyed the Christian churches, and, by centuries of warfare among themselves, reduced the country to its primitive savage

state. But Christianity, introduced once more by St. Augustine, who came to England at the command of Pope Gregory, soon softened their fierce and cruel nature and made them just and religious. Monasteries were built throughout the island and became institutions of learning. The Saxons, apt to improve under able teachers, soon learned from the monks how to build good houses, to drain and cultivate the lands, and many other useful arts. For more than a century after the landing of St. Augustine, the Saxons steadily advanced in civilization and prosperity; but the dissensions of the kings and the incursions of the Danes disturbed this happy state and brought the country to the verge of ruin, from which it was rescued only by the genius and wisdom of such kings as Alfred the Great and Edward the Confessor. Slavery was a wide-spread institution among the Saxons, but its evils were greatly mitigated by the influence of the Church. A custom corresponding to the Feudal System also existed, but in a very patriarchal form. The free population was divided into *eorl* or noble, and *ceorl* or ignoble—the king occupying the first place. The obligations existing between the lord and the vassal were mutual: the vassal served the lord, and the lord protected the vassal. The king was assisted in his government by a council or *parliament* called the Witenagemote (Assembly of the Wise), composed of representatives of the nobles and the clergy. During the

Saxon period, Norman architecture, organs, clocks, and paper were introduced into England. Angles and Saxons both spoke the same language, which they called *English*; but the former became the more powerful tribe and gave their name to the whole country—Angle-land, hence England.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Gildas, surnamed "the Wise;" a monk and a native of Wales; he was the first British historian, and wrote an account of the Saxon conquest; he died in 570.

Cædmon, a monk; he was the first Anglo-Saxon poet, and wrote the "Paraphrase," a *poetic* history of the Creation and Fall; he died in 680.

St. Aldhelm, Abbot of Malmesbury; he was the first Englishman that wrote Latin poetry; he died about 709.

St. Bede, called "the Venerable Bede;" a priest famed for his learning and sanctity; he was the first English historian, and wrote "Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation," the most trustworthy authority in that early period; he died in 735.

Alcuin, Abbot of St. Martin of Tours, and one of the most learned men of his age; he was tutor to Charlemagne, King of France; he died in 804.

Asser, a learned monk and King Alfred's tutor; he wrote "Life of Alfred the Great;" he died in 909.

St. Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury and Archbishop of Canterbury, was one of the ablest ecclesiastics and statesmen of his time. For forty years, comprising the reigns of Athelstan's successors, Edmund, Edred, Edwy, Edgar, and Edward the Martyr, he administered the affairs of the kingdom with consummate ability and success. He was a stern disciplinarian wher-

ever he held authority ; he reproved even kings for their licentiousness, and forced King Edgar to do public penance for scandalous conduct ; he reformed ecclesiastical discipline, and nobly preserved the rights and dignity of the Church in England ; he promoted learning and piety by his own example, by the erection of many monasteries and by the introduction of the learned Benedictine Order of monks. All this time he was a man of prayer and study, fulfilled his sacerdotal duties with assiduity and devotion, ministered to the wants of the poor, and regularly preached the Word of God until the day of his death, 988. He had royal blood in his veins, and was undoubtedly the grandest character in Anglo-Saxon England.

Among other eminent persons were **St. Aidan** and **St. Cuthbert**, the former an Irish missionary to Northumbria, and the latter a bishop in the same kingdom. Both lived in the seventh century, and did much to improve the condition and elevate the morals of the people.

CHIEF DATES OF THE SAXON PERIOD.

Landing of the Saxons.....	449.
Heptarchy established....	582.
Christianity re-introduced.....	596.
Egbert, king of all Saxon England.....	827.
Reign of Alfred the Great.....	870-901.
Era of St. Dunstan.....	948-988.
Canute, Danish king.....	1017.
Edward the Confessor.....	1042.

CHAPTER III.

THE NORMAN LINE.

A. D. 1066 TO 1154.

LEADING FEATURES.—The Feudal System.—Crusades.—Investitures.—Civil Wars.—Rise of Baronial Power.

William I. (the Conqueror), 1066 to 1087: the ablest ruler and warrior of his time and remarkable for great physical strength. He is at first mild and just, but soon becomes stern and cruel towards all classes of his subjects; dispossesses the Saxon nobles and prelates, and substitutes Normans; establishes the Feudal System—paying rent of land by military service, instead of money—(see p. 18); compiles the Domesday-book containing an account of every estate in England; destroys sixty villages to make himself a hunting-ground, called the New Forest; establishes the Curfew, a bell rung at eight o'clock every night, warning the Saxons to put out their lights; makes Norman-French the legal language, and establishes the Great Council, in place of the Witenagemot. He dies from injuries received while besieging a town in France, leaving Normandy to his eldest son Robert, and England to his second son William.

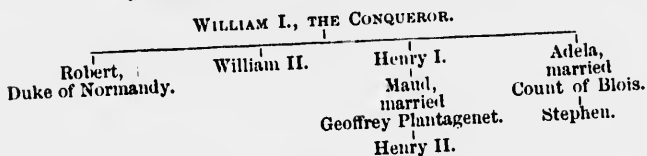
William II. (Rufus), 1087 to 1100: vicious, tyrannical, and cruel. He acquires Normandy by mortgage from his brother Robert, who goes with the First Crusade (see p. 19); builds Westminster Hall; quarrels with the Church about Investitures—appointing bishops to vacant sees; is killed while hunting in New Forest.

Henry I. (Beauclerc), 1100 to 1135, (third son of the Conqueror): energetic, cunning, avaricious, despotic. He seizes the treasure and crown of England, to the exclusion of Robert, the rightful heir; marries Matilda, daughter of the Scottish king, and niece of Edgar Atheling, heir of Edward the Confessor, thus uniting the Norman and Saxon lines; invades Normandy, defeats and captures Robert at Tenchebrai, and imprisons him at Cardiff Castle, where he dies twenty-eight years after. Henry revives the question of Investitures, but is successfully opposed by St. Anselm. He signs a Charter granting certain rights to the people; establishes the Exchequer court for collecting the revenue, and appoints judges to travel on circuit. He loses his only son William, who is drowned while crossing from Normandy, and dies of a fever, leaving his daughter Maud, wife of Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, heir to the throne.

Stephen, 1135 to 1154: son of Stephen, Count of Blois, and Adela, daughter of the Conqueror, claims the crown, in opposition to Maud, or Matilda, who engages him in a long and desultory war. His barons defeat King David of Scotland, supporter of Maud, at North-

lerton (battle of the Standard). It is finally arranged by treaty that, at his death, the crown shall go to Henry, Maud's son by Geoffrey Plantagenet. Stephen allows the barons many important privileges. He was a bold and generous prince; but his reign was one of turbulence and misery.

GENEALOGY OF THE NORMAN KINGS.



England under the Normans.—The Norman kings and nobles, though remarkable for extraordinary bravery and warlike skill, were severe, stern, and despotic rulers, keeping down by force and frequently oppressing their Saxon subjects—the mass of the population. The Normans were great architects. They built up grand churches and massive castles, and lived in the best style the age could afford. The peasantry of the time—those by whom the land was cultivated—were called *serfs* or *villeins*, attached to the land, and almost the property of their lords. Their houses and furniture were of the poorest kind. Although this was a period of warfare, bloodshed, and suffering, peaceful arts were not entirely neglected. Learning was

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Learning was

kept alive by such renowned scholars as Lanfranc and St. Anselm, and by the encouragement given to literary worth by Henry I. and his queen Maud. Schools opened by a few monks at Cheltenham laid the foundation of Cambridge University. Cloth weaving was established in the west of England by Flemish immigrants, and agriculture was fostered all over the country by the monks. Even the warlike tastes of the Norman lords produced good effects. They encouraged many mechanical trades, such as those of the smith and the miller, and built villages and towns around their castles.

What the Church did for the People.—She was ever the friend of the masses—improving their condition not only by her divine teachings, but also by the practical work of her numerous institutions of learning, piety, and benevolence; and always exercising her power in favor of the oppressed against tyrannical oppression. She emancipated the slaves, or made their burdens bearable. While inculcating the principles of obedience and respect for authority, she taught the people that they had rights and privileges consistent with the dignity of manhood, and she more than once forced haughty lords and kings to bow to the just demands of the people. In this military age, she did much to mitigate the horrors of war. She established the *Treuga Dei*, which prohibited warfare of all kinds during the holy seasons of Lent and Advent,

and, during the rest of the year, from every Wednesday evening until the following Monday morning. Under her influence was founded the celebrated institution of Chivalry, composed of many orders of noble knights, whose duties were: to succor the distressed, to defend the helpless, to protect religion, to be merciful and courteous even to their enemies, and to keep faith with God and man. Such are a few examples of the work done by the Church for the people, during that eventful period called the Middle Ages.

The Feudal System.—This famous civil and political institution of Europe, during the Middle Ages, was established in England in its full maturity by William the Conqueror. The fundamental principle of the system was that all the lands in the kingdom were held from the crown and were originally granted by the king to his principal followers, who, in consideration of such grants, bound themselves merely to render the king military service when required. Those to whom these grants were made, again parcelled out their estates on similar terms to their dependants, who were called their feudatories, or vassals, as they themselves were called the vassals of the king. The feudal system was in keeping with the military spirit of the age, and, though well calculated for defence, was defective in its provisions for the interior order of society; because, as every feudal kingdom was thus composed of a number

of independent chieftains, with no other bond between them than the obligation of rendering one head chief military service in his wars, the consequences were discord, turbulence, and war. The causes that contributed to its decline in Europe were the Crusades, the extension of commerce, and the rise of cities. The wholesale destruction of the nobles in the Wars of the Roses, and the policy of Henry VII. in limiting the number of each noble's retainers, virtually terminated its existence in England.

The Crusades (1095 to 1272) were military expeditions under the banner of the Cross, undertaken by the princes of Western Europe to deliver the Holy Land from the Mahometans who were persecuting resident Christians and pilgrims, and desecrating places hallowed by the sufferings of our Redeemer. There were eight of these expeditions in all; but, from a military view-point, the first was the most important, as being the only one that fully achieved its objects. The first Crusade was conducted chiefly by Godfrey, Duke of Boulogne, a knight equally renowned for his Christian virtues and military prowess. Under him the Crusaders won victory after victory over the Saracens, and finally brought the Crusade to a successful issue by the capture of Jerusalem and the crowning of Duke Godfrey as its first Christian king, A. D. 1099. The next in importance was the Third Crusade, which was undertaken at a time when Saladin, the famous

Saracen sultan, had taken Jerusalem and nearly all Palestine from the Christians. England, France, and Germany took part in this Crusade, with Richard I. of England as its most distinguished leader. The Crusaders made a good beginning, but, owing to dissensions among their leaders, they were forced to abandon the enterprise, with their object only half achieved. The other Crusades were, in a military sense, unsuccessful; and the Mahometans gradually regained their oppressive sway over all Palestine. The benefits of the Crusades were innumerable, and many of them can be felt even at the present day. They saved Europe from being overrun by Eastern barbarians; promoted concord among Christian princes by uniting them against the common enemy; relieved the Feudal System of many of its oppressive features; made travelling more easy and secure; awakened a spirit of enterprise; improved navigation; gave facilities to commerce; and by sustaining communication with Greece and Syria materially assisted in the spread of literature, art, and science. France took the leading place in the Crusades; but England was well represented—in the first, by Robert, eldest son of the Conqueror; in the third, by Richard I., and in the last, by Prince Edward, afterwards Edward I.

EMINENT MEN.

Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of William the Conqueror, who respected him for his piety, ability, and great literary attainments, and often entrusted him with the direction of the affairs of state. Lanfranc improved the discipline of the monastic bodies, established schools, convents, and hospitals, built churches and cathedrals, and wrote many learned works. William Rufus also gave him the management of public affairs, and he was the only one who was able to control the fierce passions of the Red King. He died in 1089.

St. Anselm, Doctor of the Church, and Archbishop of Canterbury, lived in the reigns of William II. and Henry I., with whom he had several disputes on the question of *Investitures*. They, following the example of other European monarchs, claimed the right to appoint bishops to vacant sees, and to confer on them the power of exercising their episcopal authority. St. Anselm, knowing that a bishop, as a bishop, holds his office from God, and that the Pope, as Vicar of Christ, can alone give him the authority to discharge his spiritual duties, firmly and steadily refused to acknowledge the king's jurisdiction in the matter. He was exiled and otherwise persecuted by both William and Henry, but he never wavered for an instant in his heroic defence of the rights of the Church. Henry at last yielded, gave up his claim to the right of making investitures, and restored St. Anselm to his archbishopric. He was beloved by the people, not only for his great piety and learning, but also for his brave and successful resistance to tyrannical assumption. As a religious philosopher, he had no superior in the age in which he lived, and, on that account, he has been called "the Augustine of the Middle Ages." He died in 1109.

Geoffrey of Monmouth, a monk; he wrote "History of the Britons," containing the story of Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table; he died in 1080.

William of Malmesbury, a monk and historian—careful and exact in his writings; he wrote “History of the English Kings;” he died in 1138.

Ingulphus, a monk and historian; born in London, 1030. He was a favored scholar in the court of Edward the Confessor, and became secretary to William I., in whose reign he was appointed Abbot of Croyland. He died in 1109.

CHIEF DATES OF THE NORMAN PERIOD.

Battle of Hastings	1066.
Feudal System (established).....	1085.
First Crusade.....	1096.
Battle of the Standard ..	1138.

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CHAPTER IV.

HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET, OR ANJOU.

A. D. 1154 TO 1399.

LEADING FEATURES.—Fusion of the rival races, Saxon and Norman.—Baronial power reaches its height and begins to decline.—Rise of civil liberty and commerce.—England becomes a great military nation.

Henry II., 1154 to 1189: an able and powerful monarch, but vicious and deceitful; the ruler of England and about one-third of the French monarchy. He invades Ireland, but with very partial success (see p. 30). He causes the enactment of the "Constitutions of Clarendon," designed to make the Church subject to the crown. St. Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, the greatest man of his day, boldly and successfully opposes the king in this measure, and, in consequence, is murdered, at the instigation of Henry. Henry, however, does public penance at the tomb of the great archbishop, the champion of religious liberty. Charters are granted to towns, and the courts of Assize and the King's Bench established. Henry dies of a broken heart, caused by the rebellions of his sons—Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John. Only Richard and John survive him.

Richard I. (Cœur de Lion), 1189 to 1199: romantic, courageous, and passionate. He engages in the Third Crusade and wins several victories over the Sultan Saladin. On his way home from Palestine, he is imprisoned by the Archduke of Austria, but is soon after ransomed by his subjects. He severely persecutes the Jews and imposes heavy taxes on the people. He is killed, while besieging the castle of Chaluz, in France.

John (Lackland), 1199 to 1216: cowardly, treacherous, cruel. He is said to have murdered his nephew Arthur (son of Geoffrey and rightful heir to the crown), and in consequence is forced to fly from France by Philip II., who confiscates all his possessions on the continent. John quarrels with the Pope (Innocent III.) about the appointment of Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury; commits various acts of tyranny against all classes of his subjects; seizes Church property, and threatens the general expulsion of the clergy from England. The Pope excommunicates him, and places England under an Interdict by which all offices of the Church cease throughout the land. The king finally submits, and swears to make restitution to all whom he wronged, to abolish all illegal customs, and to revive the laws of Edward the Confessor; but he fails to keep his promises, and so exasperates his subjects by his perfidy, that the barons, headed by Archbishop Langton, rise against him and force him to sign the Magna Charta (1215), securing important rights

and privileges to every order of men in the kingdom.* Thus did Archbishop Langton and the Catholic barons of England wring from a tyrannical king the foundation upon which the liberties of the English people have ever since rested. In a war with France the English are defeated at Bouvines, 1214. The king again proves faithless; and the barons, as a last resort, offer the crown to Louis, son of the French king, who accepts. John marches to oppose him, but dies of a fever on the way.

Henry III. (son of John), 1216 to 1272: a good but weak monarch, becomes king at the age of nine, with the Earl of Pembroke as Protector. The barons turn their arms against Prince Louis, and expel him. The king loses the esteem of his subjects by attaching himself to foreign favorites and by refusing to abide by the Provisions of Oxford—rules drawn up in 1258 to control the royal power. The barons, led by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, defeat and capture the king at Lewes (1264). Montfort summons a council,

* *The principal articles of Magna Charta*:—The Church was to be free and to enjoy her liberties of election; no freeman was to be arrested, outlawed, or otherwise punished, but by the judgment of his peers; no heiress was to be given in marriage against her will; freemen were to be fined only according to their offenses; justice was to be no longer sold, and the courts were no longer to follow the king, but be made stationary; no subsidies were to be levied, except in certain cases, without the consent of the council; cities and towns were to preserve their privileges; no man was to be tried on mere suspicion, but on the oath of witnesses; the privileges enjoyed by the king's vassals were also granted to inferior vassals. Bondsmen alone were excluded from the benefits of *Magna Charta*. The king was not to levy money without the consent of the Great Council.

not only of nobles, but also of representatives of cities and boroughs (first House of Commons, see p. 80). Montfort's great power rouses the jealousy of the barons, who, making Edward (Henry's son) their leader, defeat and slay Montfort at Evesham, and restore Henry (1265). Prince Edward goes with the last Crusade, but returns on hearing of his father's death.

Edward I. (Longshanks), 1272 to 1307 : sagacious, warlike, enterprising, arbitrary. He confirms the Magna Charta, and frames a wise and liberal code of laws ; conquers Wales * and Scotland (see p. 33) ; severely taxes his people to raise money to carry on his wars, but chiefly through the efforts of Archbishop Winchelsey, a true patriot to whom posterity owes a debt of gratitude, the king at last agrees that no tax be levied without the consent of the Parliament. He dies, while marching to suppress a rebellion of the Scots ; is succeeded by his son Edward.

Edward II., 1307 to 1327 : weak and effeminate. He marries Isabella, daughter of Philip IV. of France ; allows himself to be ruled by foreign favorites, and rouses the anger of his nobles. He is shamefully defeated by the Scots under King Robert Bruce at Ban-

* Wales, the dwelling-place of the remnant of the ancient Britons, had hitherto resisted all attempts at subjugation. In the reign of Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, Edward I. determined to conquer it (1279). After a desperate struggle of five years, Llewellyn was slain and his brother David captured, and the independence of Wales ceased. Since then, the eldest son of the English sovereign has held the title of Prince of Wales.

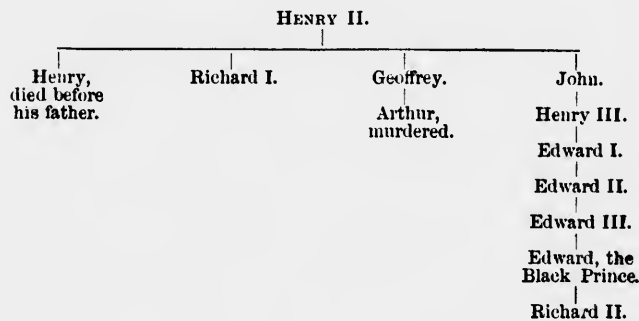
nockburn, 1314 ; is deposed by the Parliament, imprisoned, and cruelly put to death, at the instigation of his Queen Isabella. His son Edward is declared king.

