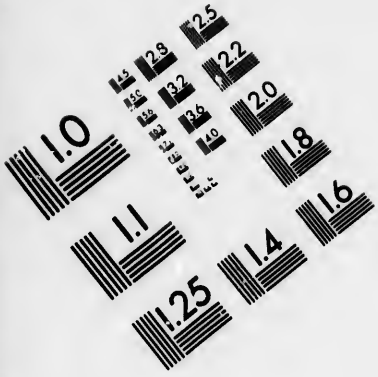

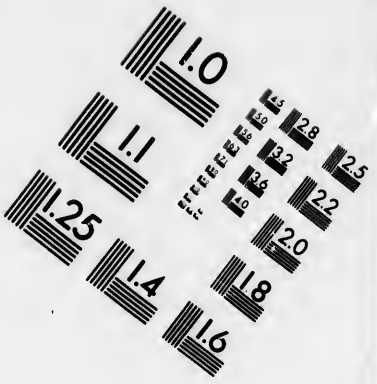

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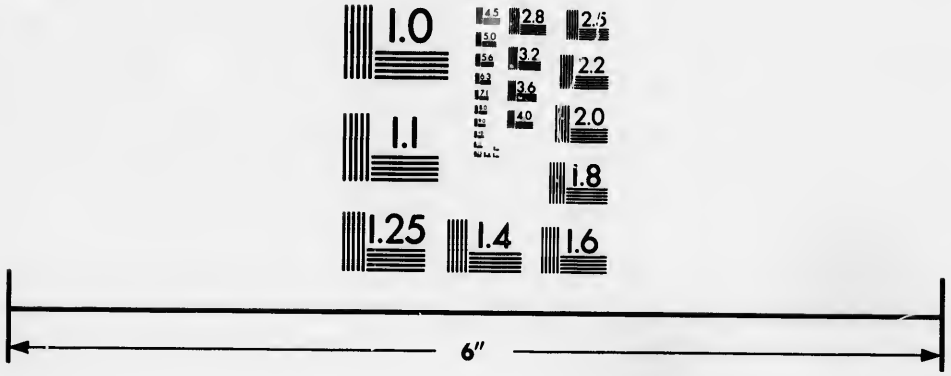

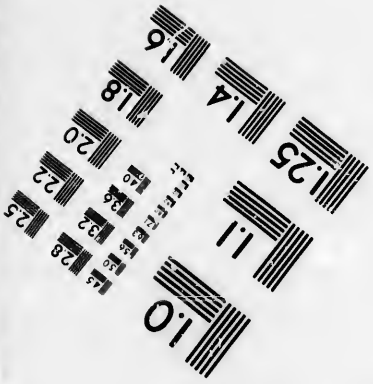

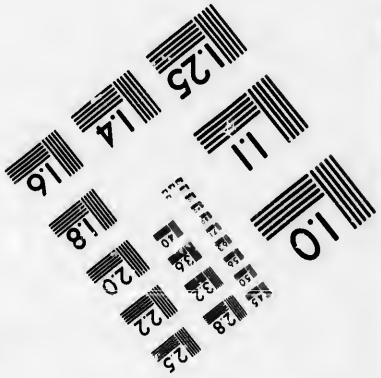

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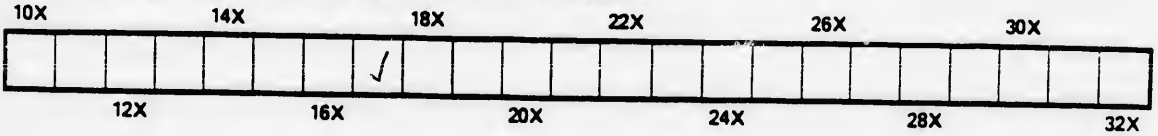

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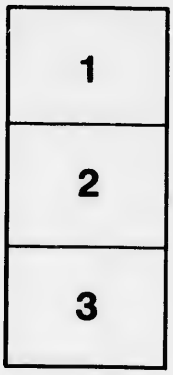

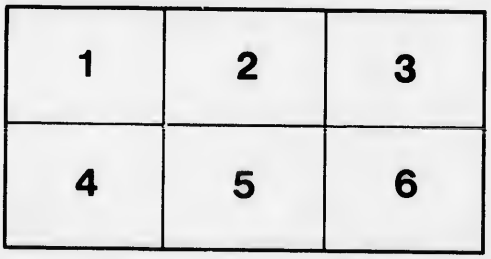

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OUTLINES

OF

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PREFACE.

THESE *Outlines of British History* aim at furnishing within a moderate compass a clear and impartial account of the progress of the British Nation. The risk of crowding the canvas has been avoided by delineating on it only the most striking events, and the most important actors in them. An effort has been made to connect every great result with the causes which led to it, and to appreciate generously the varied characters of the Sovereigns and the Statesmen of England.

CONTENTS.

The different Anglian and Saxon States, in the order of their reputed settlement, were—KENT, SUSSEX, WESSEX, ESSEX, EAST ANGLIA (comprising North-folk and South-folk), NORTHUMBRIA (separated into Deira and Bernicia), and MERCIA, which was conquered by Anglians and was mainly subject to Northumbria. The seven chief States are sometimes called *The Heptarchy*, or Rule of Seven; but there never were at any one time seven independent States.

The native Britons, or Welsh as the Anglo-Saxons called them, were driven into Cornwall (or West Wales), North Wales, Cumbria, and Strathclyde.

OUTLINES

OF THE

HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

Object of work.

1. The British Islands, lying almost in the centre of the land hemisphere, form the nucleus of the British Empire, whose limits include the great colonies of Canada, Australia, India, the Cape, and numerous other dependencies in every quarter of the globe. It is the object of the present work to trace from the earliest period of which we have any knowledge the events which have led to the union under one sovereign of so many scattered lands.

Earliest references.

2. Britain is first referred to in history by Herodotus, a Greek historian who wrote about four hundred and fifty years before Christ. He speaks of the *Cassiterides*, or "tin-islands," in allusion to the supplies of tin brought from the Scilly Isles by the Phœnicians, the great commercial race of antiquity. Our islands are first mentioned *by name* by the celebrated Greek philosopher, Aristotle, about 350 B.C. He refers to two large islands in the far west, "called Brittannic, Albion and Ierne."

Ancient names.

3. The meaning of the word *Britain* is uncertain. The name was lengthened by the Romans into *Britannia*. *Albion*, or "white land," is explained by the chalk cliffs of southern England. Ireland was known to the Greeks as *Ierne*, to the Romans as *Hibernia*, and to its own people as *Erin*. Scotland derives its name from the *Scoti*, a Celtic tribe which came over from Ireland early in the Christian era. The Romans called it *Caledonia*, imitating the southern Britons, who termed the northern tribes *Caoill daoin*, "people of the woods." The Welsh have always called themselves *Cymry*, whence the Roman name for Wales, *Cambria*. The German tribes that invaded Britain called them *Welsh*, or "foreigners."

4. The earliest known inhabitants of Britain were Celts. These were a people who, in the remote past, had emigrated from Asia into Europe, and at the dawn of history were found occupying the western part of the latter continent. Their descendants still occupy Brittany, Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, and most of Ireland.

Celtic race.

5. The writings of Cæsar and Tacitus, Roman historians, supply our chief knowledge of ancient Britain. The country abounded in marsh and forest. Skilled husbandry was unknown. The coasts nearest Gaul showed here and there patches of rudely tilled ground, but in the interior corn was not cultivated at all, the natives living on milk and flesh. In the far north, roots and berries, as they grew wild in the woods, were the chief means of subsistence. The ordinary clothing consisted of skins, the limbs being left bare and stained in blue figures with the juice of a plant called *woad*. The Britons were brave and hardy, and displayed considerable skill in war. They fought on foot, on horseback, and in chariots with scythe-armed axles. Although divided into many tribes, they always chose a single leader when danger threatened their common country.

Description of ancient Britain.

6. The Britons were pagans. Their religion was gloomy and unattractive, and is generally known as *Druidism*. The priests were called *Druids*, from a Celtic word meaning a sage or a magician. The principal ceremonies of religion were performed in the recesses of dark oak forests, and the tree itself was regarded with much veneration. The Druids possessed great power; for in addition to their priestly offices, they were the bards, the teachers, and the judges of the people. They recognized several distinct deities and taught the doctrine of transmigration of souls. Their religious system included human sacrifices. The victims, who were generally criminals or captives, were burned in huge wicker baskets. The circular rows of immense stones which are found in some parts of England are supposed by some to be the remains of Druidical temples. The most famous of these monumental relics is that at Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain.

Druidism.

CHAPTER II.

ROMAN BRITAIN.—55 B.C. to 410 A.D.

1. In the last week of August 55 B.C., Julius Cæsar, the greatest of Roman generals, crossed the Strait of Dover—then called *Fretum Oceani*—with a fleet of eighty ships, and landed on the coast of Kent. Cæsar had just completed the conquest of Gaul, and his invasion of Britain was due, at least partly, to his desire to punish the Britons for having lent aid to the Gauls in

Cæsar's invasion.

their resistance to his arms. The landing of the Roman troops was fiercely opposed by the natives, who, in immense swarms, ran down to the water's edge, and for a time disputed every inch of ground with the advancing legions. Resistance, however, proved vain, and Cæsar, his troops having been safely disembarked, prepared to take possession of the country. A violent storm which raged along the coast a few days after the landing, and seriously injured a number of his ships, deranged his plans. He determined to recross the Channel, and defer the conquest of Britain till the ensuing summer. The following year (54 B.C.) he returned with an army of five legions, or over thirty thousand men. The Britons, in anticipation of his return, had united their tribal armies under Cassivelaunus, a brave chieftain, whose own territory lay north of the Thames. By cautious tactics, the Briton was able for a time seriously to embarrass the Romans, but their disciplined energy soon prevailed over his opposition. Cæsar forced his way across the Thames, captured the stronghold of Cassivelaunus, a sort of fortified forest, and compelled him to sue for peace. The Britons were obliged to give hostages for the payment of a yearly tribute. Cæsar then returned to Gaul. In his well-known *Commentaries* he gives us a clear account of his campaign in Britain, as well as an interesting description of the country and the people.

Britain subjugated.

2. Britain now remained undisturbed by the Romans for nearly one hundred years. At length, in 43 A.D., the Emperor Claudius resolved to bring the island into complete subjection. The task of conquest was assigned to Plautius and Vespasian, both distinguished generals, the latter of whom afterwards became Emperor. The south-eastern part of the island was soon subdued and formed into the nucleus of a Roman province; but the more central districts maintained a successful resistance for nearly nine years, under the leadership of an heroic chieftain named Caradoc, or Caractacus. When finally defeated and captured, Caractacus was sent with other captives to Rome, where his manly bearing so impressed the Emperor as to secure for himself and his family the gift of their lives. Ostorius Scapula, the Roman general who conquered Caractacus, was succeeded by Sergius Paulinus, who at once proceeded to attack the island of Mona, or Anglesey, where the Druids had collected the last remnants of British power. The stronghold, though defended with passionate energy, was soon taken. The sacred groves of oak were cut down, and many of the unfortunate Druids were burned in the wicker cages which had been intended for their victims.

Boadicea.