Edward III., 1327 to 1377 : an able general and an accomplished prince, but an impolitic ruler. He imprisons his mother Isabella for her cruelties to his father ; defeats the Scots at Halidon Hill, but soon after acknowledges the independence of Scotland ; claims the French throne in right of his mother ; invades France, wins the great victory of Crecy, 1346, and takes Calais. The Black Plague interrupts the war for a time. His Queen Philippa defeats and captures the Scottish king, David Bruce, at Neville's Cross, 1346. His son, the Black Prince, defeats the French at Poitiers and captures King John, 1356. Bertrand du Guesclin, a celebrated French general, gradually recovers nearly all the conquered territory from the English. The efforts of Pope Clement VI. finally produce peace. The Treaty of Bretigny, by which Edward renounces his claim to the French crown, is signed, 1360. In this and in the succeeding reign, John Wyckliffe, impelled by feelings of wounded vanity, and irritation against his superiors, begins to preach strange and heretical doctrines, which do not, however, take any hold upon the people. They were, nevertheless, the cause of serious disturbances. The Black Prince dies in 1376. English becomes the legal language.

Richard II. (son of the Black Prince), 1377 to 1399 :

a learned, vain, and arbitrary prince, becomes king, at the age of eleven, under the guardianship of his uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester. A rebellion of the peasantry under Wat Tyler, owing to the levying of a tax of one shilling on every person over fifteen, and to the passage of the Statute of Laborers which required laborers to work for low wages, is suppressed by the king's address. Richard banishes his cousin, Henry Bolingbroke (son of Duke of Lancaster). Henry soon returns with a large army, dethrones Richard, and becomes king. Richard is imprisoned in Pontefract Castle and is soon after murdered. Wyckliffe recants his erroneous doctrines. The English under Lord Percy are defeated by the Scots under Earl Douglas at Chevy Chase or Otterburn, 1388.

GENEALOGY OF THE PLANTAGENET LINE.



Condition of England during the Plantagenet Period.—This is one of the most important periods in English history. The influence of the Church, inculcating Christian principles and indicating the advantages of a united nation, softened the animosities existing between Saxons and Normans; and the French wars, by developing a national spirit, completed the amalgamation of the rival races. Another good effect of the wars of this period was the increase of popular liberty; because every grant of money made to the kings to pay their military expenses was accompanied by a demand from the people for additions to the rights and privileges already secured by Magna Charta. Nor was war the only business of the age. The progress of learning was stimulated by the labors of the sons of St. Dominic and St. Francis; manufactures, commerce, and shipping made rapid advances, and the industrial classes became more numerous and prosperous. Through the influence of the Church thousands of slaves were annually set free, and hospitals founded for the benefit of the poor and the sick. Architecture fostered by the clergy reached a high state of excellence, and towards the end of this period English literature began to flourish. Many useful inventions also characterize this era: oil-painting, discovery of coal, use of chimneys, candles, gunpowder, cannon (first used at the battle of Crecy), and the magic lantern, nearly all the results of the labors of the

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Henry III.
Edward I.
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Edward III.
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Richard II.

monks. Towns increased in strength and importance, and the condition of the agricultural classes was much improved by their being allowed to *rent* the land, instead of working it as the mere serfs of their feudal masters.

Ireland.—Ireland—called by the natives Erin; by the Romans, Hibernia—was, like most of the nations of western Europe, anciently peopled by the Celts, a brave, generous, liberty-loving race. It was divided into five kingdoms—Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Connaught, and Meath—the King of Meath generally exercising the authority of chief king. Like their relatives in Britain, the ancient Irish were Druidic pagans and fond of war; but, unlike the Britons, the Irish, though enterprising, never came in contact with the conquering legions of pagan Rome. But in the fifth century the religious welfare of the Irish became an object of solicitude to Christian Rome, and Pope Celestine, in 432, entrusted their conversion to St. Patrick, a native of Gaul. This great apostle successfully accomplished his mission, and then the glories of Ireland began. For centuries she excelled the rest of Christendom in learning and sanctity, and her scholars and saints became the teachers and evangelizers of western Europe. In the ninth century, the savage Danes began their forays, and for nearly three hundred years a desperate conflict, fatal to Irish prosperity, continued, until the year 1014, when at the battle of

Clontarf the celebrated Irish king, Brian Boru, with one tremendous blow crushed the power of the Danes forever. Scarcely was Ireland freed from one enemy, when another and more persistent foe appeared. About the middle of the twelfth century, McMurrough, King of Leinster, expelled from Ireland for disgraceful conduct by the monarch Roderick O'Connor, in revenge sought the aid of Henry II., King of England, who agreed to give it. Accordingly, Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, in 1169, and Henry himself, in 1171, landed in Ireland, took possession of Dublin, and received the nominal submission of a few princes. *But Ireland was not conquered then.* For five hundred years the Irish maintained a series of struggles against the overwhelming power of England, so determined and desperate, that more than once the rule of the invader was all but overthrown. During that period, the majority of the Irish chieftains, including the princely houses of O'Brian, O'Connor, O'Neill, McCarthy, and McMurrough, retained their independence, and had they but acted in concert against the common enemy, their country might have been free. In the sixteenth century England became Protestant; Ireland remained Catholic, and for her fidelity to the ancient Faith was bitterly persecuted wherever English sway prevailed. Queen Elizabeth and her successors enacted laws that robbed the Catholics of Ireland of their property, excluded them from office, deprived them of their

churches, outlawed their priests, and forbade them under severe penalties to educate their children, or practice the exercises of their religion. And thus the story of Ireland reads "through ages of bondage and slaughter." In the reign of Elizabeth, the brave chieftains of Ulster made a gallant attempt to obtain civil and religious liberty, but failed. As a penalty, King James I. confiscated the greater part of that province and colonized it with his needy subjects of Britain—aliens to the Irish in creed and race. Under the lash of the penal laws, the Irish chieftains in the reign of Charles I. again took up arms; but, whatever were the prospects of success that appeared from their first efforts, they were quickly dissipated in blood, ruin, and confiscation by the brutal armies of the regicide Cromwell. Forty years after, hoping that the Stuarts, in spite of their perfidy in the past, would yet grant them some measure of justice, the Irish people espoused the cause of the exiled James II.; but the English, under their new king, William III., with all the resources of a powerful and wealthy nation, once more overran Ireland, made fresh confiscations of its lands, and completely crushed its military strength. Ireland was now *conquered, but not subdued*. For more than a century after this, the penal laws were cruelly and mercilessly enforced. Then England, ashamed of her own tyranny, foiled in all her efforts to apostatize the nation, and overawed by the unconquer-

able spirit of independence ever manifested by the Irish people, began to relax her severity. In 1782, the repeal of Poynings' Law (passed in the reign of Henry VII.), relieved the Irish legislature from subjection to the British Parliament, and was the first evidence of returning freedom. A treacherous government in a few years cancelled this repeal, and caused the exasperated people to plunge into a disastrous rebellion, in 1798. This rebellion was used by the British government as an excuse for wiping the Irish parliament out of existence—an event which was effected in 1800, by corruption and intimidation. Nevertheless, it was evident that the darkest days of Ireland had passed. As the nineteenth century advanced, "liberal measures"—really, acts of restitution—from time to time passed the British Parliament, and most of the penal laws were—under pressure—repealed. Now, the mass of the Irish people, free in the enjoyment of their holy religion—heritage of St. Patrick—for which they suffered for centuries, and possessed of a portion of civil rights and privileges, are earnestly watching and working for that not distant day when will be realized the great national wish—the legislative independence of Ireland. (See page 103.)

Scotland.—The brave and hardy inhabitants of Caledonia (Scotland), who gave so much trouble to the Britons and their Roman masters, were of the Celtic race. In the fifth century, they were forced into the

northern districts by the Anglo-Saxons who took possession of the country south of the Clyde. In the following century, a colony from Ireland, also called Scots, conquered the western part of the island, at the same time introducing Christianity. The new-comers in time became the dominant race, and in the ninth century their king, Kenneth II., became ruler of all Scotland. After him there were fifteen kings in regular succession to the time of Duncan, in 1040, when that monarch was assassinated by his cousin Macbeth, who usurped the throne for fifteen years. Malcolm III., son of Duncan, then became king, and his descendants occupied the throne until the death of Alexander III., in 1295, when the royal line became extinct. In the disputes that followed among rival claimants, Edward I. of England was chosen umpire, and he decided in favor of John Baliol, a weak and timid prince, who swore fealty to the English king. But the Scottish nobles soon forced Baliol to renounce his allegiance to England. Edward promptly marched an army into Scotland, routed the Scots at Dunbar, and brought the kingdom to his feet. The Scottish hero, William Wallace, then appeared, and by his skill and daring well nigh delivered his country from the English yoke. He was, at last, defeated at Falkirk, betrayed into Edward's hands, and barbarously put to death. The Scots again revolted, chose Robert Bruce for their king, won the great victory of Bannockburn, 1314, and finally

achieved their independence. After this, Scotland waged many wars with England, with varying success. She sustained her most disastrous defeat at Flodden Field, in 1514, when her king, James IV., and 10,000 of her best men were slain. The celebrated, but unfortunate, House of Stuart—nine members of which ruled Scotland—began with Robert II., in 1370. James IV. married Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. of England,—an event which led to the union of the English and Scottish crowns in the person of James VI., on the death of Queen Elizabeth, in 1603. In the reign of Mary, the beautiful and accomplished Queen of Scots, mother of James VI., the "Reformation" broke out, and Scotland, the mother of so many great Catholic saints, and a nation whose noblest deeds were done in Catholic times, became Protestant. Mary, refusing to accept the new religion, was driven from her throne by her intolerant subjects, and forced to seek refuge from her cousin Elizabeth, who treacherously imprisoned her and afterwards put her to death. The parliamentary union of England and Scotland took place in 1706, and since that period the history of Scotland has become merged in that of England.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Thomas a Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, in the reign of Henry II. He was one of the most extraordinary men of his time, and rose to that exalted position through the force

of his own great abilities. For many years he enjoyed the king's favor, but venturing to oppose the passage of the "Constitutions of Clarendon," designed to make the Church the mere tool of the monarch, he earned Henry's bitterest enmity. St. Thomas was banished and his property confiscated by the king, who even saw fit to work vengeance on all the known friends of the archbishop. The people espoused the cause of St. Thomas, always their friend and benefactor; the Pope supported the illustrious prelate in his hard struggle for the rights of the Church, and denounced Henry's arbitrary conduct. In consequence, the king was at last forced to restore the archbishop to his see. But the defeated monarch lost none of his animosity. He openly expressed a desire to be rid of the brave opponent of his tyranny, and one winter's evening four of his knights entered the chapel at Canterbury and murdered the archbishop in his own sanctuary. This event shocked not only England, but all Europe, strengthened the cause for which Becket had fought, and completely crushed Henry's power and influence. During life, the archbishop was remarkable for his piety, abstemiousness, and benevolence; and after his death, many miracles were wrought at his tomb.

Nicholas Breakspere, became Pope in 1154 under the title of Adrian IV. ; he was the only Englishman who ever rose to the position of Sovereign Pontiff; he died in 1159.

Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of John, was chiefly instrumental in forcing that king to sign Magna Charta. He was patriotic, pious, and learned; died in 1228.

Roger Bacon, a Franciscan monk and profound scholar; he was the most wonderful scientific genius of his time. He invented gunpowder and the magic lantern, and, in his writings, anticipated the telescope and other optical instruments. He died in 1292.

Geoffrey Chaucer, called "the Father of English Poetry;" he was the first great writer of English verse, and is classed among the ablest poets of the Middle Ages. "The Canterbury Tales" is his greatest work. He died in 1400.

John Gower, contemporary with Chaucer and a gentleman of fortune, was, in his time, second only to Chaucer as a writer of poetry; he died in 1402.

Other great men of this period were: **Simon de Montfort**, already alluded to; **Edward the Black Prince**, son of Edward III., and greatest general of his time; **Matthew Paris**, monk, great historian; **Sir John Mandeville**, famous traveller; first English prose-writer; died in 1372.

CHIEF DATES OF THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

Invasion of Ireland.....	1171.
Third Crusade.....	1190.
Magna Charta signed.....	1215.
Conquest of Wales.....	1282.
Conquest of Scotland.....	1305.
Battle of Bannockburn.....	1314.
Battle of Crecy.....	1346.
Battle of Poitiers.....	1356.
Treaty of Bretigny.....	1360.
Rebellion of Wat Tyler.....	1381.

CHAPTER V.

HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

A. D. 1399 TO 1485.

LEADING FEATURES.—Rise and Fall of English Power in France.—Wars of the Roses.—Overthrow of the Feudal System.—Rise of the "New Monarchy."

Henry IV., 1399 to 1413: the first Lancastrian, able and brave, but ambitious and unscrupulous. His nobles, looking on him as a usurper, raise several rebellions. Earl Percy of Northumberland, Owen Glendower—a Welsh chieftain, and Earl Douglas of Scotland, unite their forces against him, but are defeated at Shrewsbury, where Douglas is captured and Percy slain. The estates of the latter are confiscated. Henry imprisons the Earl of March, descendant of Lionel, second son of Edward III., and an heir to the crown. James I. of Scotland is accidentally captured and kept prisoner for eighteen years. In this reign, members of Parliament are, for the first time, exempted from arrest. The Order of the Bath is instituted. The king deals severely with some of the followers of Wyckliffe, who made themselves obnoxious to many classes of the people by the extravagance of their views. Henry dies while praying in St. Edward's chapel, Westminster, in 1413.

The last days of his reign were much embittered by the profligate conduct of his eldest son—Henry, Prince of Wales.

Henry V. (son of Henry IV.), 1413 to 1422: dissipated in his youth, but reforms after his coronation and becomes a great warrior and statesman. He liberates the Earl of March, and restores the Percy estates to the legal heir. Henry concedes that no law shall be enforced until it has received the consent of the Commons. He renews the claim to the French crown; makes war on France; wins the great battle of Agincourt, and conquers the whole country. By the treaty of Troyes, he marries the daughter of the French king, Charles VI., and is declared Regent of France and heir to its throne. The followers of Wyckliffe (Lollards), headed by Sir John Oldcastle, cause commotions in the kingdom by their communistic doctrines, but are suppressed and their leader executed. Henry V. is said to have been the first to establish a permanent navy. He dies in France, at the height of his power, of a malady from which he had long suffered. His widow, Catharine, marries Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman: from them originated the House of Tudor, in the person of Henry VII.

Henry VI., 1422 to 1461: gentle, benevolent, virtuous and deeply religious; only nine months old, at his father's death. His uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, are respectively Regent of France and

Protector of England, during his minority. He is crowned at Paris, 1431, and marries Margaret of Anjou, a spirited, courageous queen, 1447. Joan of Arc, the heroic "Maid of Orleans," claims to be divinely appointed to rescue France from the English; she is placed at the head of the French armies and begins a series of successes that terminate in the total overthrow of English power in France. The English capture Joan of Arc, and burn her alive at Rouen, on a charge of sorcery, 1431. England loses all her possessions, except Calais, 1451. Thus the long struggle for the crown of France, called the "Hundred Years' War," ends unsuccessfully for England, though the winner of several brilliant victories. Civil wars, called the "Wars of the Roses," between the Houses of Lancaster and York, begin 1455 (see p. 43). Henry VI. is deposed, and Edward, son of Richard, Duke of York, is proclaimed king, 1461. One Jack Cade claims the crown and raises a rebellion; is at first victorious, but is ultimately defeated and slain, 1450.

Edward IV., first Yorkist king, 1461 to 1483: a good soldier and statesman, but tyrannical and vicious. His most powerful friend, the Earl of Warwick, offended at his conduct, joins the Lancastrians, compels Edward to fly to Holland, and restores Henry VI. Edward returns, defeats the Lancastrians at Barnet, where Warwick is killed, and Prince Edward, Henry's son, murdered. (See p. 43.) Edward now puts num-

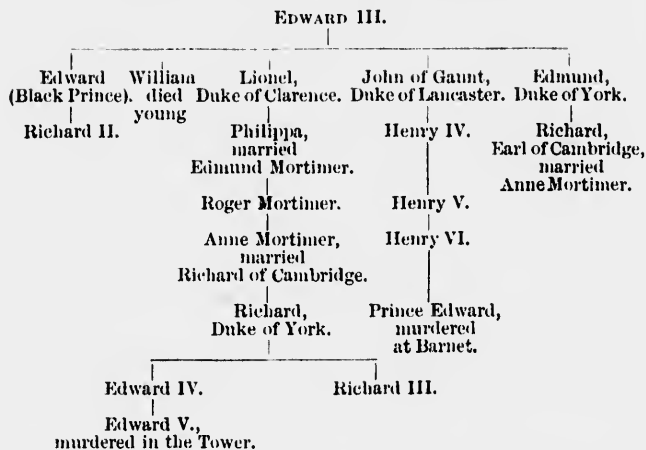
bers of the Lancastrian nobles to death; imprisons his brother Clarence and, it is supposed, causes him to be drowned. In this reign, money is for the first time extorted from the people, under the name of "Benevolences."*

Edward V., 1483, eldest son of Edward IV., is proclaimed king at the age of thirteen, but is never crowned, and reigns but eleven weeks. His uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the Protector, causes him and his little brother Richard, Duke of York, to be confined in the tower, under the pretense of safe-keeping. The two young princes are soon after smothered to death, by the order of Richard, it is believed, who then causes himself to be proclaimed king.

Richard III., brother of Edward IV., and last of the Plantagenets, 1483 to 1485: a most iniquitous and cruel tyrant. Hastings and other noblemen are accused of treason and executed without a trial. The Duke of Buckingham conspires in favor of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, and is executed. Henry (the last surviving heir of the House of Lancaster) lands at Milford Haven, fights the battle of Bosworth, where Richard is defeated and slain, and Henry proclaimed king, 1485.

* So called because they were supposed to be given *willingly*.

GENEALOGY OF LANCASTER AND YORK.



England in the Fifteenth Century (Lancaster-York Period).—During the early part of this period the English peasantry were comfortably situated. Most men could earn good wages; and those who could not, found their resource in the hospitality of the monasteries and the houses of the great. All classes of the people were remarkable for their regular, health-giving habits. They had abundant food, consisting of all kinds of flesh and fish; they were clothed in good woolen garments, had tolerably comfortable houses, and, generally speaking, every man in England, accord-

ing to his rank, enjoyed all those things that conduce to make life easy and happy. The Wars of the Roses brought a melancholy change. The country was devastated, the forests were filled with outlaws, and much misery was spread over the land. Still, commerce made considerable progress; and learning, though almost entirely neglected in the great colleges, continued to flourish for the benefit of the people in the monasteries, where the monks kept up their old reputation as lovers and promoters of knowledge. As many of the nobles were slain in the wars, the influence of that body was greatly lessened. The Feudal System was broken up, serfdom steadily decreased, and, as a consequence, tenant farming extended. The power of the House of Commons increased during the Lancastrian period, although in the reign of Henry VI. a bill was passed restricting the number of voters; but in the reign of Edward IV. the royal power became absolute, owing chiefly to the national exhaustion caused by the long civil wars, and the period of the "New Monarchy" began.

The art of printing, said to have been invented by German monks, in the early part of this century, was introduced into England by W. Caxton, in 1474. Post-horses and stages were introduced in the reign of Richard III.