3. For a time the subjugation of Britain seemed complete. However, in 62 A.D., during a temporary absence of Paulinus, a formidable revolt occurred. Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni, a native tribe holding the territory now known as Norfolk and

Suffolk, took the command, spear in hand. Blood and flame marked her progress, and it is supposed that about seventy thousand Roman settlers were destroyed. On his return, Paulinus succeeded in defeating Boadicea, but only after a desperate struggle. Roman authority was then supreme; and its establishment was naturally followed by the introduction of Roman institutions and customs. This was the work chiefly of Julius Agricola, who commanded in Britain from 78 A.D. to 85 A.D. Agricola was father-in-law of Tacitus, the celebrated Roman historian. He taught the natives the arts of peace, and encouraged them to settle in towns and villages. His chief military act was an expedition into Caledonia (Scotland), where, in a great battle fought at Mons Grampius (or Grampius) in 85 A.D., he defeated Galgacus, a British chieftain second in fame and valor to Caractacus alone. He followed up his victory by building a chain of forts from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde, to protect the Roman settlements from Caledonian incursions.

Britain Romanized.

4. In 120 A.D., the Emperor Hadrian caused a stone wall and an earthen rampart to be erected from the Tyne to the Solway Firth, remains of which are still visible. Twenty years later (140 A.D.), apparently unable to hold so southerly a rampart, the Emperor Antoninus Pius built a wall on the line of Agricola's forts between the Firths of Forth and Clyde. In 211 A.D., the Emperor Severus, after driving back the Caledonians to their fastnesses in the far north, repaired and strengthened Hadrian's fortifications from Tyne to Solway.

Roman walls.

5. Many beneficial effects followed the permanent establishment of Roman power in Britain. The arts of civilization flourished to a goodly extent. Large towns and cities grew up. The Romans, famed as the "road-builders" of antiquity, constructed excellent highways connecting the chief centres of trade and population. Agriculture became so far developed that large quantities of corn were raised and exported to the Continent. Still, it must be borne in mind that Britain never became thoroughly *Romanized*, like Gaul and Spain. With the exception of Dacia, she was the last province taken into the Roman Empire, while she was the very first to be abandoned. The conquerors and conquered remained essentially distinct races. The latter retained their own language, different dialects of which are still spoken by their Celtic descendants in Britain.

Effects of Roman occupation.

6. During the Roman occupation, Christianity spread into Britain, as into other parts of the empire. The circumstances of its introduction are not very clearly recorded. In 304 A.D., the first Christian martyr of Britain, Albinus, perished at Verulamium, now St. Albans. After the time of Constantine, there was a regularly organized British Church,

Introduction of Christianity.

represented by its own bishops in the great ecclesiastical councils. The profession of Christianity seems to have become universal, Druidism having gradually died out.

Roman power weakened.

7. During the third century, the coasts of Britain began to be infested by pirates from across the German Ocean. Somewhat later, the Caledonian marauders from the north reappeared as the "Picts and Scots," advancing in 368 A.D. even to London, whence they were driven back with extreme difficulty. Meanwhile Rome was becoming less and less able to succor her colonies when in distress. Her internal strength had decayed, and hordes of fierce barbarians were thundering at her gates.

Britain abandoned.

8. At length, in 410 A.D., the Roman Emperor Honorius formally renounced possession of Britain, and recalled the legions. For a time a form of government bearing some resemblance to that of the Romans seems to have been maintained. In 418 A.D., a small Roman force reappeared in the island, and assisted the people in repelling an attack of the Picts and Scots. In 446 A.D., in presence of still greater dangers, the hapless Britons besought the Emperor Aëtius to send troops to their relief. The refusal of this appeal closes the chapter of Roman connection with Britain.

Traces of Roman occupation.

9. Remains of the Roman walls may still be seen at York, Chester, and other places. Roman pottery and pavements are often dug up by workmen excavating for cellars and the foundations of buildings. Such names as Lan*caster*, Glou*cester*, and Man*chester* betray a Roman origin, the endings being all corruptions of the Latin *castra*, a camp. The familiar word "street" is simply *strata*, "paved;" and *coln*, in such a word as Lin*coln*, marks the centre of a Roman *colonia*, or "colony."

Scotland and Ireland.

10. It seems probable that during the Roman period in Britain the tribes of Picts inhabiting the lowlands of Scotland were at least partially Christianized. It is certain that the Christian religion was firmly established in Ireland, where its truths were first proclaimed by St. Patrick, a most eloquent, zealous, and apostolic missionary.

CHAPTER III.

CONQUEST AND SETTLEMENT OF BRITAIN.
449 to (about) 600 A.D.

Effects of Roman withdrawal.

1. The withdrawal of the Romans left Southern Britain in a state of great weakness and exposure. The Picts and Scots easily broke through the now unguarded walls, and with impunity ravaged far and wide. Pirates from the Danish and German coasts, no longer held in check by Roman

fleets, laid waste the eastern shores of the island with fire and sword.

German invaders.

2. We have now to describe the settlement in Britain of a race destined to impress a lasting character on her language, laws, and history. According to the most common tradition, the British, having appealed in vain for help to the Romans, who were then engaged in a life-or-death struggle with the terrible Attila, sought from one of their enemies protection against the other. Vortigern, a British prince or duke, overwhelmed by the Picts and Scots, implored the aid of a band of Germans, who, coming first as *allies*, determined to remain as *conquerors*. *Hengest* and *Horsa* are given as names of the leaders of the forces invited over by Vortigern. Some historians, rejecting altogether the story of a British invitation, consider that the tribes which conquered Britain were invaders, and nothing less, from the beginning. What is certain is that between the middle of the fifth and the beginning of the seventh century, the greater part of what is now called England was conquered and settled by Low Dutch tribes from the border lands of Germany and Scandinavia.

Different tribes.

3. The conquerors of Britain belonged to three different tribes or families—the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. The Jutes, coming from what is now the peninsula of Jutland in Denmark, though the first to land in Britain, were comparatively few in number. The Saxons, and the Angles or Engle—of whom the latter were the more numerous and powerful—came from the lower courses of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Rhine. The Angles ultimately gave their name to the whole of Southern Britain, *England* being but a shortened form of *Angle-land* or *Engle-land*. The Saxons have left a mark of their influence in such names as "Es*sex*" (East Saxons) and "Sus*sex*" (South Saxons). The tribes, collectively and generally, were spoken of by the native British as *Saxons*. This was not because the Saxons were more dreaded than the Angles, but in imitation of the Romans, who called the people dwelling on the shores of the German Ocean "Saxons," without distinction of tribe. This use of language was strengthened by the fact that the Angles were the last to enter Britain. First impressions are apt to be permanent, and to this day the Celtic people of Scotland habitually call an Englishman a *Saxon*.

Description of invaders.

4. The Jutes, Angles, and Saxons were essentially one race, and spoke a common language, the basis of our modern English. They were fierce warriors, enslaving those whom they overcame. They had never been subdued by Rome, and therefore had never felt the civilizing influence of her laws and her literature. Their religion was a rude paganism, involving the worship of the sun and the moon, as well as of other deities, such

as Woden, Thor, and Freya, whose names still live in our *Wednes*day, *Thurs*day, and *Fri*day. Their paradise was called "Walhalla," where they believed victorious warriors would have their reward in drinking oceans of ale from the skulls of conquered enemies.

5. The first permanent settlement of Germans was in 449, when a band of Jutes landed in Kent. The traditions of Hengest and Horsa, and of Vortigern, are connected with this landing. The Jutes also settled in the Isle of Wight and in part of Hampshire. In 476, the Saxons laid the foundations of the kingdom of Sussex. In 495, a still larger body landed in Hampshire, and, after a series of desperate conflicts, succeeded (519) in founding another Saxon kingdom, Wessex. Essex, the third Saxon kingdom, with London as its capital, dates from 527. About 547, the Angles made their appearance in the island, and became masters of two British states in the extreme north, Bernicia and Deira, separated from each other by a vast and trackless forest. Early in the seventh century, these Anglian colonies became united as the powerful kingdom of Northumbria. This included the territory north of the Humber as far as to the Firth of Forth. They founded also the kingdom of Mercia in the centre of the island; which in course of time came to include all the territory bounded by the Severn, the Thames, and the Humber.

Order of settlement.

6. The Britons made a stubborn resistance. Besides Wales, Cornwall, and Devon, they long retained in a state of partial independence a large district in the north-west, called *Cumbria*, including Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. A vivid picture of the British struggle for independent national existence is given in the legendary exploits of King Arthur of Wales and his famous "Knights of the Round Table."

British resistance.

7. The Saxon conquest extinguished Roman civilization in Britain; and throughout the conquered districts, where it did not exterminate the Celtic population, it reduced the people to a state little better than slavery. It is probable that of the Britons spared, the great majority were women. The few Celtic words which became incorporated into the language of the conquerors relate in most cases to domestic employments. Such are *darn*, *mop*, *flannel*. Within the subjugated area the institutions of Christianity seem to have completely disappeared. Paganism reigned supreme.

Results of conquest.

8. The seven kingdoms—Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, Northumbria, and Mercia—are sometimes called "the Heptarchy,"—rule of seven. This name is misleading, implying, as it does, a collective unity which never existed. There were at no time just seven independent kingdoms within established limits. Boundaries were continually shifting, and before Bernicia and Deira were consolidated into Northumbria, some of the above kingdoms had been virtually merged in others.

"The Heptarchy" a misnomer.

CHAPTER IV.

CHRISTIANIZATION OF THE INVADERS AND CONSOLIDATION OF THEIR KINGDOMS.—600 to 827 A.D.

1. The names of certain Kings, eight in all, who gained distinction either by conquest or by wise rule, are recorded in the Saxon Chronicles as *Bretwaldas*, "ruling chiefs," or, as some hold, "Wielders of Britain." Nothing of importance is known concerning the first two Kings who bore this title; but the third Bretwalda, Ethelbert of Kent, is celebrated as the first Christian King in Britain.

The Bretwaldas.

2. We have seen that the fierce paganism of the conquering Germans had remained unmodified by the Christianity of the subject race. But Ethelbert had married on the Continent a Christian Princess, Bertha, daughter of the King of Paris. At her instance Pope Gregory the Great despatched a band of forty missionaries in 597 to labor for the conversion of her husband and his subjects. At the head of the mission was Augustine, a learned and zealous monk, afterwards canonized as St. Austin. Augustine and his co-laborers met with a friendly reception. Ethelbert listened favorably to the new doctrines, and his conversion and baptism were followed by a rapid spread of Christianity among his people. Canterbury, the chief town of Kent, became naturally the central seat of Christianity in Britain, and Augustine was the first of its long line of archbishops.

Bertha and Augustine.

3. Ethelbert's nephew, Sebert, King of Essex, embraced the new religion, and London, his capital, was soon adorned with Christian churches. More important still, Ethelbert's son-in-law, Edwin of Northumbria, a ruler of great capacity, who figures in history as the fifth Bretwalda, also gave in his adhesion to Christianity; and Paulinus, one of the missionaries who landed with Augustine, became the first Archbishop of York. Edwin lives in history as the founder of Edinburgh (Edwinesburh), which perpetuates his name, and as promulgator of the first code of English laws.

Spread of Christianity.

4. The spread of Christianity was for a time checked by the exploits of Penda, King of Mercia, a bitter pagan. He defeated and slew the great Edwin of Northumbria in 633; and nine years later Edwin's successor, Oswald, the sixth Bretwalda, experienced a similar fate at the hands of this fierce chieftain. Penda himself was ultimately overthrown by Oswald's brother Oswy, the seventh Bretwalda, in 655.

Penda.

5. Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex were now the chief kingdoms, and for more than a century their Kings waged a ceaseless struggle for the supremacy. A King

Kingdoms reduced to three.

named Offa, who died in 796, raised Mercia to a high pitch of power; but after his death that kingdom rapidly declined in influence. Ina, who ruled over Wessex from 688 to 725, did much to strengthen the position of that state.