Wars of the Roses, 1455 to 1485.—The Wars of the Roses began in the reign of Henry VI., the last Lancastrian king. His mental incapacity and feeble

constitution awakened the ambition of Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, who was descended by his father's side from Edmund, and on his mother's side from Lionel—the former the youngest son, and the latter the third son, of Edward III. Henry VI. was descended from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, Edward III.'s fourth son. He was subject to occasional fits of insanity, during one of which the duke of York was declared Protector. On the king's recovery, Richard was unwilling to relinquish his authority, and took up arms to assert his claim as rightful heir to the throne. He was supported by the powerful Earl of Warwick, afterwards called "the Kingmaker." The badge of the House of York was a white rose, that of the House of Lancaster was a red rose; hence the title, Wars of the Roses. The first battle was fought at St. Albans, in 1455. The Lancastrians were defeated and Henry taken prisoner; he was soon released, but recaptured at Northampton by the Yorkists under Warwick. The parliament now declared Richard heir to the crown. But the high-spirited Queen Margaret refused to have her son's rights thus set aside, and, collecting a large army, attacked and defeated the Yorkists at Wakefield, where Richard was slain, 1460. At St. Albans, Margaret won another victory and set King Henry free, but was in her turn defeated, at Mortimer's Cross, by Edward, son of Richard. Edward immediately marched to London, was welcomed by the

people, and proclaimed king as Edward IV., 1461. Soon after this event, the intrepid Margaret again appeared in the field with an army of 60,000 men. Edward met her with an equal force at Towton, where the bloodiest battle of the wars took place, ending in the rout of the Lancastrians with a loss of 20,000 men. After two other defeats, Margaret fled to France, and the unfortunate Henry was once more consigned to the Tower. Edward's extreme favoritism to his wife's relatives angered Warwick, who felt himself slighted. He withdrew to France, and formed an alliance with Margaret. He soon returned, caused Edward to fly to Holland, and placed Henry again on his throne. The following year Edward came back, was joined by his old adherents, met the Lancastrians at Barnet, and gained a complete victory, in which battle Warwick was slain, 1471. Margaret still bravely upheld her cause, but was hopelessly defeated at Tewkesbury, where she was taken prisoner and her son Edward murdered in cold blood. The death of Henry VI. (murdered, it is thought), not long after, left Edward in complete possession of the throne. Queen Margaret was ransomed by her father, King René of Anjou, and died in France, 1490. The Lancastrians made no further effort, until Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, claiming descent from John of Gaunt, raised his standard against Richard III. At the battle of Bosworth, Richard was defeated and slain, and the Earl of Richmond crowned king, with

the title of Henry VII. This was the last battle in the Wars of the Roses, leaving the Red Rose finally triumphant.

EMINENT MEN.

Henry Chicheley, Archbishop of Canterbury, founder of All Souls' College, Oxford, was called the "Light of the English Church;" he established many pious foundations; he died in 1443.

John Lydgate, a monk of Bury, was the wonder of his age: he was a mathematician, a theologian, a profound linguist, and a brilliant poet; he died in 1460.

Sir John Fortescue was a historian, a philosopher, and a lawyer; he died about 1485.

Thomas Walsingham, monk and historian, flourished 1440.

Cardinal Henry Beaufort, half-brother of Henry IV., was a celebrated prelate and statesman, but ambitious and worldly; he ended his life well, not in despair as represented by Shakespere.

William Caxton, a mercer by trade, introduced the first printing-press into England. It was erected in Westminster Abbey, A. D. 1473. The first work printed there was "The Game and Play of Chess," A. D. 1474, but the first book printed in the English language was a translation made by Caxton of "The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troy," executed at Bruges, 1471. Printing was introduced into Scotland in A. D. 1508, and into Ireland, A. D. 1551. Before this time the price of books had been so enormous that they were the precious possession of the few.

Neville, Earl of Warwick, called the Kingmaker, took a

prominent part during the Wars of the Roses; slain at Barnet in the reign of Edward IV.

Sir Richard Whittington, "thrice lord mayor of London," who acquired great wealth by trading in his vessel, "the Cat." Hence the story of his wonderful adventures.

Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, called "The English Achilles," on account of his bravery.

Owen Glendower, descendant of a Welsh prince, rebelled in favor of the Earl of March; he was defeated near Shrewsbury by Henry IV., 1403.

Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland, surnamed Hotspur. He espoused the cause of the Earl of March, and was slain at Battlefield near Shrewsbury, 1403.

John Kay, first poet laureate, or court poet, was appointed by Edward IV.

CHIEF DATES—LANCASTER AND YORK.

Battle of Shrewsbury.....	1405.
Battle of Agincourt....	1415.
Treaty of Troyes.....	1420.
Joan d'Arc appears.....	1431.
Loss of French possessions.....	1451.
Battle of Wakefield—Wars of the Roses.....	1460.
Battle of Towton—do. do.	1461.
Battle of Barnet—do. do.	1471.
Battle of Tewkesbury—do. do.	1471.
Printing introduced.....	1474.
Battle of Bosworth—Wars of the Roses.....	1485.

CHAPTER VI.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

A. D. 1485 TO 1603.

LEADING FEATURES.—Rise of Maritime Discovery.—Extension of Commerce.—The "New Monarchy" becomes a Despotism.—Religious Excitement growing out of the Protestant Heresy.

Henry VII., 1485 to 1509 (descended by his mother's side from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster): crafty, clever, avaricious, and arbitrary. He marries Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., thereby uniting the claims of York and Lancaster. He imprisons the young Earl of Warwick (nephew of Edward IV.), who he fears might lay claim to the throne, and after fifteen years causes him to be put to death. He suppresses the rebellions of two impostors—Lambert Simnel (1487), who pretended to be the Earl of Warwick above mentioned, and Perkin Warbeck (1499), who claimed to be Edward IV.'s second son Richard, said to have been murdered in the Tower. Both are captured; Simnel is pardoned, but Warbeck is executed. Margaret, Henry's eldest daughter, marries James IV. of Scotland (1502), an event which leads to the union of the two kingdoms, a century

later. Laws are passed greatly limiting the number of the nobles' retainers. Violating these laws, the nobles are heavily fined, thereby enriching the king and breaking their own power. Poynings' Bill, subjecting the Irish parliament to that of England, is passed in 1495. Arthur, prince of Wales (Henry's eldest son), dies in 1501. Henry's reign is comparatively peaceful and prosperous. Although of an avaricious disposition, his charities are great. He founds three convents of friars, all of which fall victims to the cupidity of his successor. In 1497, Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese, finds a new route to India, around the Cape of Good Hope; in 1492, Christopher Columbus, in the service of Spain, discovers America; and, in 1497, Cabot, in the service of Henry VII., discovers Newfoundland and Labrador.

Henry VIII., 1509 to 1547, the second son of Henry VII., is at first mild and element, but soon becomes cruel, tyrannical, and rapacious. He marries Catharine of Arragon, widow of his brother Arthur. He goes to war with France, and wins the battle of the Spurs. James IV. of Scotland invades England, but is defeated and slain at Flodden Field, in 1513, by the English under the Earl of Surrey. Cardinal Wolsey becomes Henry's prime minister and favorite (see p. 60). The Protestant heresy is begun in Germany by Martin Luther (see p. 57). Henry writes a book against Luther and is rewarded by the Pope with the title "Defender of the Faith,"

but soon after quarrels with the Pope because the latter refuses to grant him a divorce from his wife Catharine. By the Act of Supremacy he declares himself head of the Church in England, with Thomas Cromwell his vicar-general, and by the Bloody Statute makes death the penalty to all who deny his supremacy. He disgraces Wolsey for opposing the divorce, and elevates Cranmer to the position of Archbishop of Canterbury. He puts away his lawful wife Catharine and marries Anne Boleyn, whom, within a year, he beheads, and then marries Jane Seymour, who dies in giving birth to a son (Edward VI.). He next marries Anne of Cleves, whom he divorces; then, Catharine Howard, whom he beheads, and finally, Catharine Parr (his sixth wife), who survives him. Meantime, Henry, advised by Cromwell, suppresses the monasteries, burns their libraries, murders the monks, and seizes their revenues. He then executes Cromwell for heresy, and Sir Thomas More (Lord Chancellor), Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and many others, for refusing to acknowledge him head of the Church. He squanders his father's wealth in criminal pleasures, daily becomes more profligate and blood-thirsty, and by his arbitrary and cruel measures makes the latter part of his reign a period of terror to the English people. He dies in 1547.

Edward VI., 1547 to 1553: becomes king in his tenth year, with his uncle Seymour, created Duke of

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Somerset, Protector. A war with Scotland ends in the defeat of the Scots at Pinkie, in 1547. Somerset and Cranmer determine to uproot the Catholic Faith. They pull down altars and shrines, rob and destroy the few remaining monasteries, persecute the Catholics, and force the nation with the aid of foreign mercenaries to accept the new religion, Protestantism, as set forth in their Book of Common Prayer (a mangled translation of the Catholic Missal). Somerset's arrogance brings his ruin, and, in 1551, he is beheaded on a charge of treason, and the Duke of Northumberland made Protector. Edward, always weak-minded and sickly, is induced by Northumberland to name as his successor Lady Jane Grey (descended from Henry VII.'s youngest daughter), to the exclusion of his half-sisters, Mary and Elizabeth. He dies of consumption, in his sixteenth year.

Mary I., 1553 to 1558: daughter of Henry VIII. by his first wife, Catharine of Arragon. The people espouse her cause, as their lawful sovereign; Lady Jane Grey and her husband are confined in the Tower,* Northumberland is taken and executed, and Mary proclaimed queen. She restores the Catholic religion

* The *Tower of London* was built by William I. on the site of a Roman fort, on the north bank of the Thames. For 500 years, it was variously used as a fortress, a palace, and a prison for state offenders. Many distinguished persons suffered death within its walls. In the reign of Elizabeth it ceased to be a royal residence, and has since then been chiefly remarkable for its historical associations, and the many national curiosities which it contains.

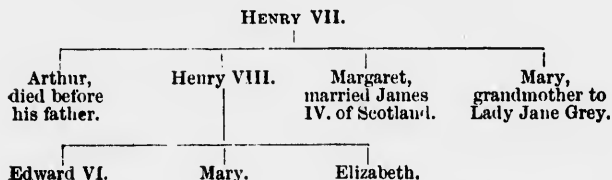
and communion with the Holy See; marries Philip II. of Spain, which event leads to a foolhardy rebellion by Sir Thomas Wyatt, who is defeated and put to death. This and two other unsuccessful risings cause the government, as a matter of state policy, to execute Lady Jane Grey and her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley—an act which, though legal and politic, was ungenerous. War with France: the French are defeated at St. Quentin, but they capture Calais in 1559, after its having been 200 years in English hands. Mary was one of the best of English sovereigns, but the execution of a number of Protestants during her reign leaves the one great stain on her fame. Though the motives of state policy which animated her counsellors in this persecution cannot justify their conduct, still it must be remembered, by way of extenuation, that the “Reformers” throughout the reign were the aggressors by the intriguing and rebellious spirit which they steadily manifested, and that most of the executions were for political offences. In her private life, Mary was pious, virtuous, clement, and liberal, and her court was a model of respectability for all Europe. Dies without issue.

Elizabeth, 1558 to 1603: daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn; learned and possessed of singular abilities as a sovereign, but treacherous, despotic, and cruel. She takes the coronation oath according to a solemn Catholic ceremony; but soon declares herself

opposed to Catholicity. She restores Protestant worship, renews the Act of Supremacy, declares herself head of the Church, and on purely religious principles begins a systematic and bloody persecution of her Catholic subjects, and relentlessly continues it to the end of her reign, bringing scores of noble families to utter misery and ruin, and sacrificing hundreds of valuable lives for refusing to abandon the Faith of their fathers. (See Penal Laws, p. 58.) She imprisons Mary, Queen of Scots, who sought her protection against her own rebellious subjects, and after eighteen years causes her to be beheaded, 1587 (see p. 62). Philip II., exasperated by the repeated treacheries of Elizabeth's government, fits out an immense fleet (the Great Armada) to invade England; but a terrible storm destroys many of the vessels, and the rest are put to flight by the English fleet under Admiral Howard (a Catholic nobleman), 1588. Hugh O'Neill, Prince of Ulster, and lineal descendant of the ancient Irish kings, forms a confederacy of chieftains to obtain civil and religious freedom for Ireland, 1598. By his skill and activity English armies are defeated, strongholds captured, and the Irish for a time become masters of the whole of their country, except Dublin and its vicinity. But the English resort to their old artifice of sowing dissensions among the chieftains, which so weakened O'Neill's power that the country is again overrun by the English, and the gallant chief forced to lay down his arms, 1603. The reign of

Elizabeth is one of the most important in English history. Her private character is stained with many unwomanly and unqueenly traits, and her court was the most disreputable in Europe. She ruled for many years without a parliament, and frequently imprisoned members, either for opposing bills introduced by the crown, or for introducing bills which she did not like. But with all this, she was a successful ruler. She gathered around her some of England's greatest men, poets, philosophers, statesmen, and commanders (p. 62); and raised England from a second rate position to a level with the first nations of Europe. She was never married, and was the last of the Tudors.

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.



England in the Sixteenth Century.—The “New Monarchy.”—During the Tudor period, the royal power reached its height and became despotic. The chief causes of this were the breaking up of the Feudal

System, the consequent decline of baronial power, the subjection of the Church to the State, and the personal abilities and arbitrary will of the individual Tudor sovereigns. Parliaments, seldom called, were but instruments for carrying out the monarch's wishes.

In the reign of Henry VII., the influence of the Church had at last produced the virtual extinction of slavery and villeinage; but the destruction of the monasteries and the spoliation of their property in the next reign, brought the lower orders to a state of deplorable destitution which lasted throughout the whole Tudor period. The monasteries were the homes of learning, charity, and religious perfection. In them the children of all classes received free instruction, and from them the lower orders obtained employment in health, and food, shelter, and care, when poor and sick. From the new owners they received no such consideration, and England, in consequence, soon swarmed with paupers and vagabonds, which caused in Elizabeth's reign the passage of the first Poor Law, providing by taxation for the support of the poor.

The wholesale destruction of the vast monastic libraries by the early "Reformers" was an incalculable injury to the literary public, and for a time added general ignorance to general destitution. As the 16th century advanced, classical learning, popularized in Italy in the preceding century, became fashionable with the English gentry; the universities gradually

recovered their ancient fame, and knowledge, aided by the facilities afforded by printing, began to spread with rapidity among the middle classes. The *Mercurie*, the first English newspaper, appeared in the reign of Elizabeth. As the penal laws forbade the education of Catholics in England, several colleges were founded by the efforts of exiled clergymen in France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, to which the Catholic English youth were sent for education.

Among the inventions and discoveries of this era were watches, telescopes, paper mills, and coaches. Tea was first brought from China, tobacco and potatoes from America, and whale and cod fisheries were established. In Elizabeth's reign the Royal Exchange was founded and the East India Company formed. Trade in negro slaves was also commenced, and it is said that it was encouraged by Queen Elizabeth. This period saw the last of those celebrated martial sports, called the Tournaments.

The extraordinary successes of the Spanish and Portuguese navigators aroused the English to maritime exertions. The east coast of North America was explored, a large portion of it claimed for the English crown, and the first English colony in America was begun in Virginia, in 1607. The maritime spirit gave an impetus to commerce, which soon exercised a wholesome influence in creating and promoting other industries throughout the land. The overthrow of King

Philip's great Armada crippled the power of Spain and led to England's ascendancy on the ocean.

The "Reformation."—During the pontificate of Pope Leo X., early in the sixteenth century, Martin Luther, a German monk of the Augustinian order, jealous because the Dominican monks had been appointed to perform certain important ecclesiastical commissions in Germany, began to preach against the principal doctrines of the Catholic Church. On being authoritatively warned that his teachings were heretical, he agreed to abide by the decision of the Pope. In the meantime his cause was espoused by Philip, the landgrave of Hesse, and other German princes attracted by Luther's loose doctrines, that were well calculated to remove those wholesome restraints which the Catholic Church had for centuries held upon the immoral passions of men. The Pope decided against Luther and condemned his writings; but Luther, emboldened by the support he had received, refused to submit, and proceeded with his heretical work with daily increasing violence and excess. This was the origin of the so-called Reformation, which for generations embroiled Christendom in fierce wars and dissensions, and caused more mischief to the true interests of mankind than any other event of modern times.

As we have seen, Henry VIII. at first stoutly opposed the new doctrines, and the English people were slow to accept them. But when the king broke with

the Pope on the divorce question, heresy began its career in England. For a long time the mass of the people remained true to the ancient Faith, and signified their disapproval of the violence of the "Reformers" by frequently taking up arms against them. But foreign mercenaries swept the country with fire and sword, and every unsuccessful effort for religious freedom was made the pretence for fresh persecutions. By means of these persecutions—cruel, bloody, systematic, and persistent—Protestantism at last became the religion of England. The Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England were drawn up in their present form in 1562. The "Reformers" were equally successful in Scotland, establishing Presbyterianism after Queen Mary's imprisonment; but all their attempts in Ireland resulted in signal failures.

The English Penal Laws.—During the reigns of Elizabeth and most of her successors down to the time of George III., laws were passed by the British government having for their object the extirpation of Catholicity from British dominions. Persons refusing or failing to comply with the requirements of these laws incurred a penalty of some sort—fine, imprisonment, exile, or death—hence the name *penal* laws, of which the following is a brief resumé. According to them—

Catholics could be fined for absenting themselves from the Protestant service on Sunday, or for attending

their own, and for acknowledging the Pope to be their spiritual head. The Catholic clergy were declared outlaws, a price was put upon their heads, and all who harbored them were made liable to confiscation of property. Catholics were forbidden to be teachers, and the children of Catholics were deprived by law of the means of acquiring an education. Catholics were prohibited from being the guardians of their own children, and if any of these became Protestants, their parents lost all legal control of their own property. Catholics were made incapable of purchasing property, or of holding leases for a longer period than thirty-one years, and if any Protestant discovered that the farm of a Catholic yielded a greater profit than one-third of this lease value, he could at once take possession of the same. Finally, Catholics were disqualified from holding office and from voting at elections.

This is a part of the tyrannical code that disgraced the English statute books for centuries. But these cruel laws ultimately failed in their object—Ireland always remained Catholic, and though Catholicity was for a time paralyzed in Great Britain, still the repeal of the penal laws found it possessed of a degree of activity that has since produced wonderful results. Some of the penal laws still remain:—Neither the Monarch, the Regent, the Chief Justice of England, nor the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland can be a Catholic. Nevertheless, it is but just to state that at the present

day in no part of the world does Catholicity enjoy greater freedom than under the rule of the once bitterly intolerant British government.

EMINENT PERSONS OF THE TUDOR PERIOD.

Cardinal Thomas Wolsey : born 1471, died 1530. By his varied talents and admirable address, he rose from the lowest rank to the highest position in Church and State within the kingdom. In a comparatively short period he became Archbishop of York, Chancellor of England, Papal Legate, and Cardinal. His revenues were enormous, and his style of living almost royal ; but he was generous with his wealth, and often made good use of his great influence. For a long time he remained the warm favorite of Henry VIII., and was really the ruler of England ; but with all this he was too worldly for a Churchman—too warm in his attachment to an unprincipled king, and more absorbed in political than in religious affairs—so that when his end came he could look on the past with little else than feelings of regret. Having opposed, though weakly, Henry's divorce from Queen Catharine, Wolsey incurred the king's displeasure. One by one he was deprived of his dignities, and at last, through the jealousy of his enemies—especially Anne Boleyn—he was accused of high treason. While journeying towards London to answer the charge, he died at the Abbey of Leicester, with expressions of piety and devotion. He was one of the most extraordinary men of his time, possessed of great learning, and a munificent patron of literature.

Blessed John Fisher, Cardinal Bishop of Rochester ; born 1459, beheaded 1535 ; a learned, pious, and zealous prelate. He opposed the divorce, and refused to acknowledge the king's supremacy, for which he was imprisoned and beheaded. He was beatified in 1886, by Pope Leo XIII.

Cardinal Reginald Pole, born 1500, died 1558 ; learned, holy, and kind-hearted. He was related to Henry VIII., but being unwilling to sanction the divorce, or acknowledge the king head of the Church, he retired to the continent. On Mary's accession, he returned to England, and became the last Catholic Archbishop of Canterbury.

Thomas Cromwell, "Vicar-General" to Henry VIII.; bold, wicked, and unprincipled. From being a soldier he became a member of Parliament. By his artful conduct he won favor and preferment, first from Wolsey, and, on the fall of the latter, from the king. He settled the divorce question by boldly advising Henry to throw off papal allegiance. This was done, and the king rewarded him with the new office of Vicar-General, in which capacity he exercised almost absolute sway. It was through him that the royal power became a despotism, that the monasteries were robbed and suppressed, that so many hundreds were mercilessly put to death, and England kept in a state of terror for ten years. Failing to suit Henry's taste in the choice of a wife (Anne of Cleves), he was charged with treason, found guilty and executed, 1540. Throughout his life, morality and religion held no restraint on him, and he was accustomed to say that virtue and vice were nothing but names.

Thomas Cranmer, born 1489, died 1556 : the first Protestant Archbishop of Canterbury. He rose into prominence through the favor of Anne Boleyn, whose marriage with Henry he had encouraged. He was the most consummate hypocrite mentioned in English history. Though ordained a Catholic priest, he was secretly a Lutheran ; when consecrated Archbishop, he freely swore fidelity to the Holy See, but at the same time privately assured witnesses that he would not keep the oath any longer than it suited him. In the reigns of Henry and Edward, he was by turns a Catholic and a Protestant, and by turns took part in sending Catholics and

Protestants to be burned and beheaded ; in Mary's reign he again declared himself a Protestant, but was imprisoned for sharing in Northumberland's treason, and condemned to death. Hoping to save his life, he openly abjured Protestantism and recanted his errors in *seven* different documents ; but, finding at the last moment that he could not escape the penalty of his crimes, he once more declared himself a Protestant, and soon perished at the stake. Among the other prominent persons who suffered similarly about this time was **Hugh Latimer**, the "reformed" Bishop of Worcester, who thus met the same fate he assisted in dealing to Friar Forrest in Henry's reign.

Blessed Thomas More, born 1480, died 1535 ; a great orator, writer, and statesman. He became Lord Chancellor at the fall of Wolsey, but, disgusted with Henry's enormities, he soon resigned. He lost the king's friendship by being unfavorable to the divorce, and, because he refused to acknowledge Henry head of the Church, he was condemned and beheaded. Sir Thomas More was renowned throughout Europe for his wit, learning, and piety, and was acknowledged a perfect model of the Christian gentleman and philosopher. He wrote "Utopia," a description of an ideal republic where everybody is happy. He was beatified in 1886, by Pope Leo XIII.

Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, born 1516, beheaded 1547. He was famous as a soldier, scholar, and poet ; he was the first writer of English blank verse, and among his works is a translation of Virgil. Henry unjustly charged him with treason, and had him beheaded ; he was the tyrant's last victim.

The **Countess of Salisbury** (known as "the Maid of the Golden Tresses"), born 1472, executed 1541. She was the last of the Plantagenets, and a near relative of Henry VIII. She may be regarded as a martyr to the Faith, although she was nominally executed for high treason.

Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, born 1542, beheaded 1587 ;

daughter of James V. of Scotland, and the most beautiful and accomplished princess of her time. She was first married to Francis II. of France, but was left a widow at eighteen ; she then returned to Scotland, where her undaunted profession of Catholicity drew on her the fierce enmity of the "Reformers" (at whose head was the notorious John Knox, an apostate priest), who repeatedly conspired against her. Her second husband, Lord Darnley, was murdered (it is said) by the Earl of Bothwell, who then seized Queen Mary and forcibly made her his wife. Her rebellious subjects soon after imprisoned her, but she escaped, fled to England and sought refuge of her cousin Elizabeth. Her religious belief and her superior accomplishments had already excited the anger and jealousy of the English queen, who cast her into prison, where she languished for eighteen years. At the instigation of Elizabeth, documents were forged by Cecil and Walsingham to defame Mary in the eyes of Europe, and by similar forgeries she was accused of conspiracy against Elizabeth's government, and was unjustly condemned and cruelly beheaded. She met her fate piously, serenely, and with royal dignity.

William Shakespere, born 1564, died 1616 ; the greatest English dramatic writer. He wrote thirty-seven plays, divided into tragedies, comedies, and histories, which display wonderful poetic genius.

Edmund Spenser, born 1553, died 1599 ; a celebrated English poet. His best work was the "Faerie Queen," an allegorical poem.

Sir Walter Raleigh, born 1552, died 1618 ; navigator, author, and scholar. He made several voyages to America, and twice unsuccessfully attempted to found colonies in Virginia. It was he that first introduced tobacco and potatoes into England. Convicted of conspiracy against James I., he was imprisoned for thirteen years, and at last executed. He wrote a history of the world, while in prison.

Sir Philip Sydney, 1554 to 1586 ; soldier, author, and statesman. His greatest work was the "Arcadia," a romantic fiction. He was killed at the battle of Zutphen, in Holland, while fighting against the Spaniards.

Sir Francis Bacon, 1561 to 1626 ; distinguished philosopher and statesman. He wrote several essays and works on science, the greatest of which was "Novum Organum." He was made Lord Chancellor under James I., but was degraded and fined for bribery and corruption.

Various Celebrities: Erasmus and Colet, scholars, in the reign of Henry VIII. ; the two Cabots (John and Sebastian), Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins, Sir Martin Frobisher, and Lord Howard, navigators and naval commanders ; Sir Robert Devereux (Earl of Essex), and Sir Robert Dudley (Earl of Leicester), both intimate favorites of Elizabeth, though she signed the death warrant of the former, Sir William Cecil (Lord Burleigh), and Sir Francis Walsingham, Elizabeth's able but unprincipled ministers ; Sir Thomas Gresham, a wealthy merchant and founder of the Royal Exchange ; Hans Holbein, a celebrated painter ; Edward Campion and Robert Southwell, both Jesuits—the former a famous scholar, and the latter a poet of fine talent—executed by Elizabeth on account of their faith.

CHIEF DATES OF THE TUDOR PERIOD.

Discovery of America	1492.
Passage of Poynings' Bill.....	1495.
Battle of Flodden Field.....	1513.
Act of Supremacy passed.....	1534.
Loss of Calais... ..	1557.
Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.....	1587.
Defeat of the Spanish Armada.....	1588.
East India Company formed.....	1600.
O'Neill surrenders at Mellifont.....	1603.

CHAPTER VII.

HOUSE OF STUART.

A. D. 1603 TO 1714.

LEADING FEATURES.—Struggles for Ascendancy between the Crown and the Parliament.—Great Civil War.—Decline and Fall of the "New Monarchy."—Establishment of Constitutional Freedom and Responsible Government.

James I., 1603 to 1625: previously James VI. of Scotland, only son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and descended from Henry VII., whose daughter Margaret had married James IV. of Scotland. James succeeds Elizabeth as her nearest heir, and marries the Princess Anne of Denmark. He enforces the penal laws against Catholics; discovers the Gunpowder Plot to blow up the Parliament House,* in 1605, and breaks up a conspiracy

* *The Gunpowder Plot.*—Early in the reign of James, one of the penal laws, inflicting a heavy fine on Catholics for not attending Protestant worship, was rigorously enforced, and more than 6,000 English gentlemen and ladies were reduced to a state of beggary. One of the heaviest sufferers was Robert Catesby, a gentleman of Northamptonshire, who, driven to desperation, formed the dreadful design of revenging his wrongs by blowing up the Parliament House with gunpowder. He secretly secured about a dozen accomplices, among whom was Guy Fawkes, who was entrusted with the execution of the plan. Fawkes, working by nights, conveyed thirty-two barrels of gunpowder into some unoccupied vaults beneath the Parliament House, and soon got everything in readiness. Tresham, one of the conspirators, wishing to save a friend, Lord Monteagle, a member

to place Arabella Stuart, his cousin, on the throne. For sharing in this conspiracy, Sir Walter Raleigh is imprisoned and, after thirteen years, beheaded, 1618. Sir Francis Bacon is degraded for receiving bribes, 1621. Henry, eldest son of the king, dies at nineteen, and Elizabeth, his daughter, marries Frederick, elector palatine of Bavaria, from which marriage the present royal family traces its descent. The Protestant version of the Bible in use until recently was translated in 1611. James was learned and eloquent, but vacillating, superstitious, pedantic, and arbitrary. He claimed the divine right of kings, and made the Crown independent of the Parliament, thus originating a course of events that finally led to the overthrow of the Stuart family. Persecuted by the Established Church, many Puritans, subsequently called the "Pilgrim Fathers," began to emigrate and form colonies in what is now known as the New England States, 1620.

Charles I., 1625 to 1649 (second son of James I.): virtuous and accomplished, but very arbitrary; marries Henrietta Maria, daughter of the French king. War with France in support of rebellious French

of the Peers, sent him a letter advising him to be absent from the House on a certain day. Monteagle showed the letter to Secretary Cecil, who at once suspected danger. The cellars were searched, and Fawkes, with his destructive materials was discovered, Nov. 5, 1605. The conspirators became known, and were all either killed or captured and executed. This atrocious plot was the deed of a few desperate men only. The Catholics as a body publicly disavowed it; still it was made the pretence for enacting fresh penal laws against them.

Protestants: the English are driven back, and their leader, the Duke of Buckingham, is soon after assassinated. Struggles for ascendancy between Charles and his Parliament now begin, and continue throughout his reign, bringing on the great Civil War, which results in the overthrow of the royal power by the parliamentary troops, chiefly led by Oliver Cromwell, together with the seizure and execution of the king, 1649. (See p. 76.) Meantime the Scotch Presbyterians form a league and covenant against the Church of England in 1638. Archbishop Laud and Lord Strafford are executed for high treason. (See pp. 82, 83.) The Irish, under the celebrated Owen O'Neill, make a gallant stand for civil and religious liberty (1641), and are not overcome until the next reign, 1650.

The Commonwealth, 1649 to 1660: Parliament, consisting of the House of Commons only, abolish royalty, including the authority of the House of Lords, and establish a so-called republic. Episcopacy is set aside, Presbyterianism becomes the established religion, and Catholics are severely persecuted. Ireland and Scotland remain loyal and refuse to acknowledge the republic. Thereupon Oliver Cromwell, invested by Parliament with the title of Lord Deputy, crosses into Ireland with his victorious army, and by the aid of treachery crushes all opposition with a merciless hand, principally at Drogheda and Wexford, where thousands of defenceless persons are murdered,

1650. Returning the same year, he completely routs the Scots at Dunbar, and the year following destroys the last hope of the royalists by defeating Prince Charles at Worcester. The prince, after many hair-breadth escapes, reaches France in safety. Cromwell next forcibly dissolves the Long Parliament, 1653, also two others not sufficiently pliant to his wishes, and is declared Lord Protector, with the power and all but the title of king. Wars with the Dutch and Spaniards; the English under Admiral Blake are successful in both. Cromwell rules tyrannically but with great ability, and makes England feared and respected among foreign nations. He dies in 1658, and is succeeded by his son Richard, who resigns within three months. A period of anarchy succeeds, until the influence of the army under General Monk and the force of public opinion cause the restoration of the monarchy in the person of Charles, eldest son of the late king, 1660.

Charles II., 1660 to 1685; talented, but indolent and profligate; marries Catharine of Portugal; makes Clarendon Lord Chancellor; causes several regicides to be executed; and restores the Church of England worship. The Act of Uniformity, requiring all subjects to conform to the tenets of the English Church, and the Corporation Act, obliging all borough and town officials to be practical members of the same Church, are passed in 1662. A great plague carries off 100,000 persons in 1665, and the next year a great

fire burns down 13,000 houses in London. War with the Dutch, 1665 to 1667, which, although New Amsterdam, now New York, is taken, and the Duke of York as admiral, greatly distinguishes himself, results rather discredibly to England—the Dutch admiral, De Ruyter, having sailed triumphantly up the Thames almost to London, just before the signing of the Treaty (Breda). Charles forms a secret treaty with the French king, sells him Dunkirk, and agrees for a large bribe to treacherously attack the Dutch, 1670. The Test Act, excluding Catholics from all offices, military and civil, is passed in 1673. Clarendon having been banished on a charge of treason, his place is supplied by the celebrated Cabal ministry. (See p. 86.) The “Popish Plot” is invented by Titus Oates (a Church of England cleric of infamous reputation), and supported by the Earl of Shaftesbury, 1680; Oates falsely swears away the lives of many distinguished Catholics, including Oliver Plunket, Archbishop of Armagh. About the same time the Covenanters in Scotland are severely persecuted for refusing to accept the tenets of the English Church. The Habeas Corpus Act, preventing persons from being kept in prison without a trial, is passed, 1679. The Rye House Plot to secure the Crown to the Duke of Monmouth (the king’s illegitimate son), to the exclusion of the king’s brother James, Duke of York, the legal heir, is discovered, and Lords Russell and Sydney, leaders of this conspiracy, are executed,

1682. The terms Whig and Tory are first used in this reign.* Charles becomes a Catholic on his death-bed.

James II., 1685 to 1688, last Catholic monarch of England; generous and well-meaning, but rash and impolitic. Monmouth raises a rebellion and proclaims himself king, but is defeated and taken at Sedgemoor; tried, condemned, and executed. 1685; Judge Jeffreys, appointed to try the rebels, exercises undue severity. James openly professes Catholicity, and issues a Declaration of Indulgence which gives liberty of conscience to all classes of his subjects, and suspends the penal laws; causes seven bishops of the Church of England to be arrested for refusing to read the proclamation of liberty of conscience in their churches; the bishops are tried and acquitted. All these acts being performed solely by his own authority, the king is accused of violating the constitution. Protestant zeal is aroused by the toleration given to Catholics, and Dr. Gilbert Burnet, an unprincipled English Church divine, published a forged memorial in the name of the Protestants of England, inviting William, Prince of Orange (husband of King James' eldest daughter, Mary), to assume the government. William, while professing friendship for his father-in-law, decides to accept the invitation. He lands in England; James, deserted by all, even by his own daughters, is forced to fly to France; William enters London and assumes

* The Whigs were the opponents and the Tories the friends of James.

the reins of government. James was twice married; his first wife, Lady Anne Hyde, was the mother of Mary and Anne, and his second, Mary Beatrice, was the mother of James, afterwards called the Pretender.

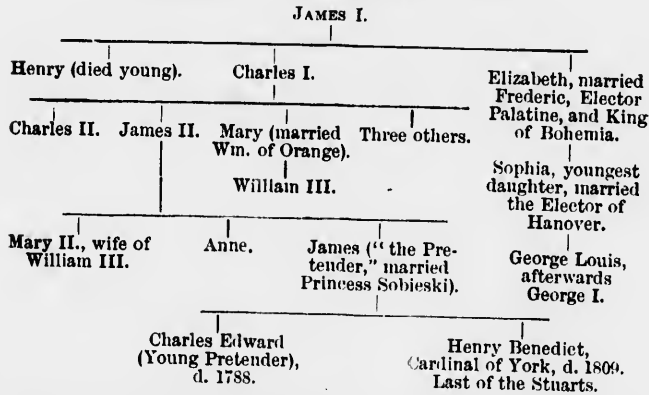
William III. and Mary II., 1688 to 1702. After the flight of James, a packed assembly called the Convention Parliament, declares the throne vacant, proclaims William and his wife Mary jointly King and Queen of England, and decrees that henceforth the sovereign of England must be a Protestant. It draws up the "Declaration of Rights," afterwards called the "Bill of Rights," stating the extent of the king's power and the liberties of the people.* This completes the English Revolution by which the system of royal government is changed and constitutional freedom finally established. Meanwhile the Irish and the Highlanders (Scotch) remain loyal to James, who lands in Ireland, 1689. He wastes time in besieging Derry, thereby allowing his enemies to gather strength. His army is defeated by William's at the battles of the

* *Declaration (Bill) of Rights*—a few of its most important provisions: Catholics were declared incapable of wearing the Crown of England; at the coronation, the sovereign should abjure Catholicity, and, instead of swearing to maintain the Church, as in the time of Edward the Confessor, should swear to maintain the Protestant religion; levying of money by the Crown without grant of Parliament was declared illegal; the Crown was declared to have no power of suspending or dispensing laws; standing armies forbidden without the consent of Parliament; freedom of elections and freedom of debate in Parliament declared to be national rights; freedom of juries secured; excessive fines, imprisonments, and cruel punishments declared illegal; accused persons could not be punished until tried and convicted. With the passing of this statute the "New Monarchy" ended.

Boyne and Aughrim, and Limerick, his last stronghold, surrenders after a gallant defence by the Irish under General Sarsfield, but on its own terms, 1691. By the Treaty of Limerick, William guarantees the Catholics civil and religious liberty, but before a year goes by he allows the treaty to be shamefully broken by his government. The Highlanders, under Lord Graham, of Dundee, defeat William's troops at Killiecrankie, in 1689, but Dundee having fallen in the battle, his followers soon disperse. William again makes himself infamous by authorizing the treacherous and barbarous massacre of the Clan Macdonald—all Catholics—at Glencoe, 1692. In 1694 Queen Mary dies—an unnatural daughter, little respected. In the same year is passed the Triennial Bill, requiring Parliament to sit no longer than three years. The Act of Settlement is passed in 1701, declaring that all future monarchs must be Protestants, and that if William, Mary, and Anne die without heirs, the Crown goes to the Protestant descendants of the Princess Sophia of Hanover, granddaughter of James I. A war with France, in which England wins the naval battle of Cape La Hogue, but is generally unsuccessful on land, closes with the Treaty of Ryswick, 1697, France acknowledging William King of England. William dies in 1702. He was an able general, but treacherous and ambitious. His chief desire through life was to humble the power of Louis XIV., of France.

Anne, 1702 to 1714 ; second daughter of James II. ; solicitous for the good of her subjects, but vacillating and ruled by favorites. The Union of the Scottish and the English Parliaments takes place in 1707.* The War of the Spanish Succession—a glorious career of victory for the English under the Duke of Marlborough—closes with the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. (See p. 79.) The Penal laws against Catholics are bitterly enforced. Many great men flourish in this reign (see p. 85), but the masses of the people are very ignorant, while vicious and infidel practices prevail in high life. Anne was married to Prince George of Denmark ; but she died without surviving issue. Her death was embittered by thoughts of her unfilial conduct.