6. In 800 the throne of Wessex, which had for some time been occupied by usurpers, was filled by the recall from exile of Egbert, the lineal descendant of the great Ina. In 827 Egbert asserted his supremacy over Mercia, Kent, and Sussex; East Anglia and Northumbria acknowledged his sovereignty. Thus as King of Wessex and eighth Bretwalda, Egbert ruled over the whole land from the English Channel to the Firth of Forth—the first real King of England, though he was not called by that name. It should be noted that Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia were permitted to retain the privilege of electing Kings tributary to Egbert. **Egbert.**

CHAPTER V.

FROM THE UNION OF THE KINGDOMS TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF ALFRED THE GREAT.—827 to 901 A.D.

1. Egbert had acquired great capacity for government and war during his early manhood, which as an exile he had spent at the imperial court of Charlemagne. The closing years of his reign were disturbed by attacks made upon the English coasts by the Northmen or Danes. They came from Scandinavia, a name applied to the modern kingdoms of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. The Danes were essentially of the same race as the Saxons and the Angles; and, before the conversion of the latter to Christianity, were of the same religion. They were bold, fierce pirates, firmly attached to their national paganism, from which they regarded the English as apostates. Egbert gained a signal victory over a body of them that landed in Cornwall in 836, a short time before his death. **The Danes.**

2. For Egbert's immediate successors generally it is sufficient to refer to the genealogical table given on page 27. Of most of them but little can be said beyond that they were born, and reigned, and died. The Danes continued to give serious trouble by repeated landings, particularly on the east coast, where, in 871, they gained a firm footing by the defeat of Edmund, the tributary King of East Anglia. That prince's steadfast refusal to accept life as the reward of abjuring Christianity has gained for him the honor of canonization as saint and martyr. *Bury St. Edmunds*—a corruption of St. Edmundsburh, that is, "St. Edmund's Town"—commemorates the place of his death and burial. **Egbert's successors.**

3. We must pause at the name of Alfred, the fifth King from Egbert, and his grandson. This justly celebrated monarch succeeded to the throne of Wessex in 871. In early boyhood he had been sent by his father to Rome, where he was anointed by the Pope as future King of England. He began to reign with very gloomy prospects; but his name recalls one of the brightest pages in English history. Three of his brothers had died on the throne. Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria were under the control of the Danes, and the Saxon grasp on his paternal Wessex was by no means secure. Alfred boldly undertook the heavy task imposed on him—that of re-conquering his country.

Alfred.

4. For seven years, with varying success, he maintained a constant struggle with the Danish invaders. In 878, overpowered by numbers, he withdrew to a fortified retreat in the marshes of Sedgemoor, and calmly awaited an opportunity to strike effectively for his country's cause.

Alfred retires.

5. At length, in the summer of 878, the hour for decisive action arrived. Hearing that the Danes had received an unexpected check in Devonshire, Alfred suddenly emerged from his hiding-place, summoned to his standard his Wessex warriors, and with most skilful strategy so fell upon the Danes at Ethandune as to inflict upon them a most crushing defeat. He followed up his victory with a conciliatory policy. Guthrum, the Danish King, won by his kindness, embraced Christianity, and accepted terms offered by Alfred to the effect that the Danes should receive a certain portion of the country for permanent occupation.

The blow struck.

6. The district in which the Danes were thus permitted to dwell as the friends and allies of the English included Northumbria, East Anglia, and parts of Mercia and Essex, and was called *Danelagh*, the "community of the Danes." The Saxon or English population had been largely expelled from these regions during the previous wars, and Alfred's policy thus tended not only to make peace, but to build up his country. The settlement of so large a part of the country by Danes shows that there is a large element of Scandinavian blood in our English race. The presence of the Danish settlers may to a great extent be traced by towns and villages whose names end in *by*, as Der*by* and Whit*by*.

Danelagh.

7. From 878 to 893 the country enjoyed peace. Without delay Alfred proceeded to guard against future invasions by the construction of fleets and the organization of regular military forces. "During war laws are silent," is an old proverb, the truth of which Alfred's dominions had experienced. Embracing the opportunity of the peace, he re-established law and justice, and labored earnestly to disseminate knowledge among his people. Churches and monasteries destroyed during the war were rebuilt.

Peace.

Schools were established. A scholar himself, Alfred translated from the Latin for the benefit of his subjects the History of Bede and other valuable books. He also commenced an English version of the Bible. These good works have reared an imperishable monument to the great King's memory, and his fame does not require us to pay him fictitious honors, such as that of instituting trial by jury, or that of founding the University of Oxford.

8. In 893 the Danes renewed their attacks; but the masterly preparations of Alfred enabled him to meet them successfully both on land and on sea. He reigned eight years longer, dying in 901 at the age of fifty-two, after a reign of thirty years. He was buried at Winchester, the ancient capital of England.

Alfred's death.

CHAPTER VI.

EARLY ENGLISH KINGS FROM ALFRED TO THE DANISH CONQUEST.—901 to 1017 A.D.

1. Alfred the Great was succeeded by his son Edward, who was the first to assume the title of "King of England," his predecessors having styled themselves simply "Kings of Wessex," or "of the West Saxons." A cousin, Ethelwald, disputed Edward's claim to the throne, though that claim was sanctioned both by his father's will and by the decision of the Witenagemôt, or great National Council. Edward defeated the army of Ethelwald, composed in good part of Danes from the Danelagh, and reigned thereafter in peace until his death in 925.

Kings of England.

2. Brief mention will suffice for the Kings of the succeeding century. Their names and order of succession will be found in the genealogical table on page 27.—Athelstan, the second from Alfred, took a great interest in commerce, and showed his regard for religion by having the Bible translated into English and a copy placed in every church.—His successor, Edmund, experienced much trouble from the Danes of the Danelagh, more particularly from those of a certain district called the *Five Burghs*. He drove the Welsh from Cumberland, and died by the hands of an assassin in 946.—Edred, who succeeded, was largely under the influence of Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, a famous ecclesiastic, who labored zealously to restore monastic institutions, and promote what he conceived to be the true welfare of the clergy.—The reign of Edred's nephew and successor Edwy was brief and troubled. Edwy married his cousin Elgiva, contrary to ecclesiastical law, and thus incurred the displeasure of Dunstan, whom he proceeded to banish from the kingdom. A general revolt of the northern part of the

Brief sketch of reigns.

country was with difficulty suppressed. In 958 Archbishop Odo prevailed on Edwy to divorce Elgiva and send her out of England.

Sketch of reigns continued.

3. Edwy was succeeded by his brother Edgar, who reigned peacefully and prosperously for nearly twenty years.—His successor, Edward, is known in early English history as "the Martyr." He was assassinated in 979, at the instance of his heartless step-mother, Elfreda.—Elfreda's son Ethelred, for whom this cruel act gained the succession, was surnamed *the Unready*—a corruption of *Unraedig*, or counsel-lacking—because he persistently set aside the advice of his Earls, and acted according to his own will. A long and disastrous reign proved Ethelred to be worthy of his surname. Instead of bravely fighting the Danes, whom his weakness invited to the shores of England, he endeavored to buy them off; a disgraceful tax called the *Danegeld* being imposed to raise the necessary means. Successive fleets were thus induced to retire from the Humber and the Thames, only to return with a greedier thirst for gold.

Sweyn.

4. In 1002, in a sudden fit of madness, Ethelred resolved to exchange his temporizing policy towards the Danes for a course of outrageous cruelty. The Danes regularly settled in England were suddenly attacked and slain by thousands. Among those thus massacred was Gunhilda, sister of Swegen or Sweyn, King of Denmark. Gunhilda had been converted to Christianity, and was married to a prominent English noble. Burning with rage, the Danish King renewed his attacks upon England, allowing himself to be bought off for a time, only that he might thus equip a force strong enough to absolutely subdue the country. At length in 1013 he was ready to strike the decisive blow. He sailed up the Trent with a powerful fleet, and marching southward, swept all before him in his triumphant progress. The whole country soon made formal submission; but Sweyn died before he had time to establish himself in his new possessions.

Ethelred recalled.

5. Ethelred, who had fled to Normandy, was now recalled by the Witenagemôt, though Sweyn had bequeathed the succession to his son Canute. The latter retired peacefully to Denmark; whence, however, he soon returned on hearing that Ethelred had renewed his murderous attacks on the Danish settlements. At this juncture Ethelred died.

Edmund Ironside.

6. His eldest son Edmund, surnamed *Ironside*, claimed the succession. This claim was contested by Canute, and for seven months the rivals waged a bitter struggle for supremacy. Then a compromise was effected. It was agreed that Edmund should rule south and Canute north of the Thames. A month after, Edmund died, leaving Canute sole monarch of England.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DANISH KINGS.—1017 to 1041 A.D.

Canute.

1. The first step of Canute the Dane, who became King of England in 1017, was to make as secure as possible his position on the throne. The infant sons of Edmund Ironside were sent out of the kingdom. Edward and Alfred, the surviving sons of Ethelred, fled to Normandy; while their mother, Emma, Canute took to himself as wife and queen. Some time previous to his accession, Canute had embraced Christianity, and notwithstanding his harsh treatment of his stepsons, his reign generally was that of a wise and just sovereign. Many were the proofs which he gave of sincere attachment to his new faith. By his exertions Denmark, a part of his dominions, became a Christian country. In the more neglected parts of his English realm churches and monasteries rose in swift succession. It is said that he even undertook in person a journey to Rome, to obtain some special religious privileges for his subjects. He divided England into four great earldoms, two of which were ruled by Danes and two by Englishmen. By his mild policy he almost entirely removed the distinctions and ill-feeling which had kept apart the Saxon and the Danish inhabitants of England. In personal virtue and piety Canute ranked high. He impartially administered the English laws, and merited as well as received the reverence and attachment of his whole realm. He died in 1035.

Harold Harefoot.

2. Harold, surnamed *Harefoot*, a son of Canute by his first wife, who happened to be in England when his father died, immediately seized the throne. This was contrary to Canute's wish and to the stipulations of his marriage contract with Emma, by which the right of succession was conceded to her family. Godwin, Earl of Wessex, a powerful noble, immediately claimed the crown for Hardicanute, Canute's son by Emma. Ultimately the Witan divided the kingdom, assigning to Harold the country north of the Thames, and to Hardicanute the rest. Until Harold's death in 1040, Hardicanute remained in Denmark, being represented in England by Emma and Godwin. During Harold's reign, Alfred and Edward, Emma's sons by Ethelred, came over to England with, it was suspected, a design upon the kingdom. Edward returned to the Continent; but Alfred was seized by Harold's troops and conveyed to Ely, where, after being subjected to the shocking cruelty of having his eyes put out, he soon died.

Hardicanute.

3. Acceding to the throne in 1040, Hardicanute reigned but two years, dying (in 1042) in a fit of intoxication. His reign was as inglorious as it was brief. He dug up the corpse of the late King, beheaded it, and flung it into a ditch.

Heavy taxes were imposed, for the benefit, not of England, but of his Danish dominions. His death caused all England to give forth a sigh of relief.

CHAPTER VIII.

RESTORATION OF THE ENGLISH LINE. THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—1042 to 1066 A.D.

Edward the Confessor.

1. The nation, by this time tired of Danish rule, gladly recalled the English line in the person of Edward, second son of Ethelred the Unready, by Emma, afterwards the wife and then the widow of Canute. Strictly, the right of succession belonged to the children of Edmund Ironside; but the influence of Godwin secured the crown for Edward, who was acknowledged by the Witan and crowned at Winchester. Edward at once married Godwin's daughter Edith, and proceeded to deal sternly with all who had favored the Danes, confiscating the treasures of his mother Emma, and placing herself in a state of mild confinement for life. He abolished the Danegeld; and having revised the old English laws, he published them in a collected form, so that afterwards, in times of oppression, the people sighed for "the good old laws of Edward the Confessor." The title "Confessor," by which Edward is known in history, evinces his piety and the strictness with which his religious duties were performed.

Norman influence.

2. Brought up as an exile in Normandy, Edward the Confessor was in tastes and language a Frenchman. Hence it was natural that his Court should gradually become filled with Norman knights, and that his favors, both political and ecclesiastical, should be somewhat liberally showered upon Frenchmen. This state of things led to serious differences between the King and his father-in-law, Godwin, who stoutly espoused the cause of his own countrymen.

Banishment of Godwin.

3. At length Godwin flew into open rebellion when ordered by the King to punish the people of one of his towns for some alleged insults to the train of a Norman baron. Other English nobles interposed; and the matter having been referred to the Witan, that body banished Godwin and his sons, and confiscated their estates. The next year, however, saw Godwin sailing up the Thames with a large fleet, and meeting with such a welcome from the English nobility that the King was forced to accept terms of reconciliation. Godwin's estates were restored, and the English ascendency was re-established, many of the Norman barons and prelates leaving the kingdom. Godwin died in 1053, and was succeeded in his vast possessions by his son Harold.

4. Edward the Confessor was childless. His true heir was his nephew, Edward, son of his elder brother Edmund Ironside. That prince had been sent out of the kingdom when an infant by Canute, and had spent his life in Hungary. Having been recalled in 1056, at the age of forty, to take his true position as heir to the throne, he died a year after his arrival in England. His son Edgar, a mere child, was too young to assert his rights in presence of the powerful claimants who were awaiting the death of Edward the Confessor.

Edward the Confessor's heirs.

5. Harold, son of Godwin, was, after his father's death, and for the last twelve years of Edward's reign, practically governor of England. The power which he had inherited he increased by becoming the virtual ruler of Northumbria, as well as by great successes over the Welsh. He managed to acquire a remarkable influence over Edward's mind during his later years, while entirely concealing from him his own ambitious projects.

Harold.

6. Among the Continental nobles who at an earlier period had visited the English Court was William, Duke of Normandy. The presence around Edward, childless as he was, of so many stout barons from Normandy who acknowledged himself as their true liege-lord, suggested to William's mind the idea of becoming Edward's successor by their aid. This thought ripened into a purpose, and was carefully fostered. He afterwards based his claim on a direct promise or bequest by Edward, though no clear proof of such was ever given. Besides, it was quite beyond Edward's power to make a personal disposal of his crown. The Duke was prepared, too, to build much on an oath said to have been once taken by his rival Harold, when as a shipwrecked stranger he was in his power on the Continent. He had then sworn to exert all his influence in William's favor.

William of Normandy.

7. Early in 1066 Edward the Confessor died, and was buried in the famous abbey which he himself had built at Westminster. Harold was immediately elected by the Witenagemôt as his successor, and promptly issued an order that all Normans should leave the kingdom. This edict was in response to a summons from William to acknowledge his sovereignty, in terms of the Confessor's alleged promise and of Harold's own oath. The order for the expulsion of the Normans was accompanied by a distinct refusal from Harold to recognize the validity of the oath, on the ground that it had been exacted from him by force, and in defiance of the laws of hospitality. William at once prepared for invasion.

Rival claims.

8. Harold found that he had enemies nearer home. Soon after his accession, his brother Tostig, whom he had deposed from the earldom of Northumbria, landed in Yorkshire in alliance with Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, and

Battle of Stamford Bridge.

gained a speedy victory over the new Earl of Northumbria. Harold marched northward with decisive swiftness, and after a sharp struggle defeated and slew both Tostig and the Norwegian King at Stamford Bridge, in September 1066.

Landing of William.

9. Less than a week after the Battle of Stamford Bridge, William landed at Pevensey in Sussex. His army was sixty thousand strong, archers and horsemen. He took up a position at Hastings, where he awaited Harold's approach, contenting himself meanwhile with ravaging the surrounding country.

Harold's advance.

10. It probably would have been the part of wisdom for Harold to have taken time to collect all the forces within his reach. His brothers advised delay and a cautious policy. But following his own impulses he rapidly rushed southward, merely pausing at a few points to pick up the troops that offered themselves. Under the impression that he could take the Norman Duke unawares, he left London after a brief day's rest, with an army but partially reinforced and in a state of great exhaustion from the forced marches which it had made.

Battle of Hastings.

11. On October 14th, 1066, at Senlac, eight miles from Hastings, where he had taken up an entrenched position, Harold saw advancing against his worn and weary troops the steel-clad legions of Normandy —archers, infantry, and horse. He kept his men close behind the trenches and palisades, and awaited the onset with true English coolness. His own body-guard was composed of citizens of London, while the men of Kent stood immediately in front. The Norman archers advanced first, but they were powerless to move the sturdy lines. Then charged the famous Norman cavalry—mighty knights clad in steel from head to foot. Even these could make no impression on the English, who, under Harold and his brothers Gurth and Leofwin, smote down the advancing squadrons with their huge battle-axes. William, after restoring with great presence of mind his troops from a panic caused by a report of his death, resolved to try stratagem where force had failed. By an artful retreat he drew the English from their strong position, and thus exposed them to an attack by horsemen from every side. Even then it was with great difficulty that he succeeded in breaking through the line at a few points; and the result was still in doubt, when a well-aimed arrow pierced Harold to the brain, and placed victory within the reach of the Normans. A charge of Norman horse followed the fall of Harold, and swept away the brave remnant that surrounded and tried to protect the body of their King. The English standard was captured, and the consecrated banner sent to William by the Pope floated over the field of triumph.

12. The Witan, under the guidance of the remaining English nobles, elected the youthful Edgar, rightful heir to the throne, as successor of

the slain Harold. Such opposition counted for but little to a man like William. In a few days he had marched on London, scattered the forces collected to oppose him, and rendered all thoughts of resistance hopeless. **Resistance vain.**

13. Archbishop Stigand, Edgar himself, and the chief nobility, hastened to make submission to William, who, on Christmas Day, 1066, was crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey. **Coronation of William.**

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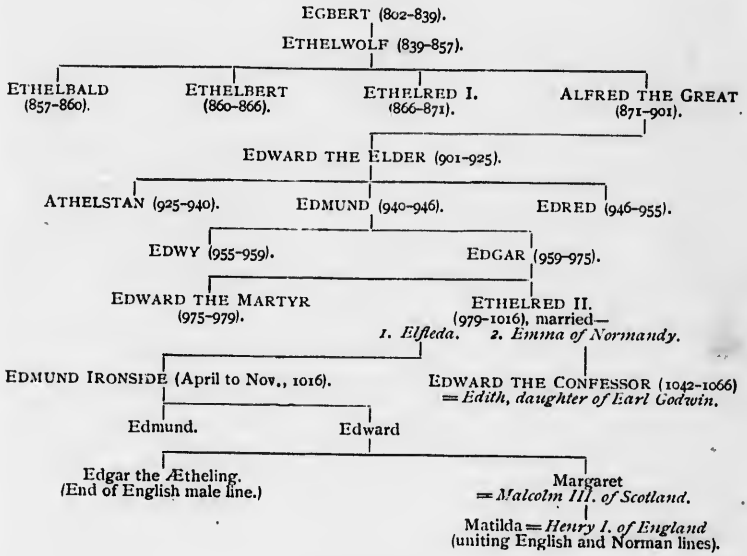
1. ENGLISH KINGS BEFORE THE CONQUEST.

SHOWING UNION OF SAXON AND NORMAN LINES.



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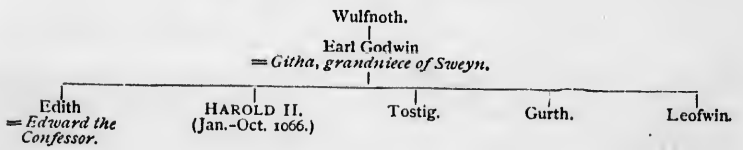
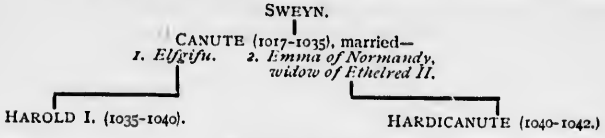
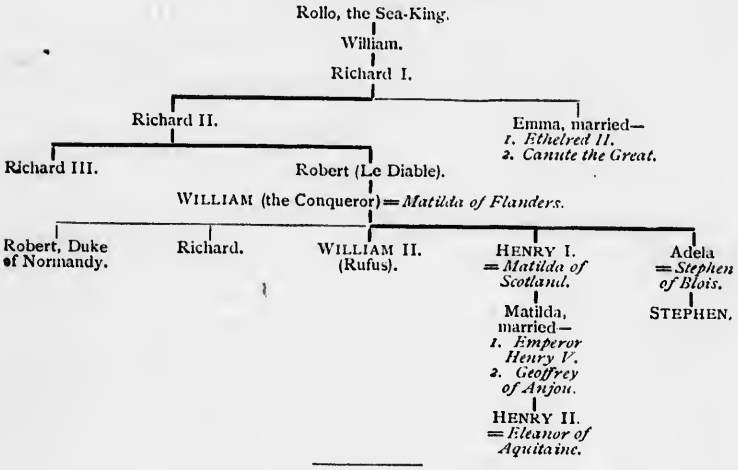
2. HOUSE OF GODWIN.



3. DANISH KINGS OF ENGLAND.



4. NORMAN LINE.



CHAPTER IX.

EARLY ENGLISH INSTITUTIONS AND CUSTOMS.

The King.

1. Succession to the kingly office was regulated, partly by descent, partly by election. There was a recognized royal family professing to trace its origin from the god Woden, but the nation, through its chief council, held itself free to choose from among the near male relatives of the deceased monarch the most suitable successor. Generally, a preference was admitted in favor of the eldest son. The sons and brothers of the King were called *Æthelings*, a title which originally was not restricted to members of the royal family.

Divisions of the people.

2. There were two grand divisions of the people, freemen and slaves. The latter, who were called *theowas*, were in some parts of the country quite numerous. Those who were slaves by birth were descendants of the conquered Celts, and were found in the greatest numbers in the districts adjacent to Wales and Cornwall. Freeborn Englishmen might incur slavery as a penalty

for debt or as a punishment for crime. Slaves often purchased their freedom; and the emancipation of a slave by his master was always lawful, and was, happily, not uncommon.

Classes of freemen.

3. Freemen were at first divided into two great classes, *eorls* or "earls," and *ceorls* or "churls;" or, as we might say, into "gentle" and "simple." The earl was the highest officer of the shire, commanding the militia and presiding over the courts of justice. In course of time an inferior order of nobility, called the *thanes*, came into great prominence. The thane was originally a freeman rendering military service to a superior and receiving his reward in a gift of land. At length the name was given to all who owned a certain quantity of land. Hence the origin of an hereditary nobility based on territorial possessions. The ceorls were the lowest order of freemen, living under the protection of a lord, whose land they cultivated. They were, however, capable of attaining to the ownership of soil; and the possession of the required amount of land raised them to the dignity of thanes. Eventually the ceorls developed into that independent yeomanry of whom England has had such just reason to be proud. The inhabitants of the towns were freemen, on a social equality with the ceorls.

The Witenagemôt.