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF STUART.



* Scotland retained freedom of trade and its own (Presbyterian) Church.

England in the Seventeenth Century. (The Stuart Period.)—The rejection of the Ancient Faith, in the Tudor period, was followed by a state of religious strife and confusion that continued almost without ceasing throughout the whole of this century. Sect after sect broke off from Henry's state-made English Church; and, while the proscribed Roman Catholics, threatened with fines, exile, torture, imprisonment, or death, were thankful to be left unnoticed, the Episcopalians, Puritans, Presbyterians, and Independents fiercely and bitterly wrangled among themselves for the mastery. In the reigns of the first two Stuarts, the Episcopalians were supreme, and a large body of disgusted Puritans emigrated to America. In the early years of the Commonwealth, the Presbyterians were in the ascendancy, and made the Episcopalians, in their turn, feel the bitterness of persecution. Next came the rule of the Puritans and Independents, during Cromwell's time, followed, in Charles II.'s reign, by the return to power of the Episcopalians, who then amply revenged themselves on everybody. For a year or two, under James II., there was comparative peace—this Catholic king having declared that all denominations of his subjects might worship God as they saw fit; but the accession of William and Mary brought the Church of England once more to the front, and the reign of Queen Anne saw it in the enjoyment of its palmiest days in England, while about the same time Presbyterianism be-

came firmly established in Scotland. Amid all their contentions the Protestant sects had one bond of union—hatred of Catholicity. The least sign of activity, on the part of the old belief, produced a united action among the brawling sectarians to crush it; and no matter which sect ruled, the Catholics always suffered.

The Civil War wasted the fairest portions of England, caused the loss of thousands of useful lives, demoralized English manners, and for a time retarded learning and all manner of progress. But as the period advanced, literature and science made considerable advancement, until in the reign of Queen Anne we find what has been called the Augustan era of English literature. The state of morality, owing to the evil influence of the civil war, the profligate court of Charles II., and the free-thinking spirit of Anne's period, still continued low.

Colonization followed close in the wake of discovery. Most of the first settlements in America and elsewhere were made during this period. Commerce was more than doubled in extent, and branches of manufacture sprang up, such as silk-weaving, hat-making, glass-blowing, and improvements in cutlery and hardware. On the other hand, agriculture made little progress. Coffee and sugar began to be imported, chiefly from the West Indies.

The General Post-office was established by Crom-

well, and the Penny-post by William and Mary. In the reign of the latter, the National Debt was commenced, owing to the heavy military expenditure, and the Bank of England and Greenwich Hospital were founded. The Royal Society for the promotion of science was formed, and Chelsea Hospital founded, in the reign of Charles II. St. Paul's Cathedral was begun in 1697, and finished in 1710. Stage-coaches began to run in the reign of James II. A standing army took its origin under the Stuarts. During this period the classical style of architecture was revived.

The Great Rebellion, 1642 to 1649. (The Civil War between Charles I. and his Parliament.)—Charles I., like his father, wanted either to have a Parliament subservient to his wishes or to rule without one. But the Parliament would not agree to this. In 1628, it forced him to reluctantly sign the Petition of Right, requiring that no tax be imposed except by Parliament, that no man be imprisoned without trial, that no man be tried by martial law in times of peace, and that no soldier or sailor be billeted on private persons against their will. Charles soon after dissolved the Parliament, and for eleven years ruled without one. He enforced taxation by means of a tribunal called the Star Chamber;* one of the most notorious of these levies was that of ship-money, which was resisted by John Hampden, but the courts decided against him. Want of money obliged Charles, in 1640, to summon what

* Established by Henry VII. for the trial of offences against the State.

was known afterwards as the *Long* Parliament, as it sat for thirteen years. This Parliament abolished ship-money, passed a Triennial Bill, declared that Parliament could be dissolved by itself only, and took away the power of the Star Chamber. These proceedings angered Charles, who, hoping to coerce the Parliament, ordered the arrest of five of its most daring members. The citizens of London at once took up arms ; Charles retired to York, and the civil war began. The followers of the king were called Cavaliers, most of them being mounted gentlemen ; the supporters of the Parliament were called Roundheads, from their close-shaven heads. The Catholics had suffered severely from both parties, but with their Catholic instinct of allegiance they took the part of the king.

The parliamentary army was at first commanded by the Earl of Essex ; but, as the war went on, such men as Cromwell, Fairfax, Ireton, and Monk came to the front, with Cromwell ultimately taking the most important position. The royal troops were commanded by King Charles and his nephew, Prince Rupert. The first battle was fought at Edge Hill, in Warwickshire, and was indecisive. Soon after this event, the Scottish Parliament joined that of England and sent an army across the border ; their united forces, commanded by Cromwell, totally defeated the king's troops at Marston Moor, 1644. In the south the king was more successful, and in Scotland his cause was supported by the

Duke of Montrose, who gained several victories. The great battle of Naseby, 1645, in which the royal army was completely routed by Cromwell and Fairfax, destroyed the hopes of the king. Charles fled first to Oxford, and then to the Scottish army; but as he refused to yield to the demands of the Presbyterians, the Scots delivered him to the English Parliament for the sum of £400,000.

Meantime, Cromwell had been appointed lieutenant-general by the Parliament, and his power and influence had become overwhelming, especially with the army. He intimidated the Scots by marching his army as far as Edinburgh. On his return to London, 1648, he prevented the Presbyterian members from entering the Parliament, and had it packed with Independents, who formed what is known as the Rump Parliament. Acting agreeably to Cromwell's ambitious schemes, this Parliament passed an ordinance for the trial of the king. Charles was accordingly arraigned before a court composed largely of army officers, tried, and condemned as a traitor, notwithstanding that the king denied the jurisdiction of the court, and that the House of Lords refused to take part in the proceedings. Charles was beheaded at Whitehall Palace, January 30, 1649, meeting his fate with firmness and dignity. It is noteworthy, that this tragic end of the monarch was not the wish of the people, but the deed of a small faction of bold, ambitious men, who throughout the proceed-

ings had the address to deceive the nation as to their real sentiments. It is true, that his death was a warning against arbitrary government, but it has been generally conceded that his punishment exceeded his offence.

War of the Spanish Succession.—In the year 1700, Charles II. of Spain died without issue, but in his will Philip, grandson of Louis XIV. of France, was appointed heir to his throne. England, Germany, and Holland, dreading the vast increase of power that the accession of Philip would give to France, disputed the validity of the will, and formed a "grand alliance" against Louis XIV., who supported Philip's claims. In the war that followed (1700 to 1713), the allied armies, led by the famous English general, the Duke of Marlborough, were almost everywhere victorious. The French were defeated at Blenheim, in 1704; at Ramillies, in 1706; at Oudenarde, in 1708; and at Malplaquet, in 1709. The fortress of Gibraltar, in Spain, was captured by Sir George Rooke, in 1704, and has ever since remained in the hands of the English. The war closed, in 1713, with the treaty of Utrecht, by which the grandson of Louis XIV. was acknowledged King of Spain, with the title of Philip V. The Netherlands, Naples, Milan, and the island of Sardinia were left in possession of the German Emperor Charles VI., and England obtained Gibraltar, the Hudson Bay Territory, Newfoundland, and Acadia, besides the recognition of the Protestant Succession.

Brief History of the British Parliament.—The principles of the British Constitution, as they are at present, having been finally established towards the close of the Stuart period, it may be useful to give here a brief sketch of the origin and progress of the English legislature.

The Saxon kings had their Witenagemot (Assembly of the Wise), and the Norman rulers their *Curia Regis* (Court of the King), to assist them in governing the nation; and although these were composed of the nobility alone, yet they contained the germ of the future popular assembly.

Towards the end of John's reign, the *Magna Charta* provided for a wider representation than that contained in the *Curia Regis*, but the lower classes were still excluded. In the reign of Henry III., Simon Montfort having overthrown the king's troops, summoned a Parliament, composed not only of barons and prelates, but also two knights for each shire (county) and *two citizens or burgesses for each city and borough*—the first representatives of the people. This event occurred in 1265, and may be considered the origin of the English House of Commons. The representatives of the cities and boroughs sat and voted with the shire members, and separately from the barons, the latter forming what has since been called the House of Lords.

In the reigns of the other Plantagenet kings, the Commons made great progress—the House taking ad-

vantage of the king's necessities to accompany each money grant with a petition for redress of grievances—generally successful. Edward I. agreed that no tax be levied without the consent of Parliament. In the reign of Edward III. it was established that the concurrence of both Houses (Lords and Commons) was necessary to make legislation lawful, and that the Commons should have the right to inquire into public abuses and to impeach public servants. In the reign of Richard II. the Parliament obtained the right of regulating the expenditure of all moneys granted.

Henry IV., on account of his defective title, found it politic to conciliate his Parliament, and gave the Commons the exclusive right of passing money-bills, without the Lords participating. The power of *originating* bills resided in the Commons from the earliest days. In the reign of Henry VI., complete statutes under the name of Bills took the place of the old petitions, and to these the king was obliged to give his consent without alteration. Edward IV. confirmed the ancient privilege of the Commons which secured its members and servants from arrest or imprisonment.

The Stuart monarchs aimed at absolute authority; but, as we have seen, after a great struggle the parliament became the chief power in the state, and the government of England settled into a limited monarchy. In the reign of William III., the Whigs, advocates of popular rights, and the Tories,

the aristocratic party, agreed that the party which had the majority in the House of Commons might administer the different branches of public affairs, through a body entitled the Ministry, or Cabinet, whose leader was called the Prime Minister. The ministers being principally members of the House of Commons, and, therefore, elected by the popular vote, were accountable to the people for their official conduct. Thus was established what is called Responsible Government.

From the foregoing it will be seen that, before the fifteenth century came to a close, the authority of the House of Commons and all its fundamental rights, as now possessed, were fully established. The despotism of the Tudors and the Stuart doctrine of the divine right of kings, all but enslaved the Parliament for nearly a century and a half; but, as we have seen, a reaction took place in the middle of the seventeenth century, and the ancient privileges of the Commons were once more fixed on a firm basis before the close of the Stuart period.

EMINENT PERSONS OF THE STUART PERIOD.

William Land, Archbishop of Canterbury, born 1573, died 1645. He was the son of a wealthy clothier; received clerical orders in 1611, and rose rapidly into prominence under the patronage of the Duke of Buckingham. In 1628, he became Bishop of London and the confidential adviser of Charles I. in ecclesiastical affairs. In this capacity, his rigorous and over-

bearing conduct towards all who differed from the Church of England earned for him the intense odium of the public. In 1633, he was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and subsequently received many other offices under the crown. In 1640, the Long Parliament impeached him for high-treason, and after three years' imprisonment had him condemned and executed.

Sir Thomas Wentworth (Lord Strafford), born 1593, died 1641; a famous statesman, the friend and fellow-laborer of Laud. Soon after his appearance in public life, as a member of Parliament, he joined the court party, and in a short time became King Charles' most trusted counsellor. He was appointed Lord President of the Council of the North (of England) and Governor of Ireland, in 1632. In the latter country, his administration was most severe and unjust. He provoked the enmity of the people in all parts of the kingdom by his efforts to make the king an absolute monarch. The Long Parliament condemned him on a charge of attempting to subvert the liberties of the people, and he was beheaded in 1641. Though treacherous and generally unprincipled, he was a man of great ability and undaunted courage.

Oliver Cromwell, born 1599, died 1658; son of an English gentleman of respectable descent. His first appearance in public life was as member of the Parliament of 1628. He was elected to the Long Parliament in 1640, and distinguished himself by a zealous and able discharge of his duties. After the battle of Edge Hill, where he showed unusual bravery as a minor officer, he made a specialty of drilling a particular body of soldiers, afterwards called his "Ironsides," whose skill and discipline eventually brought ruin to the royal cause, and in the end overthrew the Parliament itself. His rapid rise through a career of victory to the leading position in the parliamentary army, his criminal instigation of the king's death, his horrifying successes over the Irish, his victories over the Scots and

Prince Charles, his expulsion of the Long Parliament, and his iron rule as Lord Protector, have already been noticed. He was undoubtedly a man of extraordinary genius as a warrior and a statesman, and he made England respected and famous throughout the world. But he was a tyrant greater than any Stuart had ever dared to be—remorselessly trampling on those very principles for which he had pretended to fight—and his great qualities were sullied by hypocrisy, cruelty and selfish ambition.

Among the other prominent parliamentarians were the brave and patriotic John Hampden, killed in the early part of the Civil War; Sir Thomas Fairfax, for a time commander-in-chief; Henry Ireton, son-in-law of Cromwell; John Pym, one of the most active members of the Long Parliament; the Earl of Essex, General Monk, and Admiral Blake. One of the most distinguished royalist leaders was the king's nephew, the gallant, but rash, Prince Rupert. John Bradshawe was president of the court that tried and condemned King Charles.

Sir Edward Coke, attorney-general to James I.; a great jurist, but without any good moral principles; died 1633.

Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, born 1650, died 1722, a celebrated general, under whom Great Britain, in the reign of Queen Anne, reached the summit of its military glory.

John Milton, born 1608, died 1674; a poet of extraordinary genius. He was a republican in politics, and held the post of Latin secretary to Cromwell. His most famous work is "Paradise Lost," one of the best epic poems ever produced.

John Dryden, born 1631, died 1700; one of the greatest of English poets. His varied writings—satirical, lyrical, and dramatical—were at first defaced by the grossness of the age; but after his conversion to Catholicity, his works, already brilliant and powerful, became also morally chaste. Among his best works are "Absalom and Achitophel" (a satire) and "Ode to St. Cecilia" (a lyric).

Alexander Pope, born 1688, died 1744, was the chief literary light of the reign of Queen Anne. Among his most important works are the "Essay on Criticism," the "Essay on Man," his translation of "Homer's Iliad," and a satirical work called the "Dunciad." He was a Catholic.

Joseph Addison, born 1672, died 1719, has been called the greatest of English essayists, and is remarkable for the elegance of his prose writing. With his friend, Sir Richard Steele, he published the "Tatler," which was succeeded by the "Spectator" and the "Guardian," in which publications his principal essays appeared.

Sir Kenelm Digby, born 1603, died 1665, "the type of a true Christian Knight," has been also called from his varied attainments "the magazine of all the arts." He became a convert to the Catholic faith under Charles II., and on that account suffered loss and exile. He wrote many works on natural philosophy, and others of a religious or polemical character.

Other Authors: *Celebrated Poets*—Abraham Cowley, died 1667; Michael Drayton, died 1631; Samuel Butler, born 1614, died 1680; Sir John Suckling, died 1642; Richard Lovelace, died 1658; and Thomas Otway, died 1685. *Dramatists*—Benjamin Jonson, died 1637; Philip Massinger, died 1640; James Shirley, died 1666; Francis Beaumont, died 1615; and John Fletcher, died 1625. *Prose-writers*—Jeremy Taylor, author of "Holy Living and Holy Dying," died 1667; John Locke, mental philosopher, author of "Essay on the Human Understanding," died 1704; Isaac Newton, philosopher, died 1727; John Bunyan, wrote "Pilgrim's Progress," died 1688; Lord Clarendon (the Chancellor), author of "History of the Rebellion," died 1674. Johnathan Swift, satirist, died 1745; King Charles II. was a writer of some ability and a great patron of the fine arts.

Miscellaneous: Inigo Jones, died 1652, and Sir Christopher Wren, died 1723, architects; Sir Peter Lily, a great painter,

died 1680 ; William Penn, leader of the Quakers (a sect formed about the time of Charles I.), died 1718 ; Lord Peterborough, a renowned general, died 1735 ; James Graham, Marquis of Montrose, beheaded by the Covenanters, 1650 ; Dr. Sacheverell, who made himself popular in Anne's reign, by abusing the Whig Ministry.

The "Cabal," the infamous Ministry of Charles II., composed of five men notorious for their intrigues—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale. They virtually ruled England for seven years, and with a harsh, cruel, overbearing sway. Though talented, they were unprincipled, and are said to have accepted bribes from Louis XIV. to serve his interests at the English court. Their own vices and excesses at last wrought their ruin, and the Cabal broke up, 1674.

PETER THE GREAT of Russia visited England, in the reign of William III., to learn ship-building, that he might build a fleet for his empire. Henrietta Maria, Queen of Charles I., died 1669 ; James II. died in 1701, and Queen Mary Beatrice, his second wife, died in 1718. Their principal place of refuge was France, where they all died.

CHIEF DATES OF THE STUART PERIOD.

Gunpowder Plot.....	1605.
Petition of Right.....	1628.
Civil War begins.....	1642.
Battle of Naseby	1645.
Charles beheaded.....	1649.
The Restoration.....	1660.
The Revolution.....	1688.
Bill of Rights.....	1689.
Act of Settlement.....	1701.
Union of English and Scottish Parliaments....	1707.
Treaty of Utrecht.....	1713.

CHAPTER VIII.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

A. D. 1714 TO PRESENT TIME.

LEADING FEATURES.—Rapid Progress of Industrial, Commercial, and Scientific Interests.—Growth of Colonial Power.—Extension of Popular Liberty.—Predominant Power of the Commons.—Foreign Wars and Revolutions.

Chief Events.—**George I.**, 1714 to 1727 : Elector of Hanover, and son of the Princess Sophia, granddaughter of James I, unites the crowns of England and Hanover. Is an ignorant, incapable, and heartless king. A rebellion in Scotland, headed by the Earl of Mar, in support of the claims of the Pretender, son of James II., is speedily suppressed, 1715. The Septennial Bill, by which Parliament gives itself the power of sitting seven years instead of three, is passed in 1715. War of the Quadruple Alliance—England, France, Holland, and Germany—against Spain, in which the English Admiral Byng wins several battles over the Spaniards, begins 1719. The South Sea Company undertakes to pay off the National Debt, on being granted a monopoly of trade with the islands of the Pacific ; but the speculation fails, increasing the Debt,

and ruining thousands who invested their money in it, 1720. George dies, while travelling in Hanover.

George II., 1727 to 1760 (son of the late king): a brave soldier, but otherwise little to be admired. The early part of his reign is peaceful. The death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, occurs 1737. War with Spain, 1739; only partially successful. War of the Austrian Succession begins 1740, chiefly against France; closes with the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748 (see p. 96). Charles Edward, son of the Pretender, renews the Stuart claim to the Crown, 1745; raises a rebellion in Scotland; is at first successful over the king's troops, but is finally defeated, at Culloden, by the Duke of Cumberland, son of George II., and escapes to France, 1746. The new style of reckoning time (originated by Pope Gregory, in 1582) is introduced into England, 1752. Sir Robert Walpole, is prime minister for fifteen years. Rise of William Pitt, the "Great Commoner," afterwards Earl of Chatham (see p. 111). The Seven Years' War with France begins, 1756 (see p. 97): Conquest of Canada and India.