4. The early English King was not a despot. His power to rule was limited by law and by usage. The highest expression of the nation's will was given through the supreme council, the *Witenagemôt*, or "assembly of wise men." This seems to have been at first a popular body, embracing the great mass of freemen; but attendance soon became restricted on most occasions to the earls, the higher thanes, and, after the introduction of Christianity, the archbishops, bishops, and abbots. It regularly met at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas, but held special sessions when required. Besides making laws, it served as the highest court of justice, elected or deposed the King, imposed taxes, and acted as the supreme arbiter of war and peace.

The Moots.

5. Beneath the Witenagemôt, justice was administered in three different classes of courts. Of these the lowest was the *Hall Moot* or *Mote*, corresponding to the township, or smallest division of land. It owes its name to the fact of its being held in the hall of the lord. The *Hundred Moot*, court of the hundred, or territorial division next above the township, was a representative body, each township sending its reeve and other delegates. In the *Shire Moot* or court of the county, all the thanes had a right to vote.

Methods of trial.

6. There were two peculiar methods by which persons arraigned as criminals could prove their innocence. By the first, the accused was expected to produce a certain number of persons, varying according to the nature of the crime, to

testify by oath their belief in his innocence. Those who thus swore were styled "Compurgators," and the system itself was called "Compurgation." The second method, termed "Ordeal," was never used except when the first had failed. It was supposed to be a direct appeal to God. The person accused was required to plunge his arm in boiling water, or to carry red-hot iron in his naked hand. If the injured member were not healed within a specified time, guilt was supposed to have been clearly proved. Christianity did much, at first to modify, and eventually to remove, these imperfect and cruel systems.

Habits of the early English.

7. The early English were a people "given to hospitality," excessively fond of "good cheer," and sometimes indulging even in gluttony and drunkenness. In matters of food and drink they desired abundance rather than delicacy. They had none of the Norman taste for fine houses and stately castles. The dwellings even of the wealthier thanes were plain, while those of the lower classes were squalid and uncomfortable. Outdoor sports received much attention. The early English were honorably distinguished for their love of music and poetry; nor did any other nation of the time excel them in the development of a native literature.

General progress of civilization.

8. Great changes took place between the landing of the Jutes and the Norman Conquest. Descriptions are sometimes given, which, while true as applied to the barbarous pagans that originally conquered Britain, do great injustice to the comparatively civilized people whom William and his barons found upon our shores.

CHAPTER X.

THE NORMAN LINE.—WILLIAM I. 1066 to 1087 A.D.

Claim to the throne.

1. William, though known in English history as the *Conqueror*, claimed the throne of England as lawful heir of Edward the Confessor. In this view, he took up arms, not to win a crown by conquest, but to maintain a title justly his. But as we have already seen, the succession belonged to the Norman Duke neither by natural right nor by English law. He was a foreigner, while Harold, whom he defeated and slew, was an Englishman of noble birth, duly chosen by the highest national authority to succeed the childless Confessor.

William's character.

2. The Conqueror united with great military skill uncommon political sagacity and foresight. He was not wantonly cruel, and his admirers claimed that he never shed blood unnecessarily. In his own province of Normandy, his rule is said to have been mild as well as wise. Still, he was ambitious;

and, as the English learned too well, in carrying out the purposes of his ambition, he shrank from no measure however stern. He was determined that no one but himself should be master.

Beginning of reign.

3. William's first care was to establish his authority. The celebrated Tower of London was begun. Winchester and other important points were strengthened. All real power was placed in the hands of the Norman barons. Yet, on the whole, the outlook for the native English was not unpromising. Their laws were renewed, and the charters of their chief towns were legally confirmed. Acting as lawful successor of Edward the Confessor, William claimed the right to confiscate the property of the English nobles and gentry who had taken sides with Harold; but at first this right was exercised with moderation, and most of the land was for the time left in the hands of its original owners.

Beginning of English outbreaks.

4. Early in 1067, six months after his coronation, William visited his native dominions, accompanied, not only by his own barons, but also by many of the chief English nobles and prelates. During his absence, the misgovernment of his regents, Fitz-Osbern, and Odo of Bayeux, his own half-brother, caused serious outbreaks in England, and hastened his return from Normandy.

The west subjugated.

5. On William's return he promptly suppressed the risings, which were chiefly confined to Kent and Hertfordshire. He then turned his attention to the west, which had not yet formally acknowledged his authority. Exeter was taken; and to guard against further trouble in that quarter, several large Norman earldoms were founded out of territory confiscated for the purpose.

Rebellion in the north.

6. In 1068, a formidable insurrection broke out in the north, under the leadership of the English Earls Edwin and Morcar. These had secured promises of aid from the Welsh, from the King of Denmark, and from Malcolm of Scotland, with whom the English heir to the throne, Edgar the Ætheling, had taken refuge. William soon relieved York, which the rebels had besieged, and was on his way homeward when tidings reached him of the arrival of a Danish fleet, and the recapture of York (1069). Retracing his steps, he was again victorious; York fell once more into his possession, and Edgar, with his followers, retreated precipitately into Scotland.

Terrible vengeance.

7. The next year, 1070, the King proceeded to inflict a terrible doom on the north of the country. Almost the whole of Yorkshire and Durham, a tract sixty miles in length, was converted by sword and fire into an unpeopled, barren waste. Seventy thousand persons are estimated to have perished. The depopulated district remained a desert for more than half a century. It is supposed that this cruel act was intended not merely to

gratify William's vengeance, but also to make the country less liable to incursions from Scotland. In the same year Malcolm married Edgar's sister, the English Princess Margaret.

Decisive measures.

8. William had now deliberately entered upon a new policy towards his English subjects. They were to be made to feel that they *were* his subjects, conquered and humiliated. No post of honor, influence, or trust was left in English hands. Means were taken to remove the chief ecclesiastical officers, from Archbishop Stigand downward. The English estates generally were confiscated, and were either granted to Norman barons or added to the King's own domain.

Final struggle.

9. The last stand for English freedom was made in the Isle of Ely, where an English warrior named Hereward for a time successfully defied the arms of the Conqueror. Overcome at length, the brave Englishman secured terms all the more favorable on account of his bold resistance. The northern Earls Edwin and Morcar, who took part in the rising, were less fortunate. Edwin was killed when on his way to Scotland. Morcar joined Hereward in the Isle of Ely, and was captured; and he spent his last days in a Norman prison. Edgar, the true heir to the crown, made formal submission to William, and was granted a pension on condition of leaving the kingdom.

Effects of the Conquest.

10. England was now conquered, 1071. The ownership of land and all official positions had passed over to the conquering race. Huge castles of stone rose in every part of the land. Norman influence prevailed everywhere, and the French language became the tongue of polite society, being the only one used in the Court, in the halls of justice, and in the seats of learning.

Forest laws.

11. The Norman love of hunting led William to enact very stringent forest laws, according to which any one who killed a stag without proper authority, was punished with blindness. To gratify his own fondness for the chase, he caused to be depopulated, and laid out as a hunting-park, an immense tract of land between Winchester and the sea, containing 90,000 acres, and still called *the New Forest.*

The Curfew.

12. The Normans established in England a regulation quite common at that time on the Continent, whereby, on the ringing of a bell, all lights had to be extinguished, in summer at sunset, and in winter at 8 P.M. As the houses were all wooden, and regular appliances for putting out fires were unknown, the curfew was simply a measure of wise precaution, and not, as many have supposed it, a proof of Norman oppression. *Curfew* is a corruption of *couvre-feu*, "fire-cover."

13. During William's later years he experienced much trouble from

the turbulence of some of his Norman nobles. In 1075, during his absence in Normandy, a plot called the *Bridal of Norwich* was suppressed by the prompt action of Lanfranc, the Norman prelate who succeeded Stigand as Archbishop of Canterbury. **Troubles.**

14. In 1078, the King's eldest son, Robert, on being refused the rule of Normandy, headed a revolt in that province. William besieged Robert in the Castle of Gerberoi, where it is said that father and son, both their visors being drawn, actually came into personal conflict. Eventually Robert was forced to ask for terms of reconciliation. The King's half-brother, Odo of Bayeux, also gave him much trouble. Odo was a bishop as well as a baron, and William on imprisoning him wittily said: "I seize not the Bishop of Bayeux, but the Earl of Kent" (1082). **Robert.**

15. In William's case, as in that of many others, as riches increased, so also did the desire for them. Until his death, he continued to amass treasures by confiscating the estates of noblemen and gentlemen who displeased him. We even find him seizing upon the report of a contemplated Danish invasion, as a pretext for reviving the odious Danegeld (1084). **Revival of Danegeld.**

16. In 1085, William ordered a general survey to be made of the landed property of the kingdom, as a guide for the imposition of taxes. The original record of this survey still exists. It is called *Domesday* Book, probably from *Domus Dei* ("the house of God"), the name of the chapel of Winchester Cathedral in which it was kept. It contains a description of every estate in the kingdom as far north as the Tees, with minute details as to ownership, different kinds of land, stock, mining and fishing privileges, etc. Domesday Book is of great historical value, and is a striking evidence of the thorough manner in which William caused public business to be transacted. **Domesday Book.**

17. William died in September 1087, near Rouen, in France, where he was carrying on war with Philip I., to whom he himself, as Duke of Normandy, owed feudal allegiance. The French King had jeered at William's corpulency, and perhaps also had interfered in the affairs of his dukedom. William's troops had captured and sacked Mantes, a small town on the Seine. As he was entering on horseback, his horse stumbled on the hot ashes, and inflicted on the rider an injury from which he never recovered. William had not been throughout life without a strong sense of religion, which increased in strength as death drew near. It is said that the recollection of his cruelties filled him with remorse, and that he gave proof of his penitence by many pious benefactions and charitable deeds. He founded Battle Abbey on the battle-field at Senlac. **The Conqueror's death.**

18. To his eldest son, Robert, the Conqueror bequeathed Normandy; to the second, William, England; and to the youngest, Henry, 5,000 lbs. of silver. The Channel Islands, a part of Normandy, remained attached to the Crown of England.

His sons.

CHAPTER XI.

THE NORMAN LINE CONTINUED.—WILLIAM II. 1087 to 1100 A.D.

1. William, surnamed *Rufus*, or "the Red," from the colour of his hair, hastily left his father's death-bed in France to secure in person the carrying out of the latter's wishes as to the succession. Landing in England, he at once asserted his claim, seized the royal treasures, and was crowned by Archbishop Lanfranc (September 1087) as rightful King of England.

William Rufus crowned.

2. William encountered strong opposition from the Norman barons, who generally sympathized with his eldest brother, Robert, as the proper successor of the Conqueror. Under the leadership of Odo of Bayeux, this opposition took the form of a direct attempt to dethrone Rufus. The King was able to maintain his position only by appealing to his native English subjects, and by promising to restore and respect their old laws and customs. The appeal was successful. The English rallied to his standard, and with their help the rebellion of the nobles was subdued. Odo was banished from the kingdom.

Odo's insurrection.

3. William Rufus was a bad king and a worse man. He but indifferently fulfilled the promises made to his English subjects, while to gain the indulgence of his passions he freely plundered both Church and State. The excellent Lanfranc held him in check, but the death of that prelate in 1089 freed him from restraint. For four years he allowed the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury to remain vacant. The revenues, as well as those of other vacant sees, were appropriated to his own use. In 1093, Anselm, a learned and godly Italian, accepted with great reluctance the primacy, as successor to Lanfranc. Finding it necessary to engage in constant quarrels with William, in defence of the rights of the Church, he withdrew from England in 1097.

Character of William.

4. In 1090, William invaded Normandy, but a compromise between Robert and himself was effected, under which it was agreed that if either should die childless, the survivor should inherit both Normandy and England. On his return in 1091, the King led an army against Malcolm of Scotland, who had invaded England in his absence. Malcolm was compelled to submit, and to do homage for Cumberland;

Invasions of Normandy and Scotland.

and in the following year that province, which had belonged to Scotland for more than a century, was made an English county.

5. The year 1096 is memorable as the date of the first of the *Crusades*. The Crusades were expeditions from Europe to Palestine for the purpose of recovering Jerusalem and the Holy Sepulchre from the dominion of the Saracens, or Mohammedan infidels. A zealous monk, named *Peter the Hermit*, travelled through Europe and aroused great enthusiasm by his preaching on behalf of the Crusades. Among those who listened to Peter and were moved to join the Crusade was Robert, Duke of Normandy.

The Crusades.

6. Money was needed that Robert might take his proper place in the great expedition. Recourse was had to Rufus, who offered to advance 10,000 marks* on the security of the duchies of Normandy and Maine, Robert's possessions. These territories were therefore mortgaged to William, who proved by no means a mild creditor. He virtually became master of Normandy and Maine.

Mortgage of Normandy.

7. William spent the 2nd of August, 1100, hunting in the New Forest. At nightfall, his body was found cold and dead upon the sward, pierced to the heart by an arrow. The common tradition is that the King was accidentally shot by a French gentleman named *Walter Tyrrel*. A horrible rumor prevailed that William's youngest brother, who was hunting in the forest that day, had something to do with the event. There is, however, no evidence to fasten on Prince Henry the guilt of his brother's murder. The corpse of Rufus was carried in a charcoal-burner's cart to Winchester, and was interred there without any religious ceremonies. A love of architecture was one of William's few redeeming traits, and England owes to him the magnificent Hall at Westminster, which now forms the grand entrance-way to the House of Commons.

Death of William Rufus.

CHAPTER XII.

THE NORMAN LINE CONTINUED.—HENRY I. 1100 to 1135 A.D.

1. By natural right, as well as by the agreement mentioned in the last chapter, William Rufus's successor should have been Robert, Duke of Normandy. The Duke, however, was far off on the crusade, while his youngest brother Henry, a most ambitious and determined prince, was on the spot ready to prosecute his claims in person. Within three days after William's death the royal treasures had been seized, and Henry crowned at Westminster as King of England, August, 1100.

Accession of Henry I.

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* A mark was = 13s. 4d. English currency.

2. Henry, who was surnamed *Beauclerc* ("fine scholar") from his scholarship and his generous devotion to literature, inherited much of his father's ability and decision of character. He was fond of power, and not always very scrupulous as to the means by which he carried out his ends. Though his personal habits were not altogether irreproachable, he lived a purer life than his brother William. It must always be mentioned to his praise that he labored hard to promote the spread of knowledge among his subjects; and that, while he was a stern ruler, the laws enacted for the protection of the common people were faithfully administered.

Beauclerc.

3. Aware that his claim to the crown was liable to be disputed, and that many of the barons were friendly to Robert, Henry began his reign by issuing a "Charter of Liberties." This was designed to secure the favor of his English subjects, who were promised relief from all oppressive exactions such as the Danegeld, together with the restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. Carrying out the same policy, Henry married Matilda, or Maud, daughter of Malcolm, King of Scotland, and niece of Edgar the Ætheling. The marriage united the royal lines of Normandy and England, and tended to increase Henry's popularity with the English people.

Henry's first acts.

4. Robert soon returned from the Crusade, and, encouraged by his partisans among the Norman nobles in England, determined to strike for the throne. He landed at Portsmouth, in July 1101. Through the mediation of Anselm, who had resumed his position as Primate of England, war between the brothers was prevented, Robert accepting a yearly payment of 3,000 marks as the price of his withdrawal. It was also agreed that if either brother should die childless the survivor should reign over both England and Normandy.

Appearance of Robert.

5. In 1105 Henry invaded Normandy, under various pretexts, of which the principal was the misrule of his brother. He defeated Robert at Tenchebrai, in September 1106. Normandy was added to the English dominions. The unfortunate Robert was taken prisoner, and consigned to a life-long captivity in Cardiff Castle, where he died in 1136.

Battle of Tenchebrai.

6. The Norman Kings had claimed and exercised two rights known as *investiture* and *homage*. The former, which consisted in presenting to a prelate on his induction the ring and crozier, was the legal method of giving title to the lands and revenues of the see. "Homage" was demanded of the bishops in token of their submission to the King as supreme lord of their landed possessions. Anselm, in the interest of the independence of the Church, refused to do homage to Henry and to consecrate bishops invested by him. At length, when the King consented to

Dispute with Anselm.

yield the right of investiture, Anselm agreed to waive his objection to homage.

7. In 1120 Henry experienced a heavy blow in the death of his only son, Prince William, then in the eighteenth year of his age. The young Prince was returning from Normandy in a vessel called the *White Ship*. By bad steering, caused it is supposed by hard drinking among the crew, the *White Ship* was wrecked in the Race of Alderney, only one man being "left to tell the tale." The Prince, with the courage of his race, sacrificed his own life in brotherly efforts to save that of his half-sister, the Countess of Perche. It is said that Henry never smiled again after receiving the sad news that he was left without a son to succeed him on the throne.

Death of Prince William.

8. The nation was now threatened with the dangers of a disputed succession. Two years before Prince William's death, Henry had lost his amiable and virtuous queen Matilda, called by the English "Good Queen Maud." His subsequent union with Adelais of Louvain proving childless, he determined to secure the succession for his daughter Maud, widow of the German Emperor, Henry V. Though the reign of a woman was contrary to both Norman and English precedent, Henry was able to obtain from the barons thrice-repeated oaths of fealty to his daughter, and a general consent to her succession from the whole nation. In 1127 he caused the future Queen to be given in marriage to Geoffrey Plantagenet, eldest son of the Count of Anjou. Anjou was contiguous to Henry's province of Maine, and this marriage was designed to turn a possible enemy into a powerful friend.

Maud.

9. Henry died in 1135, while on a visit to Normandy. His death is said to have been caused by eating too heartily of lampreys. His daughter Maud was left by his will heir to both England and Normandy.

CHAPTER XIII.

NORMAN LINE CONTINUED.—STEPHEN. 1135 to 1154 A.D.

1. Among the powerful Norman nobles who had surrounded Henry, and had sworn fealty to his daughter Maud, was his nephew Stephen, Earl of Blois, son of the Conqueror's daughter Adela. Stephen had received many favors from his uncle, in the shape of lands, castles, and honors, while his brother Henry had been created Bishop of Winchester. He was a knight of manly bearing, having much in his personal accomplishments to attract the Norman nobles, to whom the prospect of being ruled over by a woman was anything but pleasing.

Stephen, Earl of Blois.

2. Hastily taking part in the ceremony of the late King's interment, Stephen lost no time in having himself proclaimed as his successor. The fact that the usurper was the nearest *male* heir to the throne weighed much with the barons; while his brother, the Bishop of Winchester, exerted a powerful influence in gaining the favor of the clergy. Normandy soon followed England in acknowledging Stephen as Henry's successor.

Stephen seizes the crown.

3. The possession of the royal treasures enabled Stephen to confirm his grasp of the sceptre by dispensing generous gifts. He followed his predecessors in issuing a charter full of encouraging promises. The clergy were to be protected in their ecclesiastical rights and privileges, the common people to enjoy a larger liberty, and the nobles to be permitted to erect and fortify castles freely on their own estates. This last concession proved in the end a great curse to the country. It enabled the barons to establish little kingdoms of their own, and thus prevented the spread of universal law and order.

He strengthens his position.

4. Maud's uncle, David I. of Scotland, was the first to espouse her cause. Having thrice ravaged Northumberland, which he claimed by right of his wife, Matilda, heiress of the Earl of Northumberland, he advanced in 1138 into Yorkshire, where he was met by a large army raised and equipped by the northern barons. At Northallerton was fought what is known in history as the *Battle of the Standard*. The name is derived from the consecrated banners, floating from a lofty mast, under which and around which the English marched against their foes. The undisciplined Scots could not resist the onset, fired as it was by the inspiration of religious zeal. David was decisively defeated, losing twelve thousand of his men. Northumberland was, however, conferred on David's son, Prince Henry.

Battle of the Standard.

5. The next year, Maud herself landed in England with a small band of knights, and, aided by her half-brother, Robert, Earl of Gloucester, tried to retake the crown that had been wrested from her by force. Meantime Stephen's policy of allowing the nobles to build castles had begun to bear bitter fruit. Shut up in their own strongholds, many of the barons bade defiance to law. But Stephen acted with great imprudence in his efforts to check the evil. He deprived of their castles the bishops of Salisbury and Lincoln, against whom no complaint was urged, and thus embroiled himself in a quarrel with the clergy, in which his own brother Henry strongly opposed him.

Evil times.

6. A dreary period of civil war followed. The fighting was done chiefly by mercenaries, the barons, secure in their strongholds, taking little part in it. At length, in 1141, Stephen

Civil War.

was defeated and captured at the Battle of Lincoln, and Maud came into possession of the crown.

Maud fails.

7. The Queen was unable to retain the advantage she had won. She refused to recognize the old English laws, and to release Stephen on terms which would have been very advantageous to herself. She also alienated the clergy, and Stephen's brother Henry was again arrayed against her. His influence moved the people of London in the captive King's behalf. Robert of Gloucester, the chief reliance of Maud, was captured. In a few months, by an exchange for Robert, Stephen was released, and the war with all its horrors was renewed, 1141.

Maud retires to Normandy.

8. Maud managed to maintain a doubtful foothold in England for a number of years. At the end of the first year after the renewal of hostilities, Stephen obliged her to evacuate Oxford. Thence she betook herself to the western part of the kingdom, where with a band of trusty followers she remained until 1148, when she retired to Normandy.

Prince Henry.

9. By this time her son, Prince Henry of Anjou, was approaching manhood, and was already one of the most powerful territorial rulers on the Continent. Maud had relinquished Normandy in his behalf. He had already succeeded to his paternal domain of Anjou and Maine. By marriage with Eleanor of France he had acquired Guienne, Poitou, and Aquitaine. Moreover, Henry had powers of intellect and will which did much to strengthen the influence gained by such large possessions.

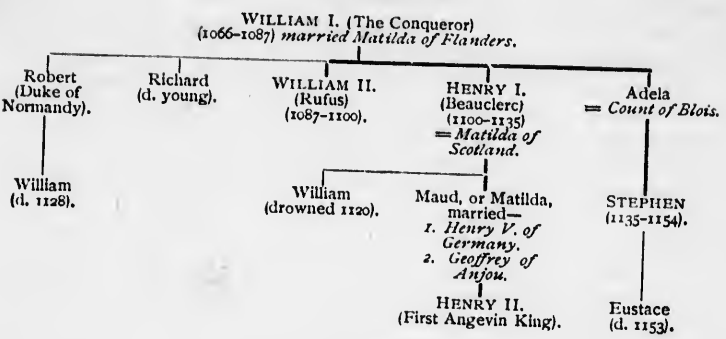
Henry invades England.

10. In 1153 Henry invaded England, in vindication of his mother's rights and his own. A short time before, the death of his son, Prince Eustace, left Stephen without an heir. This prepared the way for an arrangement by which the kingdom was happily saved from the renewal of civil strife. Henry consented that Stephen should occupy the throne for the term of his natural life, on the acknowledgment of his own right to the succession.

Stephen's death.