George III., 1760 to 1820: son of Frederick, and grandson of George II.; patriotic and virtuous, but very intolerant. William Pitt, prime minister since 1758, retires with the title of Earl of Chatham, 1761. The Seven Years' War closes with the treaty of Paris, 1763. The British government forcibly attempts to levy taxes on the American colonies, in 1765; the

colonies rebel, in 1775, and after a desperate struggle are declared independent, in 1783 (see p. 98). Riots occur in 1780, instigated by Lord George Gordon, because the government proposes to grant some privileges to Catholics. Wars with France, growing out of the great French Revolution of 1789, last from 1792 to 1815. This period brings to the front Napoleon Bonaparte, French general and Emperor, the greatest military genius of modern times, who, after a dazzling career of victory, is completely overthrown at Waterloo, in 1815, by the English and Prussians, commanded respectively by Wellington and Blucher (see p. 100). Besides Wellington, the other great English commander is Admiral Nelson, killed at Trafalgar, 1805. War with the United States, 1812-'15 (see p. 104). William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, is prime minister, 1783 to 1801. Irish Affairs: Independence of the Irish Parliament acknowledged, in 1782; unsuccessful rebellion in Ireland, 1798; Union of the Irish Parliament with that of England, 1801 (see p. 103). In 1810, the king becomes insane, and his son, afterwards George IV., is declared Regent. George III. dies, at the age of eighty-two. His reign, the longest in English history, is remarkable for its numerous important events and for the many eminent men it produced (see p. 111).

George IV., 1820 to 1830: literary, but profligate. A plot, called the Cato Street Conspiracy, to murder



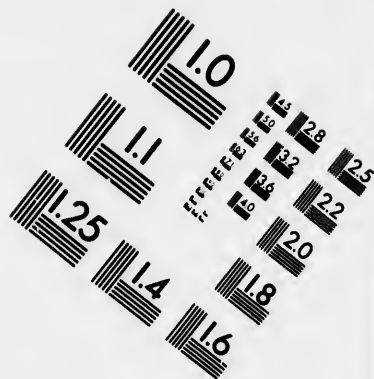
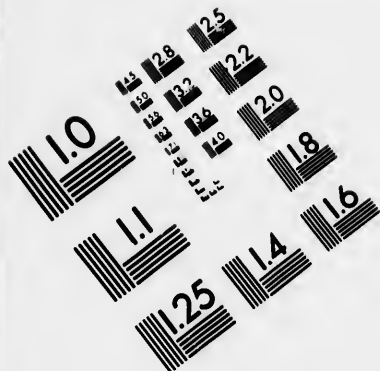
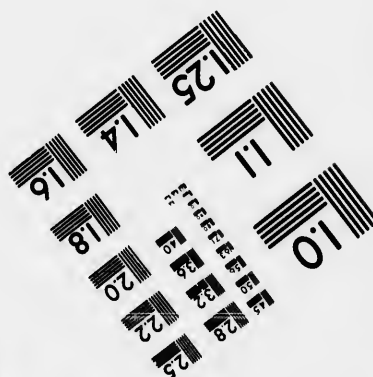
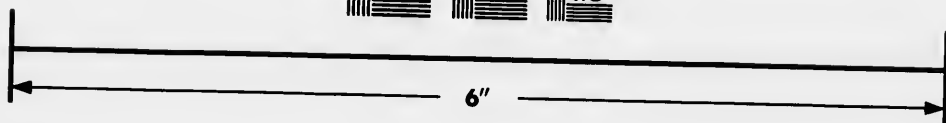
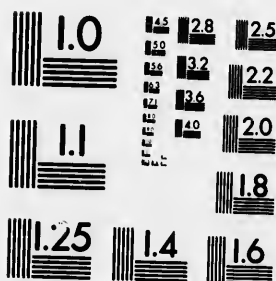


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the Ministers and destroy London, is discovered, and several of the conspirators are executed, 1820. A successful war with Burmah, in Farther India, brings acquisition of territory, 1824. The English and French fleets defeat the Turks at the battle of Navarino and establish the independence of Greece, 1827. The Test and Corporation Acts are repealed in 1828. The Emancipation Bill, passed in 1829, chiefly by the efforts of Daniel O'Connell, relieves Roman Catholics of many of the restrictions placed on them by the penal laws. The king dies without surviving issue.

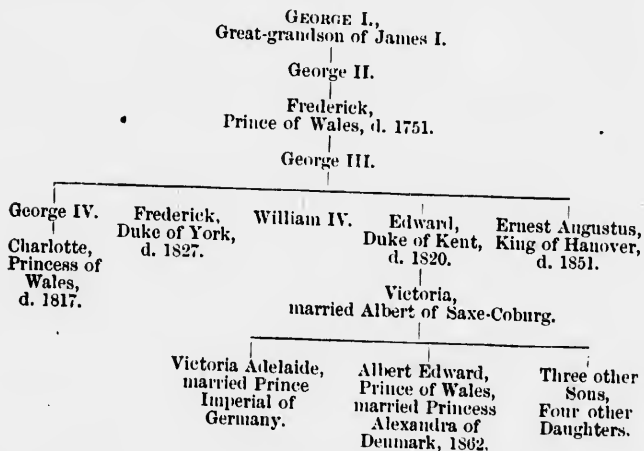
William IV., 1830 to 1837 (brother of George IV.): possessed of good personal qualities, but without much ability. A Reform Bill is passed, in 1832, increasing the number of voters at parliamentary elections, and regulating the representation, by allowing none to sit in parliament who did not represent the people, and by allowing towns and cities heretofore unrepresented to send members to parliament. Slavery is abolished throughout the British dominions, and £20,000,000 given as indemnity to the slave-owners, 1833. The king left no children.

Victoria, 1837: daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III. No woman being allowed to wear the crown of Hanover, this kingdom is separated from England, and falls to the Duke of Cumberland, George III.'s fifth son. Canadian rebellion, 1837-'38 (see p. 106). The queen is married to Albert

of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, in 1840. A war in Afghanistan (1839-'40), to settle rival claims to the throne of that country, ends disastrously to the English; but in the same period Punjaub and Scinde are added to British India. Three wars with China—1840, 1856, and 1860—force that country to open several ports to British trade, and surrender certain territory. Chartist riots, in connection with demands for radical parliamentary changes, occur at several times between 1838 and 1857. The Corn Laws are repealed, in 1846, thus removing high duties on imported breadstuffs. An unsuccessful rising occurs in Ireland, in 1848. The first Grand International Exhibition is held in London, 1851. Great Russian War, 1854-'56: England and France assist Turkey against Russia; closes with the Treaty of Paris, 1856 (see p. 105). Rebellion in India, called the Sepoy Mutiny, 1857: suppressed after much bloodshed (see p. 105). Jews are admitted to Parliament, for the first time, in the person of Baron Rothschild, 1858. Albert, the Prince Consort, dies in 1861. The Fenian Agitation for the liberation of Ireland continues from 1863 to 1868. A second Reform Bill, providing for the further extension of the Franchise and increase of representation, is passed, 1867. Dominion of Canada formed, the same year (see p. 106). A war with Abyssinia, because its king refuses to give up captured British subjects, ends successfully, 1868. The Irish Church Bill, disestablishing the English Church in

Ireland, is passed, 1869; and Land Bills, giving some privileges to Irish tenants, are passed, 1870 and 1884. An Act authorizing voting by ballot is passed, 1872. A war with Zulus of South Africa, for encroaching on British possessions, ends with the defeat and capture of their king, Cetewayo, in 1879. Another war with Afghanistan, in 1879, ends with the capture of Cabul and the dethronement of the Ameer. Egyptian affairs give the British government much trouble, between 1882 and 1885 (see p. 110). The Franchise Bill of 1884 greatly extended the right of voting among the laboring classes.

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER, OR BRUNSWICK.



England under the House of Hanover.---The first two members of the new royal family made themselves unpopular by their unconcealed dislike for everything English. Had the Stuart party (the Jacobites) been properly organized, or had the young Pretender Charles Edward acted with vigor and promptness, the House of Hanover might have had a brief career. But the genuine British feeling of the other members, first shown by George III., restored among the English people warm and lasting sentiments of loyalty. The establishment of Constitutional Freedom, referred to in the preceding chapter, was complete, and throughout the whole of the present period the Parliament has retained the ascendancy—the Crown making little effort to regain its ancient prerogatives. The people at large have obtained additional influence in public affairs by the extension of the franchise and the more even distribution of the privilege of sending members to Parliament, provided for by the Reform Bills of 1832 and 1867, and by more recent measures of Premier Gladstone. The character of the House of Lords has been greatly changed during the present century by the creation of several peers from the middle classes, a body hitherto without much representation in Parliament.

Generations of proscription made the Catholics of England an insignificant body. But if the beginning of this period witnessed their darkest days since perse-

cution began, the middle and latter parts have seen the dawn and progress of better times. Measures of relief were slow in coming: the second quarter of the nineteenth century had well commenced before prejudice was so far subdued that the most severe of the penal laws were repealed and Catholics admitted to almost full civil and religious liberty. The Catholic hierarchy was restored in England, 1850, and in Scotland, 1878. Ireland never lost her hierarchy. In the meantime, Protestant sects grew numerous. Year after year saw new bodies dissenting from the Established Church, and these dissenters again breaking up into new denominations, until to-day there are no fewer than 160 Protestant sects within the limits of the British kingdom alone. The most notable of the new sects is Methodism, founded about the end of the last century by John Wesley, a man who, while advocating freedom for his own followers, did his best to prevent toleration to Catholics.

During this period England has done much for education, but not as much as might be expected from a nation of such lofty pretensions. It is true that she always possessed two of the best universities in the world and many excellent colleges and schools, affording educational opportunities for the children of the upper and middle classes. But these schools were maintained by individuals or corporations: the government made no systematic provision for the education of the people in general. As a consequence, large

numbers of the lower orders remained ignorant. A recent return showed that one-fifth of the adult population of England could not write their names. In 1870 and 1872, Elementary Education Bills were passed for England and Scotland, largely increasing the means for popular education. This plan has been found to work successfully, and may lead to the establishment of a comprehensive system of national instruction, not yet enjoyed by England. It is worthy of note, that Ireland, in the matter of national schools, has had the start of England and Scotland by about a quarter of a century. Newspapers and books have multiplied enormously, during this period, and have done a great deal to spread information and promote intelligence among the masses. In 1771, reports of parliamentary proceedings began to appear in the newspapers.

It was during this period that Great Britain acquired most of her foreign possessions. By her own mismanagement she lost the best of her colonies—the United States; but, in the possession of India, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and many smaller places on every continent, she rules an empire, the most extensive if not the most powerful in the world. Agriculture, manufactures, commerce, mining, and other industries, assisted by the many wonderful inventions of the period, have made rapid progress, contributing to the greatness of the nation and the wealth and comfort of the people.

This is undoubtedly the age of scientific progress. Among its numerous inventions and discoveries may be mentioned: Vaccination discovered, 1798; gas, first used in 1802; the first steamboat was run on the Hudson from New York to Albany by Robert Fulton in 1807; the first railway (between Manchester and Liverpool), in 1830; the electric telegraph, first used in England in 1842; the Penny Post established, 1840; Lord Rosse's great telescope finished, 1843; the first World's Fair, in 1851; the sub-marine telegraph between Great Britain and America successfully laid, in 1866; the telephone first commonly used, in 1877. In the reign of George II., Lord Anson made a voyage around the world—Drake made a similar voyage in the reign of Elizabeth. The first voyage around the world was made by Magellan's crew, 1519–1522.

In the reigns of the first two Georges, there was a general laxity of morals; public men were notoriously corrupt, and it seemed to be the aim of the writers of the time, and especially of the novelists, to make vice fashionable. But in the reign of George III. a change for the better commenced. Under the influence of its many great events and of the high character of its statesmen and authors, the manners of all ranks were improved, public taste was reformed and literature purified.

War of the Austrian Succession.—Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, died in 1740, leaving his hered-

itary dominions, the Austrian provinces, to his daughter, Maria Teresa, Queen of Hungary. But Charles, Elector of Bavaria, set up an opposition claim, as being the next male heir, and a great war ensued. The Elector of Bavaria was supported by France and Prussia, and Maria Teresa by England. The two principal battles were fought at Dettingen and Fontenoy. At the battle of Dettingen, in 1743, George II. commanded in person, and the English were victorious over the French. It was the last time an English monarch was under fire. At the battle of Fontenoy, in 1745, the English under the Duke of Cumberland were defeated by the French under Marshal Saxe. It is said, that this great victory of the French was chiefly due to the resistless charge of their Irish brigade. The war closed, in 1748, with the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which Maria Teresa and her husband Francis, Duke of Lorraine, were left in possession of the Austrian dominions.

The Seven Years' War, 1756 to 1763.—In 1755, France and Austria made an alliance to crush Frederick the Great of Prussia. The Hanoverian States having been invaded by the allies, England joined Prussia. In 1757, the Duke of Cumberland was defeated by the French at Hastenbeck and forced to surrender a great part of his father's German territory. In 1759, the French were defeated at Minden by a combined army of English and Prussians. But, if the success of Eng-

land was doubtful in Europe, it was not so in other parts of the world. In Canada the hitherto invincible French Marshal Montcalm was defeated near Quebec, in 1759, by the English under General Wolfe, and Canada virtually conquered. In this battle the rival commanders were both killed. In India (Hindustan), where France had also attained great power, the English, led principally by Lord Clive, were everywhere victorious over the French. The battle of Plassey, where Clive defeated the great Indian Nabob Surajah Dowlah, established British supremacy in India, 1757. By the treaty of Fontainebleau (near Paris), in 1763, which closed the war, England obtained her Canadian and Indian possessions and became the most powerful nation in Europe.

The American Revolution.—During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, English settlements were formed along the eastern coast of America, and about the time of the Seven Years' War, thirteen colonial governments had been established. The most important of these were: Virginia and Massachusetts, the two oldest; New York, conquered from the Dutch; Pennsylvania, settled by the Quakers under Wm. Penn; and Maryland, first settled by Lord Baltimore, a Catholic nobleman.

The early history of these colonies is characterized by numerous conflicts with the native Indians and with the French colonists in Canada. Nevertheless,

the population increased, and business prospered to such an extent, that the British government, deeply in debt, on account of its numerous wars, saw fit, in 1765, to levy duties on certain goods entering the colonies. The latter stoutly objected to being taxed to support a government in which they had no representation, and to pay the expenses of wars which they had no share in creating. The British government persisted in its levies, and the colonists took up arms, in 1775; and at a congress held at Philadelphia, in 1776, declared themselves independent. This was followed by a war that lasted seven years, during which the Americans were assisted by the French. In the beginning, the British troops were successful, and the prospect for the Americans was gloomy. But the skill and patience of their general, George Washington, supported by the patriotism of the people, finally triumphed. The American general, Montgomery, invaded Canada, but was defeated and slain at Quebec, 1775. In 1777, the British general, Burgoyne, was forced to surrender his whole army to the Americans at Saratoga. After many changes of fortune, the decisive blow was at last struck at Yorktown, in Virginia, where the united French and American forces, commanded by General Washington, surrounded the British under Cornwallis, and compelled them to surrender. By the treaty of Versailles (near Paris), England acknowledged the independence of the colonies, now known as the United

States of America, 1783. The triumph of the Americans was hailed by the right-thinking men of all countries as a victory over unjust and tyrannical legislation.

Wars with France, growing out of the great French Revolution of 1789.—Long-continued despotism on the part of the French government at last provoked the people of France into open rebellion. But the revolutionists, under blood-thirsty and infidel leaders, committed the most frightful excesses. They guillotined their kind-hearted king, Louis XVI., and his good queen, Marie Antoinette; abolished the monarchy, suppressed Christianity, executed thousands of the nobles and clergy, and terrorized the whole nation. Their atrocities at last caused the monarchs of Europe to unite against them, in the interests of public order and religion.

The war began, in 1793, with an invasion of France by the allies. But whatever was their character at home, the revolutionists proved themselves invincible in the field. They routed the allied armies in battle after battle, and drove them beyond the French frontiers. Even England was unsuccessful on land, but she maintained her old prestige on the ocean. One of her greatest victories was that won by Admiral Nelson in the bay of Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, in 1798, when the French fleet was destroyed. At last, by the treaty of Amiens, in 1802, a short peace

was secured, and the European powers agreed to recognize the French Republic.

In the meantime, Napoleon Bonaparte, a young Corsican soldier, had risen into prominence. As commander of the French army in Italy, in 1797 and in 1800, he was so successful over the Austrians, that he earned a European reputation. He was made First Consul of France, in 1801, and used his power for the restoration of order and religion, and the improvement of the affairs of the country. In 1804, he was crowned Emperor, and was immediately called upon to face a fresh coalition of the European powers. In 1805, he defeated the Russians and Austrians at the great battle of Austerlitz; in 1806, he crushed the power of Prussia at Jena; in 1808, his armies overran Spain and Portugal; in 1809, he once more defeated the Austrians at Wagram. He then divorced his wife, Josephine, and married the Austrian Emperor's daughter. In 1809, he seized the Papal territory and imprisoned the Pope—Pius VII. From that moment his great power began to decline.

In 1805, Admiral Nelson completely defeated the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar, though the English hero was killed at the moment of victory. In 1806, Pitt died; but the new minister, Canning, vigorously maintained the war against Napoleon. In 1808, Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, was sent into Spain with a British army

to help the Spaniards to expel the French. This was the beginning of the Peninsular War. After winning the battle of Vimeira, he was recalled, and Sir John Moore sent in his place. Moore, after marching into the country, was forced to retreat, followed by the French. At Corunna, on the coast, a battle was fought at which the French were repulsed, but Moore was killed. Sir Arthur Wellesley was again placed in command of the British army and commenced a career of victory that finally expelled the French from the Peninsula. At the battles of Talavera (1809), Salamanca (1812), and Vittoria (1813), and at the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, in 1812, he outgeneralled Napoleon's ablest marshals and overthrew some of his best armies. In 1813, the victorious Wellington entered France, defeated the French at Toulouse, and marched triumphantly towards Paris.

Meanwhile Napoleon himself invaded Russia, but there lost almost the whole of his army by frost and famine, 1812. On his return, he raised a fresh army, but was totally routed at Leipsic, in 1813, by the united forces of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. A few months after, Paris was in the hands of the Allies. Napoleon resigned his crown and retired to the island of Elba, 1814. A short period of peace succeeded; but in March, 1815, Napoleon returned to France and resumed his former position. Europe once more combined against him, and he was overthrown at Waterloo.

by the British and Prussians under Wellington and Blücher, June 18, 1815. About a week after this, Napoleon surrendered himself to the English, who sent him to St. Helena and guarded him there until 1821, when he died. England came out of this long struggle of twenty-two years covered with glory, but burdened with an immense debt—\$4,000,000,000.

Irish Affairs.—England's peculiar method of governing Ireland has already been noticed. Towards the end of George II.'s reign, the penal laws were gradually relaxed. At the breaking out of the American Revolution, England, with her hands full of war, called upon her Irish subjects to arm in their own defence. This they did, and in a short time an army of well-drilled volunteers came into existence. Irish patriots now saw their opportunity. The volunteers, supported by the eloquence of Grattan, Flood, and other patriotic Irish Protestants, boldly demanded that the Irish Parliament be declared free to manage the affairs of Ireland. England, after much hesitation, yielded, in 1782. Then followed a period of prosperity in Irish affairs which England viewed with a jealous eye. By a course of harsh and selfish legislation, the British Parliament checked the growth of Irish prosperity and reduced the country to misery. Driven to desperation, the Irish, both Catholics and Protestants, rose in rebellion, in 1798, but they were soon overpowered and severely punished. The Act of Union

was then passed: in 1801, the Irish Parliament was united to that of England, and Ireland ceased to be a nation. The work done by O'Connell—his successful agitation for Catholic emancipation and his gallant efforts in behalf of repeal—will be noticed further on. In 1848, another rising took place, but it was quickly put down and its leaders arrested and transported. The census of 1851 showed that Ireland lost two millions of its population by emigration and disease. The agitation caused by the Fenian Brotherhood, beginning about 1862, gave the Government much trouble for several years. A more recent movement is that set on foot by the Home Rule members of the House of Commons (led by Charles Stewart Parnell), who, adopting O'Connell's principles, are endeavoring by peaceful, but earnest, agitation, to effect the repeal of the legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland.