11. A year afterwards (1154), Stephen died. In itself, the ambition which prompted him to aspire to the throne is not surprising. He was not only the most powerful of the Norman barons, but he was also the direct male representative of the Conqueror's line. Apart from his usurpation, which involved the violation of his oath of fealty to Maud, his personal character stood high. In both prowess and politeness he was a model of Norman chivalry. His reign, however, with its fourteen years of civil strife and bloodshed, was a blank in English History, so far as industrial and intellectual progress was concerned.

NORMAN LINE.



CHAPTER XIV.

GOVERNMENT AND SOCIETY UNDER THE NORMAN KINGS.

Feudal System.

1. One of the chief results of the Norman Conquest was the introduction of the *Feudal System* into England. That system was a mode of land tenure largely established throughout Western Europe. The term *feudal* is derived from *feud*, a piece of land given as a reward or "fee" for military service, such land being held by the tenant on condition of rendering such service when required. He who granted the land was called *suzerain*, or "lord;" the tenant was known as *vassal*, or "man;" while the land itself was termed a *fief*. The King was regarded as the ultimate owner of the soil, and those who held directly from him were called "tenants-in-chief." These often sublet their lands to other tenants, on condition of receiving service similar to that which they themselves owed to the King. As the process of subletting could be carried still further down, the different relations of the same person as lord and vassal often became curiously confused. As Duke of Normandy, the King of England was a vassal of the King of France. When Lothian was transferred to Scotland, the Kings of Scotland became vassals of the Kings of England in respect of that district.

Homage.

2. A vassal acknowledged submission to his lord by a ceremony called *homage* (from *homo*, "a man," because by the act he declared himself to be his lord's "man"). On the Continent, homage was rendered only to the feudal lord from whom the vassal directly held his lands. This tended to increase the power of the barons, by making them, in respect to the service of their tenants, independent of their supreme lord. The Conqueror, on establishing his rule in England, wisely decreed that every tenant, however low in

the scale, should do homage and swear fealty, not only to his immediate over-lord, but also directly to himself as the sovereign proprietor of the soil. This gave him control over the entire military service of the kingdom, and prevented the building up in England, as on the Continent, of independent baronies.

3. The introduction of feudalism lowered the condition of the English thanes. From a position of independence they sank to one of dependence on the greater barons, who held their land directly from the King. They were known among the Normans as *franklins*. The ceorls likewise experienced degradation. They became a sort of fixed chattel, attached to land which they cultivated for the owner. They were called *villeins*, that is, serfs attached to a *villa* or farm. On the other hand, feudalism set in operation influences which tended to improve the condition of the English *thrall*, or slave.

Franklins and Villeins.

4. Closely connected with feudalism was *chivalry*. This term, derived from the French *cheval*, "a horse," included everything appertaining to the order of knighthood. A knight was a trained soldier, who on enrolment in his order took certain vows of devotion to religion, kindness and courtesy to the weak, chivalrous deference to woman, and fidelity to his companions. Knighthood presupposed a regular process of training. The future knight was first a *page* attached to the house of a great noble. Then he became an *esquire*, ready for the martial fray. The golden spurs of the order of knighthood marked the full development of the system. The *tournament* or *joust*, in which steel-clad knights sought to unhorse each other by dexterous thrusts of the long, quivering spear, was the favorite sport of the Norman nobles.

Chivalry.

5. The Norman Conquest caused the English Witenagemôt to give place to a Norman council, variously called *Commune Concilium Regni*, *Aula Regis*, and *Curia Regis*, "the King's Court." The King's Court was attended by the archbishops, the bishops, the chief abbots, and the greater barons. It met, like the Witan, at the great festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. Though not a representative body, it had a check on the King's power to levy on the tenants of the Crown. There was another body called by the same name, *Curia* (or *Aula*) *Regis*, which aided the King in the direct administration of affairs. This consisted of the great officers of State—the chief justiciary, the chancellor, the treasurer, the marshal, the chamberlain, etc.

The King's Court.

6. For some time under Norman rule the old English mode of trial by "compurgation" was retained. Ordeal, however, was soon replaced by trial by "combat," or "wager of battle." The result of a duel was absurdly supposed to settle satisfactorily the question at issue between accuser and accused.

Modes of trial.

Gradually, methods of trial more akin to justice and reason were introduced.

Architecture.

7. The Normans brought into England a style of architecture much superior to that which had previously prevailed. From this period many splendid cathedrals and abbeys date their origin. The castles, too, of the nobles were elaborate structures—strong, massive, and imposing. They were at once fortresses and houses. Between the upper court and the lower was the *keep*, where the baron and his family lived in lordly style: below all was the *donjon* or prison. The houses of the common people showed little improvement over those of the preceding period.

Norman refinement.

8. The Normans ("Northmen") were closely allied in race to the English whom they had conquered. They were descendants of a band of northern sea-rovers, who at an early period subdued and colonized the north-western part of France. These fierce freebooters, when brought into contact with Roman civilization in their new home, laid aside their own national speech and customs, and adopted the language, laws, and religion of the people whom they had subjugated. Thus in process of time they became one of the most refined and cultured races in Europe. In matters of dress and diet, they introduced into England new and greatly improved standards of taste and delicacy.

Language.

9. As rulers of England, the Normans naturally brought their language, the so-called Norman-French, into use in the schools, the courts, the church, as well as in their own palaces. Though unable permanently to supplant the Anglo-Saxon tongue spoken by the English people, Norman-French has left its mark on our national speech. This is seen particularly in words connected with field-sports, legal matters, and military affairs.

Mingling of races.

10. For a considerable time the two races in England remained essentially distinct. The first signs of intermixture appeared in the towns and among the middle-class folk generally. To this day, the nobleman boasts of his Norman blood, while the peasantry are regarded as purely English.

CHAPTER XV.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—HENRY II. 1154 to 1189 A.D.

1. The accession of Henry of Anjou was welcomed by the entire nation, with the exception of a few personal adherents of the late monarch. Even these gave no outward signs of dissatisfaction.

Henry is known in English history as first of the *Plantagenets*. The crest of the Anjou line was a sprig of Spanish broom, called in Latin, *planta genista;* in French, *planta genêt*. Hence the family surname.

The Plantagenets.

2. Henry was crowned at Westminster in December 1154. Though but twenty-one years of age, he had already given conspicuous proofs of governing ability. His intellect was clear, and his will strong. His ambition was tempered by caution. He generally ruled with prudence and impartiality, though an ungovernable temper sometimes led him to commit acts which no one can defend. Unfortunately, too, his word could not be relied on, when truth would seem to be opposed to his own interests.

Character of Henry.

3. Though a feudal vassal of the King of France, Henry, even before he became King of England, was a more powerful ruler than his liege-lord. The French provinces then under his control have already been mentioned. To these he afterwards added Nantes and Brittany, making himself master of more than a third of France.

His possessions.

4. The new King at once sought to reform the abuses which had grown up during the civil war. The Earl of Leicester, an able man, was appointed chief justiciary, and was endowed with ample powers. All mercenary troops were sent out of the kingdom. More than a thousand castles, which had enabled powerful nobles to bid defiance to law and order, were dismantled. The coinage of the realm was promptly restored to a state of purity, and strenuous efforts were made to revive industry and commerce.

Reform of abuses.

5. A year after Henry's accession, the office of chancellor was conferred on Thomas Becket, Archdeacon of Canterbury. The new Chancellor was one of the most remarkable men of his time. By severe study at Oxford, Paris, and Bologna, he had made himself master of both civil and ecclesiastical law. He possessed excellent natural abilities, while travel and society had imparted a marvellous ease and polish to his manners. In Becket the King found a powerful aid in his efforts to reform abuses.

Thomas Becket.

6. In 1161, the death of the aged Theobald, a saintly prelate who had in Stephen's reign been banished for his fidelity to the cause of Maud, left vacant the see of Canterbury. A year after, Becket was appointed as Theobald's successor. Foreseeing difficulties between the Church and the King, he accepted the position with reluctance. As Chancellor he had lived in a style of great splendor. Treasures and estates had been lavished on him with a profusion which enabled him to vie with the King himself in display. But with his new dignity all was changed. His habits became as simple and austere as they had been showy and extravagant. He released him-

Becket an archbishop.

self from all secular pursuits, laboriously devoted himself to the duties of his sacred office, and set a worthy example of pious zeal to all the clergy of the kingdom.

Disputes between King and clergy.

7. Meantime the King had resolved to reduce the power of the ecclesiastical or spiritual courts. No member of the clerical order could be brought to trial before a civil court; and as the spiritual courts could not inflict the punishment of death, Henry claimed that, as compared with laymen, clergymen accused of capital offences were unduly privileged. The bishops and clergy, on the other hand, maintained the right of being tried by members of their own orders; and to Henry's surprise, his new Archbishop placed himself at the head of his opponents.

Constitutions of Clarendon.

8. Soon a case occurred in which it was alleged that a spiritual court had dealt too leniently with an offender. Henry determined to strike a decisive blow. He demanded from each bishop an explicit answer to the question: "Will you observe the ancient customs of the realm?" They answered cautiously, "Yes, saving the privileges of our own order." The King could not have reasonably expected any other response; but his temper was aroused, and he at once summoned a great council of prelates and barons to deal with the question. This met at Clarendon in Wiltshire, in January 1164. Sixteen articles, since known as *the Constitutions of Clarendon*, were submitted and agreed to. They professed to be "ancient customs," but some of them certainly bore the aspect of innovations. Their general effect was to limit the power of the clergy. Indirectly all clergymen accused of crime were brought under the jurisdiction of the ordinary civil courts.

Becket appeals to the Pope.

9. At the Council of Clarendon, Becket seemed to yield to the King's wishes. Soon afterward, however, on reflection, he repented of his compliance, abjured his promise to obey the *Constitutions*, referred the matter to the Pope, and craved forgiveness for having weakly yielded up the rights of the Church. Henry at once confiscated the Archbishop's estates, called upon him to return many of his own former gifts, and generally treated him with such harshness that he was obliged to flee to France, where he spent six years in exile. At length, through the good offices of Pope Alexander III., a reconciliation was effected between the King and Becket, and the latter returned to his post at Canterbury.

Death of Becket.

10. Shortly before Becket's return, the Archbishop of York and several of the bishops had given ecclesiastical offence by the coronation of Prince Henry, the King's eldest son, who was thus designated as Vice-roy, or King-associate. This act was condemned as a usurpation of Becket's function.

Sentences of suspension were pronounced against the offending prelates, and to announce these was Becket's first act after his return to Canterbury. The King's wrath burst out afresh, and he hastily exclaimed among his courtiers in Normandy, "Will none of the cowards I have brought up at court free me from this turbulent priest?" These were but the hot and hasty words of sudden anger, but, alas! they fell on willing ears. Four knights, whose names have been carefully preserved, Reginald Fitz-urse, William Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brits, bound themselves to repair to England and literally fulfil the King's request. Reaching Canterbury, they entered the palace and demanded of Becket a prompt suspension of the sentences against his brother prelates. When the Archbishop firmly refused, the knights retired to arm themselves for the deed of violence. Meanwhile Becket's attendants had conveyed him to the cathedral, where vespers were being performed. The first efforts of the murderers were directed to the dragging of their victim from the sacred edifice; but these having failed, they did not hesitate to stain the very altar with his blood. Becket died with martyr-like courage, repeating, as he awaited the third blow, which was to sever head from body, the immortal words, "Into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit." The character of Becket has been variously drawn, according to the religious bias of historians; but none can deny him the praise of personal virtue, of extraordinary fidelity to his convictions, and of an heroic death. Henry was naturally shocked beyond measure when the terrible tidings reached him. He despatched an envoy to the Pope, to assure the Pontiff at once of his innocence and his sorrow. As years rolled on, the load of his grief became heavier, until at last he visited the martyr's shrine in person, and there made public expiation for his hasty words.