War of 1812 with the United States.—During the wars with Napoleon, Great Britain claimed the right to search American vessels for supposed run-away British subjects. The American Government objected, but England persisted, whereupon the former declared war. Operations on land were chiefly conducted in Canada, and the Canadians, though inferior in numbers, were generally successful. An American invading army under General Hull was driven out of Canada, in 1812, and forced to surrender at Detroit to General Brock. The next year, Brock defeated another invading army

at Queenston Heights, but was killed in the battle. Other American forces met a similar fate at Chrysler's Field on the St. Lawrence, and along the Niagara frontier; the only signal American victory was that won at the battle of the Thames, 1814. On the water the Americans met with singular success. In the States the British general, Ross, took and destroyed Washington, but at New Orleans the British under General Pakenham were defeated. A treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, in December, 1814, which left matters as they existed before the war.

The Russian War.—Russia had long cast a covetous eye on Turkey, the possession of which would give her the supremacy of the East. In 1853 it became evident, that she was determined to effect her object. England, in defence of her Eastern interests, interposed and, supported by France, declared war in 1854. The war was carried on chiefly in the Crimea. The principal events were: a victory at Alma, the brilliant charge of the Light Brigade at Balaklava, the victory of Inkerman—where the English would have been defeated but for the timely arrival of the French, and the capture of Sebastopol by the allied troops, after a year's siege. Russia then sued for peace, which was granted her on very unfavorable terms, by the treaty of Paris, in 1856. Although victorious, the allied armies suffered much hardship and great loss of life. The losses of the Russians were still heavier.

India (Hindostan).—Early in the seventeenth century, the English East India Company, chartered, in 1600, for trading purposes, obtained possession of several ports on the coast of Hindostan. To defend their increasing possessions, they hired and drilled bodies of native troops whom they called Sepoys. These formed the bulk of the army that under Lord Clive broke the French power in India, in the Seven Years' War, and overthrew Surajah Dowlah at Plassey, in 1756. Warren Hastings, governor general in 1774, still further strengthened British rule in India, and the overthrow of Tippoo Sahib at the battle of Seringapatam, in 1799, made that rule predominant. After this, the next most important event was the rebellion of the Sepoys under Nana Sahib, 1857. They captured Delhi, massacred the European residents at Cawnpore, and laid siege to Lucknow. Delhi was recaptured within six months, Lucknow relieved, and the rebellion suppressed, though after considerable loss of life and treasure. The East India Company was now suppressed, and the government of India transferred to the Crown.

Canada.—Canada was first owned by France. In 1535, Jacques Cartier, a French navigator, explored the St. Lawrence, and formally took possession of the country in the name of his king, Francis I. The first permanent settlement was made at Quebec, by Champlain, an enterprising explorer, and the country began to improve. For a long time, fur-trading was the

chief occupation of the settlers; but progress was retarded by frequent wars with the Indians (Iroquois) and with the English settlers to the south, on the question of boundaries. The ablest French governor was Frontenac (died, 1696), who defeated the English and Indians on all sides, and raised the French power in Canada to its height. Marquis de Vaudreuil was the last French governor. During his administration, the Seven Years' War broke out, when, notwithstanding the skill of General Montcalm, the French were defeated, and Canada was ceded to the English, 1763.

The population now increased rapidly. In 1775, the Canadians successfully resisted an American invasion. In 1791, Canada was divided into two provinces—Upper and Lower Canada. The war of 1812 with the United States, as we have seen, reflected infinite credit on the courage and loyalty of the Canadians. In 1837, a rebellion, headed by Mackenzie and Papineau, broke out in both provinces, owing to the refusal of the administration to grant Responsible Government. It was suppressed in a short time; but the Act of 1841, which reunited the provinces, conceded the demands made in 1837. Settlers now poured in from all parts; manufactures sprang up; commerce, facilitated by numerous lakes, rivers, canals, and railroads, began to extend, and the country in general assumed a prosperous appearance. In 1866, Canada was disturbed by Fenian raiders from the neighboring republic. In 1867, the Brit-

ish North America Act was passed, constituting the Dominion of Canada. At first, the Dominion was composed of four provinces: Ontario (Upper Canada), Quebec (Lower Canada), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. Latterly, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, British Columbia, and that vast district known as Hudson's Bay Territory have joined the Confederation. In 1869, the Metis, of the Red River Settlement, now Manitoba, rose in rebellion, chiefly on the question of self-government, and, led by Louis Riel, held control of the territory for several months; but on the approach of a British regiment the leaders fled, and the provincial government was established. In 1885, the Metis and Indians in the north-west, considering themselves ill-treated by the Dominion Government, especially on the land question, took up arms to maintain their claims. An army of Canadian volunteers under General Middleton marched against them and completely routed them at Batoche. Their leader, Louis Riel, was captured and subsequently hanged.

The area of the Dominion is nearly 4,000,000 of square miles, and the population almost 5,000,000. The form of government in Canada is a limited monarchy. The government consists of the Legislature and the Executive. The Legislature is composed of the Governor-General (representing the Sovereign of Great Britain), the Senate, and the House of Commons. These three branches must give their consent to every

Bill before it can become law. The Governor-General is the chief executive officer. He assembles, prorogues, and dissolves Parliament, and assents to all Bills not reserved for Her Majesty's pleasure. The Senate corresponds to the House of Lords in England. It may originate Bills not relating to the revenue, and may reject any Bill passed by the Commons. The House of Commons consists of representatives chosen by the electors in counties, cities, and towns. It controls the revenue and expenditure of the country. The Executive of the Dominion consists of the Governor-General and a Cabinet, or Ministry, of thirteen members. These are selected from the members of the House of Commons, by the Premier, and with him direct the government of the nation. The government of Canada is a Responsible Government—that is, the Ministers are answerable to the Parliament for all their acts. The Premier, or Prime Minister, is chosen by the Sovereign or Representative. The Ministers and ex-Ministers compose the Privy Council. A Parliament is the assembly of the Senate and House of Commons, to make laws and discuss national affairs. That part of each year taken up for these purposes is called a Session. The Speaker is the individual chosen by the Commons to preside over its actions while in session. To adjourn Parliament is to grant the members a recess for a certain time; to prorogue Parliament is to stop its work for the session; and to dissolve Parliament is

to dismiss the members, finally, after which a new election must take place. The House of Commons consists of 211 members; and the Senate, or Upper House, is composed of 78 Senators.

Egyptian Affairs.—The government of Egypt, nominally subject to the Sultan of Turkey, by a long course of extravagance had sunk itself deeply in debt. The people, long groaning under a heavy weight of taxation, rose in rebellion, in 1882, headed by Arabi Pasha. The bulk of Egypt's creditors were English capitalists, and the British government, in the interest of these capitalists, interfered to put down the rebellion. After a short campaign, the British forces under General Wolseley brought the rebellion to a close by the defeat of Arabi Pasha at the battle of Tel-el-Keber. Not long after this event, a new opponent of the Egyptian government appeared in the Soudan, in the person of a pretended prophet—El Mahdi—at the head of a large army. General Gordon, a British officer in the service of Egypt, was sent to oppose him and to settle the affairs of the Soudan. But El Mahdi carried all before him and blockaded Gordon in Khartoom, a place of some importance on the Blue Nile. After a siege of several months, Khartoom was captured and Gordon slain, early in 1885. In the meantime, the British government interfered to check the progress of El Mahdi. British forces, led chiefly by General Wolseley, marched up the Nile, had various encounters with

El Mahuli's followers, and suffered severe losses, but did not accomplish anything definite. Generals Earle and Stewart were killed in this war. Affairs in that country are still in an unsettled condition.

EMINENT PERSONS OF THE HANOVERIAN PERIOD.

Sir Robert Walpole, born 1676, died 1745 ; prime minister for twenty-one years, ending 1742. His foreign policy was peaceful. He was a great, but unscrupulous statesman, and used the public money to purchase the support of his opponents—a practice which ultimately drove him from power.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, born 1708, died 1778 ; a statesman possessed of great force of character, and a brilliant orator. He became premier, in 1758, and for four years conducted one of the most vigorous and successful administrations that have ever held office. British armies everywhere triumphed ; commerce and manufactures flourished. He retired, in 1761, rewarded with an earldom and the still prouder title of "The Great Commoner."

Edmund Burke, born 1730, died 1797 ; Irish by birth and descent ; an eminent writer, orator, and statesman. As a member of the British Parliament, he was distinguished not only for his eloquence and political abilities, but also for his broad and liberal principles. He had a remarkable genius for writing, and his works consist chiefly of essays and letters on philosophical and political subjects.

William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, born 1759, died 1806 ; famous for his oratory and political genius. He became premier, at the age of twenty-four. His military administration was feeble and unskilful ; but his extraordinary genius, as a parliamentary leader, made him the most powerful and popular minister that England ever produced, and for nineteen years

he held almost absolute power. The great aim of his foreign policy was to crush Napoleon, and it is said that his failure to do so hastened his death. It was he who changed the character of the House of Lords by the creation of new peers.

Charles James Fox, born 1749, died 1806 ; a brilliant orator and statesman. He was the great opponent of the younger Pitt, and a warm friend of Burke. Like the latter, he was an advocate of honest government and liberal measures.

Lord Horatio Nelson, born in 1758, killed at the battle of Trafalgar in 1805 ; the greatest of English admirals. He was a natural sailor, and spent his life, from the age of twelve, at sea, rising rapidly by his great abilities to the highest position in the service. His two great victories—at the Nile, in 1798, and at Trafalgar, in 1805—are among the most notable of modern naval warfare.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, born 1769, died 1852 ; England's greatest soldier, and one of the most successful generals mentioned in history (see French Wars). He was premier during the latter part of George IV.'s reign ; but he did not shine as a statesman, and made himself very unpopular by his opposition to all measures of reform. It was through force and with great reluctance, that he passed the Emancipation Bill in 1829.

Daniel O'Connell, born 1775, died 1847 ; a celebrated Irish statesman, orator, and patriot. By his surprising ability and zeal he worked up an agitation of such formidable proportions, that the British ministry, fearing a popular outbreak, repealed the Test Act, 1828, and passed the Catholic Emancipation Bill, 1829. He now devoted himself to the work of effecting a repeal of the Union, and by his accustomed energy and prudence maintained for years an enthusiastic and powerful, but peaceful, agitation for that purpose. In 1843, the Government arrested him, on a charge of holding unlawful assemblies, and sentenced him to be fined and imprisoned ; but the House of Lords soon after

reversed this sentence. O'Connell was now old and feeble ; he undertook a journey to Rome, in 1847, but died on the way. His body lies entombed near Dublin. He was several times member of Parliament and, in 1841, was lord-mayor of Dublin. He was the idol of the Irish people, an unselfish patriot, and a sincere Catholic.

Henry Stuart, Cardinal of York, the last of his royal race, and a man of unblemished character ; died at Rome, in 1807.

Among the other great statesmen of this period were: **GEORGE CANNING**, a powerful orator, whose great object was the overthrow of Napoleon, died 1827.

LORD JOHN RUSSELL, who passed the Reform Bill of 1832, died 1878.

SIR ROBERT PEEL, who repealed the Corn Laws in 1846, died 1850.

LORD PALMERSTON, the energetic premier during the Russian War, died 1865.

RICHARD CORDEN, successful advocate of many liberal measures, died in 1865.

BENJAMIN DISRAELI, made Earl of Beaconsfield, a firm and prudent premier, died 1881.

RIGHT HON. W. E. GLADSTONE, who has passed many liberal measures, still living.

Poets: **JAMES THOMSON**, died 1748, author of "The Seasons."

EDWARD YOUNG, died 1765, author of "Night Thoughts."

THOMAS GRAY, died 1771, author of "Elegy on a Country Church-yard."

OLIVER GOLDSMITH, died 1774, author of "Traveller" and "Deserted Village."

ROBERT BURNS, died 1796, a Scotch lyric poet.

WILLIAM COWPER, died 1800, author of "The Task."

LORD BYRON, died 1824, author of "Childe Harold."

SIR WALTER SCOTT, died 1832, author of "The Lady of the Lake;" he also wrote the "Waverley Novels."

MRS. HEMANS, died 1835, wrote various poems.

ROBERT SOUTHY, died 1843, wrote various poetical and historical works.

THOMAS CAMPBELL, died 1844, author of "Pleasures of Hope."

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH, died 1850, author of "The Excursion."

THOMAS MOORE, died 1852, author of "Irish Melodies."

SAMUEL ROGERS, died 1855, author of "Pleasures of Memory."

ALFRED TENNYSON, still living, author of various poems.

Prose-Writers: SIR ISAAC NEWTON, died 1727, discoverer of the "Laws of Gravitation."

ALBAN BUTLER, died 1763, theologian, author of "Lives of the Saints."

DAVID HUME, died 1776, infidel author of "History of England."

DR. RICHARD CHALLONER, died 1783, wrote various religious works.

DR. SAMUEL JOHNSON, died 1784, author of "Rasselas" and an "English Dictionary."

ADAM SMITH, died 1790, author of a work on political economy called the "Wealth of Nations."

EDWARD GIBBON, died 1794, infidel author of "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire."

RICHARD B. SHERIDAN, died 1816, dramatic writer.

REV. JOHN LINGARD, D.D., died 1851, author of "History of England," one of the most reliable works extant.

BISHOP MILNER, author of "End of Religious Controversy," died 1826.

JOSEPH BERINGTON, author of the "Literary History of the Middle Ages," died 1827.

LORD MACAULAY, died 1859, author of a "History of England" and "Lays of Ancient Rome."

ARCHIBALD ALISON, died 1867, author of a "History of Europe."

CARDINAL WISEMAN, died 1865, and CARDINAL MANNING, still living, both Archbishops of Westminster, and both taking a high rank among prose authors.

THOMAS CARLYLE, died 1881, essayist and historian.

WILLIAM THACKERAY (died 1863), EDWARD BULWER-LYTTON (died 1873), and CHARLES DICKENS (died 1870), were great novelists.

Miscellaneous: SIR GODFREY KNELLER, painter, died 1723.

JOHN HOWARD, the celebrated philanthropist, died 1790.

SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS, painter, died 1792.

JOHN WILKES, a politician of little merit, made himself obnoxious to the government by publishing scurrilous articles in his paper the *North Briton*, but became popular by posing as a champion for freedom of the press, and caused great excitement; he died in 1797.

SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN, architect, died 1723.

EDMUND HALLEY, astronomer, died 1742.

SIR WM. HERSCHELL, astronomer, died 1822.

SIR H. DAVY, inventor of the safety lamp, died 1829.

SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT (died 1792) and JAMES HARGREAVES, inventors of spinning machines.

JAMES WATT, improved the steam engine, died 1819.

GEORGE STEPHENSON, invented the locomotive engine, died 1848.

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE, the successful advocate for the abolition of slavery, died 1833.

CHIEF DATES—HOUSE OF HANOVER.

The Pretender in Scotland.....	1715.
The South Sea Bubble.....	1720.
The Young Pretender.....	1745.
Seven Years' War begins.....	1756.
American Revolution begins.....	1775.
American Independence acknowledged....	1783.
French Revolution begins.....	1789.
Irish Rebellion.....	1798.
Union of Irish and British Parliaments....	1801.
Peninsular War begins.....	1808.
Battle of Waterloo.....	1815.
Repeal of Test and Corporation Acts.....	1828.
Emancipation Bill.....	1829.
First Railway.....	1830.
Reform Bills.....	1832, 1867, and 1885.
Abolition of Slavery.....	1833.
Electric Telegraph.....	1842.
Corn Laws repealed.....	1846.
Crimean War.....	1854.
Indian Mutiny.....	1857.
Civil War in the United States.....	1861.
Death of Prince Albert.....	1861.
Cotton Famine in Lancashire.....	1862.
Atlantic Cable laid... ..	1866.
Disestablishment of Irish Church.....	1869.
Irish Land Acts.....	1870 and 1884.
Elementary Education Act for England... ..	1870.
Ballot Act.....	1872.
Education Act (Scotland).....	1872.
Telephone.....	1877.
Wars in Egypt.... ..	1882 and 1885.

APPENDIX.

I. THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

THE three principal forms of government are : Absolute Monarchy, Limited Monarchy, Republic. In the first, the supreme power is held by the sovereign ; in the second, the power of the sovereign is limited by a constitution ; and in the third, the supreme power is vested in representatives elected by the people. The science of government is called Politics.

The form of government in England is that of a limited monarchy : the supreme power being divided between the Sovereign and two Houses of Parliament.

The Sovereign alone makes peace or war ; he has the sole right of pardoning criminals ; he can call, prorogue, or dissolve Parliament ; he has the right of accepting or refusing to sign any law ; all titles of nobility are created by him. These, his prerogatives, are defined by the laws of the land, which are as binding on him as on his subjects.

Parliament consists of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Laws are made by being proposed in either House, in the form of a Bill. Every Bill must be read and passed, by a majority of votes, three times in each House, and then receive the consent and signature of the Sovereign before it becomes a law of the land. Bills granting money can be proposed in the Commons only, and the Lords have no control over them.

The Sovereign carries on the government through his Ministers, who are responsible to Parliament. When Parliament

refuses to accept their measures, the Ministers resign; and the Sovereign calls other advisers to form a new ministry. According to the Septennial Act, a Parliament can sit for seven years only; the Sovereign must then dissolve it and call a new one. A new Parliament must also be called within six months after the accession of a new Sovereign.

The Parliamentary rights, above enumerated, are the outgrowth of various successive enactments; but their essential features are contained in the *Magna Charta* of King John.

POLITICAL TERMS.

The Members of a Parliament are usually divided into two great Parties—(1.) the Party in power, called the Ministry or Government Party, and (2.) the Party in opposition. When the Ministry is defeated in an important measure, it resigns, and the opposition leader is called upon to form a new ministry. When neither party feels strong enough to form a ministry, a coalition is usually formed, consisting of members chosen from both parties.

The Fiscal Policy of the country is the plan adopted by the government for the purpose of raising a revenue. Free Trade is the free interchange of goods between countries. The National Exchequer is the Court which exercises jurisdiction in all cases relating to the customs, the excise, and the revenue generally. Political Economy is the science which explains the principles of National Wealth.

The Journals of the House are the books in which the proceedings of each day are recorded. The Civil List is the money required for the maintenance of the Sovereign's household. An Order in Council is a regulation, having the effect of law, made by the Ministry, independent of Parliament. A Bill is a statement of a proposed law; when regularly passed, it is called an Act of Parliament.

Trial by Jury is the trial of alleged criminals by a body of individuals impartially chosen from the community.

A Session is that part of the year taken up by Parliament in transacting public business. Parliament is *adjourned* from day to day ; it is *prorogued* from session to session ; and it is *dissolved* when a new election is about to be held. The Speaker is the person chosen by the Commons to preside over its actions when in session.

The Three Estates of the British realm are : the Sovereign, the Lords, and the Commons. The Regent is one who governs a country in place of the sovereign.

II. PRINCIPAL TREATIES.

Treaty of Bretigny, 1360 : Closed war with France ; Edward III. resigned his claim to the French crown.

Treaty of Troyes, 1420 : Henry V. declared Regent of France and heir to the French throne.

Treaty of Breda, 1667 : The Dutch ceded New York to the English.

Secret Treaty of Dover, 1670 : Louis XIV. agreed to pay Charles II. £200,000 annually on condition that the latter would assist him against the Dutch.

Treaty of Ryswick, 1697 : Louis XIV. of France acknowledged William III., King of England.

Treaty of Utrecht, 1713 : Closed Spanish Succession War ; Philip, grandson of Louis XIV., acknowledged King of Spain ; part of New France surrendered to Great Britain.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748 : Closed Austrian Succession War ; Maria Teresa's claim to Austrian dominions acknowledged.

Treaty of Paris or Fontainebleau, 1763 : Closed Seven

Years' War ; France ceded possessions in Canada and India to England.

Treaty of Versailles, 1783 : England acknowledged the Independence of the United States.

Treaty of Amiens, 1802 : Between France and Allied Powers of Europe ; terminated the first war growing out of the French Revolution.

Treaty of Ghent, 1814 : Closed War between Great Britain and the United States ; conquered territory mutually restored.

Treaty of Paris, 1815 : Closed the Wars with Napoleon ; France reduced to the limits of 1790, and the Bourbon dynasty restored in the person of Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI.

Treaty of Paris, 1856 : Closed Russian War ; Russian troops withdrawn from Turkey, and Russia agrees not to keep war-ships in the Black Sea.

III. IMPORTANT CHARTERS AND STATUTES.

Constitutions of Clarendon, 1164. Framed by Henry II. to make the Church subject to the State.

Magna Charta, John, 1215. Equal rights secured to all classes (see p. 24).

Confirmatio Chartarum, Edward I. Confirmed Magna Charta and Charter of Forests.

Statute of Treason, Edward III., 1351. Crime of high-treason limited to compassing the king's death, levying war against him, or aiding his enemies.

Act of Supremacy, Henry VIII., 1534. The Sovereign established Supreme Head of the Church.

Petition of Right, Charles I., 1628. Taxes not to be levied without consent of Parliament.

- Test Act**, Charles II., 1673. All municipal, civil, and military officers to conform to the Established Church.
- Habeas Corpus Act**, Charles II., 1679. No arrests without a warrant; arrested persons to be tried within a certain time.
- Bill of Rights**, William and Mary, 1689. Parliamentary rights and privileges confirmed.
- Toleration Act**, William and Mary. Repealed penal laws against Dissenters, but not those against Catholics.
- Military Act**, William and Mary. Prevented the army from being kept in existence for longer than a year at a time without the consent of Parliament.
- Act of Settlement**, William III., 1701. Succession to the Crown limited to the Protestant heirs of the Electress of Hanover; Ministers made responsible for the Sovereign's acts.
- Act of Union**, Anne, 1707. Legislative Union of Scotland and England.
- Septennial Act**, George I., 1716. Duration of Parliaments limited to seven years.
- Act of Union**, George III., 1800. Legislative Union of Ireland and Great Britain.
- Emancipation Bill**, George IV., 1829. Civil and religious liberty granted to Catholics.
- Reform Bills**, William IV., 1832, and Victoria, 1867. Extension of the Franchise; equalization of Parliamentary representation; "Rotten Boroughs" abolished.
- Municipal Reform Bill**, Victoria. Provided for the better administration of justice in towns and gave ratepayers the right to elect town councillors.
- Church Bill**, Victoria, 1869. Disestablishment of the English Church in Ireland.
- Land Bills**, Victoria, 1870 and 1884. Granted privileges to the Irish farmers.

Education Act, 1870. Provided by means of school boards for the education of children between the ages of 5 and 13 at the public expense.

Franchise Bill, 1885. Still further extending the privilege of voting.

IV. THE SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.

FROM 827 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

THE SAXON KINGS.

ROBERT.....	827
ETHELWOLF (son).....	837
ETHELBALD (son).....	858
ETHELBERT (brother).....	860
ETHELRED I. (brother).....	866
ALFRED THE GREAT (brother).....	871
EDWARD THE ELDER (son).....	901
ATHELSTAN (son).....	925
EDMUND (brother).....	940
EDRED (brother).....	946
EDWY (son of Edmund).....	955
EDGAR (son of Edmund).....	959
EDWARD THE MARTYR (son).....	975
ETHELRED II. (son).....	979
EDMUND IRONSIDE (son).....	1016
(Danish Interval).....	1016-1041
EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.....	1042
HAROLD.....	1065

NORMANS.

WILLIAM I. (Conqueror).....	1066
WILLIAM II. (son).....	1087
HENRY I. (brother).....	1100
STEPHEN (nephew).....	1135-1154

II. PLANTAGENETS

HENRY II. (grandson of H. I.).....	1154
RICHARD I. (son).....	1189
JOHN (brother).....	1199

HENRY III. (son).....	1216
EDWARD I. (son).....	1272
EDWARD II. (son).....	1307
EDWARD III. (son).....	1327
RICHARD II. (grandson).....	1377-1399

III. LANCASTRIANS.

HENRY IV. (son of John of Gaunt).....	1399
HENRY V. (son).....	1413
HENRY VI. (son).....	1422-1461

IV. YORKISTS.

EDWARD IV. (son of Duke of York).....	1461
EDWARD V. (son).....	1483
RICHARD III. (uncle).....	1483-1485

V. TUDORS.

HENRY VII. (descendant of John of Gaunt).....	1485
HENRY VIII. (son).....	1509
EDWARD VI. (son).....	1547
MARY (half-sister).....	1553
ELIZABETH (half-sister).....	1558-1603

VI. STUARTS.

JAMES I. (des. Henry VII.).....	1603
CHARLES I. (son).....	1625

COMMONWEALTH.....	1649
CHARLES II. (son of Charles I.).....	1660
JAMES II. (brother).....	1685
WILLIAM III. and Mary (Mary was a daughter of James II.).....	1689
ANNE (daughter of James II.).....	1702-1714

VII. HANOVERIANS.

GEORGE I. (great-grandson of James I.).....	1714
GEORGE II. (son).....	1727
GEORGE III. (grandson).....	1760
GEORGE IV. (son).....	1820
WILLIAM IV. (brother).....	1830
VICTORIA (niece).....	1837

V. PRONUNCIATION OF DIFFICULT PROPER NAMES APPEARING IN FOREGOING PAGES.

ā, ē, ī, ō, ū, *long*; â, ê, ô, *less prolonged*; ä, ë, ÿ, ö, ü, *short*; ä, æ, ă, ȳ, *obscure*; fär, fäll; there, tēr; för, fōd, fōt, fūr; ou, as in *cow*; ch, as in *chin*; e, i, o, *silent*; ö, as *e* in *her*; ũ is like the French *u*; u, like the French *eu*; ě, *soft*; ě, as in *get*; th, as in *thine*; n, *nasal*.

	PAGE		PAGE
Aboukir (ä-boo-keer').....	100	Blois (blwä).....	15
Adrian IV. (ä'dri-än).....	36	Blücher (blōō'kēr).....	89
Agricola (ä-grik'q-lä).....	7	Bouvines (boo-veen').....	25
Albans, Saint (sänt awl'bānz),	41	Bonaparte (bo'nä-pärt).....	101-2
Alcuin (äl'kwīn).....	12	Bourbon (boor'bōn).....	115
Anjou (än'joo).....	23	Brian Boru (brī'än bo-roo')....	31
An'selm, Saint.....	21	Breda (brä-dä').....	115
An'tō-nine.....	6	Buckingham (bük'ing-äm)...	67
Afghanistan (äf-gän'ts-tīn')... 91-2		Bûr-goyne'.....	99
Agincourt (äg'in-cōurt).....	39	Boulogne (boo-lōn').....	19
Aix-la-chapelle (äks-lä-shä-pel') 97			
Am I-gns.....	100	Cabot (käb'qt).....	49
Arles (arlz).....	6	Cā-bal'.....	69
Armagh (ar-mä').....	99	Calais (käl'ies).....	29
Ar-mä'dä.....	53	Caractacus (kä-räk'tä-kūs)....	5
Aus'ter-litz.....	101	Cæsar (see'zär).....	5
		Cædmon (kæd'mōn).....	12
Bal'ä-klä'vā.....	105	Cām'bridge.....	17
Badajos (bäd-ä-bōs').....	102	Cawn-pōre'.....	106
Baliol (bäl'le-ql, or bäl'yql)....	34	Canute (kä-nūt').....	10
Bē'ä-trice.....	70	Cār-lŷle'.....	114
Beauclerc (bō-').....	15	Cartier, Jacques (zhäk kar-tyä') 106	
Beaconsfield (bēk'ūnz-field)...	113	Cecil' (sēs'il).....	64
Becket (bēk'et), St. Thomas ä.	35	Cel'es-tīne.....	30
Bo ad-i-cē'ä.....	5	Celtic (sēlt'ik).....	6
Boleyn (bōol'in).....	50	Challoner (chal'qn-ēr).....	114
Bolingbroke (bōl'ing-brōök)...	28	Champlain (shäm'plän').....	106
Blenheim (blēn'im).....	79	Charlemagne (shar le-mān')... 12	

NAMES

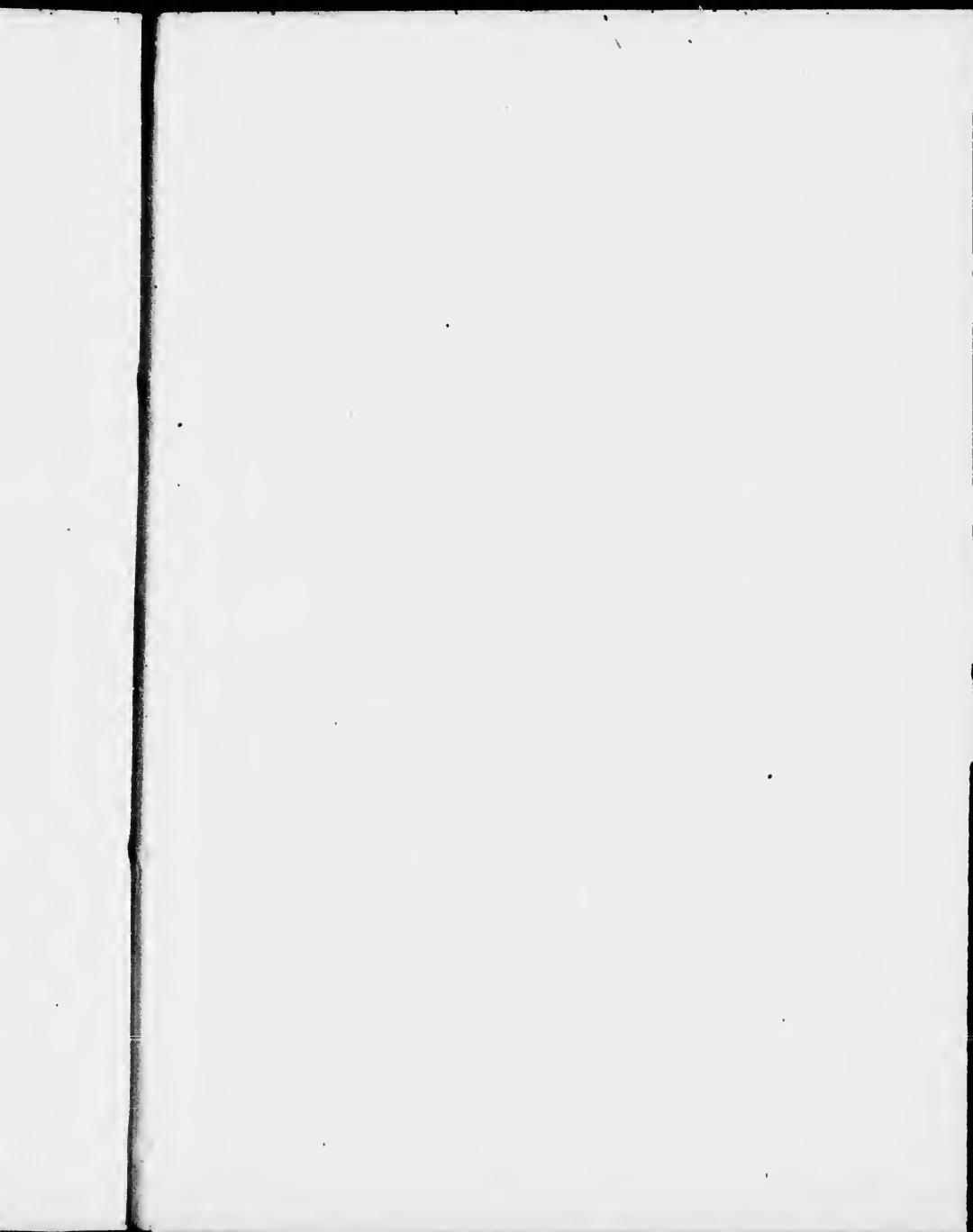
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PAGE
... 15
... 89
... 25
... 101-2
... 115
... 31
... 115
... 67
... 99
... 19
... 49
... 69
... 29
... 5
... 5
... 12
... 17
... 106
... 10
... 114
... 106
... 64
... 30
... 6
... 114
... 106
... 12

PAGE		PAGE	
Chaluz (shāl ūz).....	24	Gram pī-an	7
Chivalry (shiv'gī-rŷ).....	18	Greenwich (grīn'ij)	76
Chicheley (chich'ē-lī).....	49	Gresh'am	64
Clan'di-us.....	5	Guesclin (gā-klān').....	27
Cleves (kleevz)	50	Habeas Corpus (hā'bē-as kor'- pus).....	69
Ciudad Rodrigo (the-oo-dād' rod-ree'go).....	102	Hardicanute (hār'dī-kā-nūt')... ..	10
Cœur de Lion (kur de l'ōn)...	24	Hém'ans	123
Colet (kōl'ēt).....	64	Hengist (heng'gīst)	8
Connaught (kōn'nawt).....	30	Heptarchy (hep'tārkh-l).....	8
Crecy (kres'eg).....	27	Herschel (hēr'shel).....	114
Cromwell (krām'wel, or krōm'- wel).....	83	Hibernia (hī-ber'nī-ā).....	30
Cul-lō'den.....	88	Hin-dq-stan'.....	106
Cū'tī-ā Rē'gīs.....	17	Hungary (hung'gā-rī).....	97
Dāne'gelt.....	9	Il i-ad.....	85
Delhi (del'lee).....	106	Icenī (ī-see nī).....	7
Dēr'by (or dar'bi).....		In'dī-ā.....	106
De Ruŷ'ter	69	Ireton (īr'ton).....	77
Det'tīng-gn	97	Iroquois (īr-q-quoy').....	115
Devereux (dēv'ē-roo).....	64	Jena (yā'nā).....	101
Disraeli (diz-rā'lee).....	118	Jō'an of Arc.....	40
Drogheda (drōg'ē-dā).....	67	Josephine (jō'se-feen').....	101
Eves'ham	26	Khartoum (kar-toom')	110
El Māh'dī.....	106	Kneller (nēl'ēr).....	114
Erin (ē-rīn).....	30	Labrador (lab'rā-dōr').....	49
Falkirk (fawl'kīrk).....	34	Lān'franc.....	21
Fontainebleau (fōn'tān'-blō')	98	Leicester (les'tēr).....	25
Fontenoy (fōn-tē-nōi').....	97	Leinster (līn'ster).....	30
Fortescue (fōr'tē-kn).....	46	Leipsic (līp'sīk).....	102
Frontenac (frōn'te-nak).....	107	Lewes (lē'gēs).....	25
Gama, da (dā gā'mā).....	48	Llewellyn (loo-ēl'in).....	26
Ghent (gēnt, or gēon)...	106	Lorraine (lor-rān').....	97
Gloucester (glos'ter).....	41	Magna Charta (mag'na kār'ta)	24
Gór'don.....	89	Malcolm (māl'kōm).....	12

	PAGE		PAGE
Mandeville (man'də-vil).....	37	Seymour (see'mur).....	50
Marie Antoinette (mā're' ān- twā-net').....	100	Shakespeare (shāks'peer).....	63
Marlborough (mawl'bro).....	84	Shrewsbury (shruz'bər-ī).....	88
Moore (mōr, or moor).....	102	Soudan (soo-dan').....	110
Montcalm (mōnt-kām).....	98	Suetonius Paulinus (swc-to'ni- us pawl-tū'ns).....	7
Nā'nā Sā'hīb.....	106	Surajah Dowlah (soo-rā'jā doo' lā).....	106
Navarino (nav-ā-ree'ng).....	90	Sweyn (swān).....	10
Nō'vūm Or-gā'nūm.....	64	Talavera (tā-lā-vā'rā).....	102
Oates (ōtz).....	69	Tewkesbury (tūks'bər-ī).....	45
Oudenarde (ou'den-ar'deh).....	79	Toulouse (too'looz').....	102
Pakenham (pak'ən-ām).....	105	Tournament (tūr'na-ment).....	45
Pal'es-tine.....	20	Traf'āl-gar', or Tra-fal'gar....	89
Palmerston (pām'er-stōn).....	113	Troyes (trvā).....	114
Papineau (pā'pe-nō).....	107	T'ip'po Sā'hīb.....	106
Pār'nell or Par'nell'.....	104	Utopia (ū'tō-pī-ā).....	62
Percy (pēr'sē).....	38	Utrecht (ū-trekt').....	73
Plantagenet (plān-taj'e-net)...	23	Vandreuil (vō'drui).....	109
Poitiers (pwā'te-ā').....	27	Versailles (ver-sāilz').....	114
Poy'n'ings.....		Vittoria (vi-tō'ri-ā).....	102
Pun-jāub'.....	91	Wāg'rām.....	101
Quebec (kā'bek').....	106	Walpole (wōl'pōl).....	88
Raleigh (raw'li).....	63	Warwick (wōr'ick).....	44
Ramilles (rām'e-léz).....	79	Wellesley (wēlz'li).....	101
Rouen (roo'ən).....	40	Winchelsey (win'chēl-sē).....	26
Ryswick (riz'wick).....	72	Wit'e-na-ge-mōt.....	11
Sā'l-ā-dīn.....	19	Wolseley (wōolz'li).....	110
Salisbury (sawlz'bər-ī).....	62	Worcester (wōds'ter).....	68
Scinde (sind).....	91	Wordsworth (wūrds'wurth)....	113
Seb'as-to'pol, or Sev'as-to'pol.....	105	Wyatt (wt'at).....	52
Seringapatam (ser-ing'gā-pā- tam').....	106	Wyckliffe (wīk'li).....	27
		Zūt'phen.....	64
		Zu'lu.....	92

PAGE	
.....	50
.....	63
.....	88
.....	110
o'ni-	
.....	7
doo'	
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