Conquest of Ireland.

11. The annexation of Ireland to the English Crown took place shortly after the death of Becket. In the year 1171 the King landed on that island with a large army, and at once received the formal submission of the Irish chieftains. Henry based his claim to the sovereignty of Ireland on a grant conveyed to him in 1156 by Pope Adrian IV., the only Englishman who ever filled the Papal See. This decree, or *bull*, has been generally accepted as an authentic document, though some modern historians regard it as an invention to give color to Henry's usurpation. Ireland was at the time of Henry's invasion divided into five principal states or kingdoms: Leinster, Ulster, Munster, Connaught, and Meath. The King of Leinster, *Diarmaid*, or Dermot, having been expelled for carrying off the wife of another chieftain, had sought help from Henry, who granted a general license to his barons to espouse the cause of Dermot. Some earlier adventurers were followed in 1170 by Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, who captured Dublin, and by marrying Dermot's daughter Eva, succeeded him as King of Leinster.

The growing power of Pembroke, who is better known by his surname of *Strongbow*, induced Henry to assert his own superior authority. Strongbow did homage with the other chieftains. In 1172 Henry returned to Normandy, leaving Ireland nominally annexed to England, but with the power of the native rulers practically unbroken.

12. Henry's numerous possessions and his large family made the division of his dominions a matter of much difficulty. He arranged that on his death, his eldest son, Henry, should have England, Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; to his second son, Richard, he assigned Guienne and Poitou; Geoffrey, the third, was to have Brittany; while Ireland was reserved as the patrimony of John, his youngest son. As Ireland was still in the hands of its native rulers, John received the not inappropriate surname of *Sansterre*, or "Lack-land."

Henry's sons.

13. In his later years Henry suffered much annoyance from the unfilial conduct of his sons. The elder Princes, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey, demanded immediate possession of their shares of the paternal dominions; and, when their requests were refused, they fled to France. Their mother, Queen Eleanor, whose affection the King had estranged by his cruel and licentious conduct, sided with the Princes. The King of France also took up the cause of Prince Henry, who was his son-in-law. The opportunity was embraced by William the Lion, King of Scotland, to attack England from the north.

Rebellion of his sons.

14. Henry proved more than a match for all his opponents. His sons were soon compelled to submit. In passing from Normandy to Scotland, the King paused at the tomb of Saint Thomas at Canterbury, and performed the acts of penance to which we have previously alluded. On the following morning he received the welcome tidings that the Scottish King had been defeated and captured at Alnwick. William was compelled to yield the northern fortresses in his possession, and to perform an act of formal homage.

The King victorious.

15. In 1183 the Princes renewed hostilities against their father. These, however, were suspended by the death of Prince Henry the same year. In 1186 Geoffrey was killed in a tournament. In 1188 Richard, supported by Philip Augustus, King of France, obliged his father to sue for peace, and acknowledge his right to the succession.

Troubles renewed.

16. On finding that his youngest and favorite son John had shared with Richard in the guilt of rebellion, Henry experienced a shock from which he never recovered. He gave full vent to his rage and disappointment, and the violence of his excitement brought on an attack of illness from which he died in July 1189, in the fifty-eighth year of his age.

Death of Henry II.

17. Despite the numerous troubles of his reign, Henry did much to advance the progress of his people. To provide for the proper dispensing of justice, the country was divided into six circuits, through which judges travelled at stated periods. Trial by ordeal and wager of battle were discouraged, and a method involving the principle of our modern jury system came into use. Cases were submitted to the decision of four knights and twelve freemen; who, however, unlike *our* jurymen, decided according to their own knowledge, rather than on the testimony of others. In general, it may be said that Henry's administration of affairs was in the interest of the common people, as distinguished from that of the barons.

Social progress.

CHAPTER XVI.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—RICHARD I. 1189 to 1199 A.D.

1. Richard, the eldest surviving son of Henry I., was crowned at Westminster in September 1189. The new King was a bold feudal soldier, whose whole nature was inflamed with the love of military glory. Hence he was called *Cœur de Lion*, "the lion-hearted." His passion for war kept him continually abroad, and his subjects knew little of him save through his repeated demands for money to support his military enterprises.

Cœur de Lion.

2. A terrible massacre of the Jews marred the occasion of Richard's coronation. Anxious to secure the King's protection for their persons and property, a number of those unfortunate people presented themselves to give assurance of their loyalty. A wild rumor, from some uncertain source, spread abroad that the King had ordered the destruction of Jews wherever found, and before the fury of the populace could be restrained, many were actually slain. A still more melancholy tragedy occurred in the burning of York Castle, when nearly five hundred Jews who had fled thither for refuge perished in the flames.

The Jews.

3. Before his father's death, Richard had planned to accompany Philip Augustus of France on the Third Crusade. On his accession, he at once proceeded to raise the necessary funds for the expedition. His father had left a well-filled treasury, and he obtained further sums by the sale of lands in possession of the Crown. The King of Scotland paid a handsome price for release from vassalage; while the Jews, then as now the bankers of Europe, were glad to buy for themselves freedom from further trouble. Richard sailed from Southampton late in 1189, leaving the bishops of Durham and Ely guardians of the kingdom. He met his ally Philip

The Third Crusade.

Augustus at Vezelay, in Burgundy, on the 29th of June 1190. Their united forces amounted to one hundred thousand men. They agreed to meet at Messina in Sicily, toward which place each took a different route.

4. The allied Kings spent the winter at Messina, not without serious quarrels. Richard was under engagement to marry Philip's sister, but having become deeply attached to Berengaria, Princess of Navarre, he repudiated the contract. Other matters increased the disagreement, which, however, was finally settled, and in the spring the Crusaders renewed their expedition. Philip proceeded at once to Palestine; Richard delayed in order to subdue Cyprus, the ruler of which had on a former occasion been guilty of rude treatment to his beloved Berengaria. The island was completely subjugated. Before leaving Cyprus, Richard was married to Berengaria, who is noted as the only Queen of England who never set foot in the kingdom.

Berengaria.

5. On reaching Palestine, Richard found Philip engaged in besieging Acre, one of the chief Saracen fortresses. His powerful aid enabled the Crusaders soon to reduce that city, and a fair prospect opened up of the capture of Jerusalem itself.

Acre.

6. Philip returned home, leaving Richard to accomplish alone the hope of the whole Christian world. The heroic King defeated Saladin, the greatest of the Mohammedan generals, first at Askelon and then at Jaffa. But as regards the great object of the campaign, he was doomed to disappointment. Jerusalem was destined to remain in possession of the infidels. Even after being in sight of the holy city, Richard was compelled to abandon his purpose and to make a truce with Saladin; not, however, without securing for his English subjects free access to the spots so dear to the pilgrim heart.

Further victories.

7. At the siege of Acre, Richard had dealt harshly with Leopold, Duke of Austria, going so far as to beat him with his own hands. While in the dominions of the latter, on his way back to England, the King was arrested by the Duke, and delivered over to the Emperor of Germany for a sum equal to £60,000. The Emperor kept the King a close prisoner for upwards of a year. At length the secret of Richard's captivity leaked out, and, at the instance of the Pope, the Emperor agreed to release him on the payment of a sum considerably larger than that paid for his person.

Captivity of Richard.

8. During his four years' absence from England, his brother John had striven to excite Richard's subjects to revolt. The King, however, generously forgave the mean-spirited traitor. He remained but two months in England, and in midsummer 1194 passed over to Normandy, where he spent the remainder of his days in vexatious and fruit-

Return and death of Richard.

less strifes with his old ally and enemy, Philip Augustus of France. At length, in April 1199, the chance arrow of a French soldier inflicted a fatal wound on this "hero of a thousand fights." Richard died without issue, having spent in England but six months out of his reign of ten years. He was a military adventurer rather than a King.

CHAPTER XVII.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—JOHN. 1199 to 1216 A.D.

1. Shortly before his death, Richard had nominated as his successor his youngest and only surviving brother, John. This nomination was ratified by a great council of prelates and barons held at Northampton, and in May 1199 John was solemnly crowned at Westminster. According to the present law of succession, Richard's lineal heir was Arthur, Duke of Brittany, son of his elder brother Geoffrey. John proved to be one of the worst Kings that ever sat on a throne. Neither the life of man nor the honor of woman had any value in his eyes. He was false, cruel, and revengeful. One of his first acts was to divorce his wedded wife, Isabel (or Hawise) of Gloucester, and to marry Isabel of Angoulême, who had been solemnly betrothed to the Earl of March.

Accession and character of John.

2. The Norman barons of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine were indisposed to acknowledge John as their ruler. The French King, Philip Augustus, also supported the claims of Prince Arthur. A temporary settlement was effected in 1200, but in 1202 open hostilities broke out, which resulted in the capture of Arthur. The young Prince dropped at once from public sight, and John was promptly, and no doubt truly, judged guilty of the crime of murder.

Disappearance of Arthur.

3. As Duke of Normandy, John was a vassal of Philip Augustus, who immediately called on him to explain the disappearance of Arthur. On his failing to do so, all his Norman possessions were declared forfeited to the French Crown. Rouen, the chief fortress of Normandy, soon surrendered; and in 1204 all of her original Norman possessions, except the Channel Islands, were permanently lost to England. Guienne and Poitou, the marriage portion of Queen Eleanor, still remained connected with the English Crown.

Loss of Norman possessions.

4. The next humiliation of England arose out of a quarrel on ecclesiastical matters. The monks of Christ Church, Canterbury, claimed the sole right of nominating the archbishop. This claim was disputed by the bishops of the province. When the matter was referred to the Pope, Innocent wisely

The Interdict.

passed by the nominees of both disputing parties, and appointed to the vacant see Stephen Langton, an Englishman, and one of the first scholars in Europe. The nomination was accepted by the monks, but was resented angrily by John, who refused to recognize Langton as archbishop, and deprived him of the revenues of the see. John also defied the authority of the Church in other ways. Innocent III. then placed the kingdom under an *Interdict*. This ecclesiastical term, derived from the Latin *interdicere*, to "refuse" or "forbid," signifies that religious worship and rites, generally, were suspended and the churches closed. The *interdict* lasted for six years—from 1208 to 1214.

John excommunicated.

5. In 1209 John, who spent his time in defying the Pope and plundering his subjects, was formally excommunicated by the See of Rome. Three years later (1212), the Pope released John's subjects from their allegiance, appealed to Philip Augustus of France, as a true son of the Church, to assert his authority over England, and called upon all Christian nobles and prelates to join in dethroning the impious King.

Submission of John.

6. John was now reduced to the last extremity. He was threatened by the powerful armies of France, while he had so turned from him the sympathies of his own subjects that they refused to aid him against the enemy. There was no alternative but surrender. He therefore withdrew his opposition to Langton's appointment, and by a formal charter conveyed the chief lordship of England and Ireland to the Pope. In June 1213 he placed this charter in the hands of Pandulph, the Papal envoy, and on bended knee solemnly swore fealty to Innocent, as feudal lord of England.

Attempt to recover Normandy.

7. Immediately after his humiliation, John made an effort to recover his lost possessions in Normandy. In this attempt he was aided by the Emperor of Germany and by the Count of Flanders. The forces of his allies were soon crushed, at the Battle of Bouvines, by Philip Augustus of France, and John abandoned his purpose in despair. As it has been well said, "What was John's loss was England's gain." The last tie which bound a powerful part of the people of England to lands outside of England was broken. The Norman barons henceforth considered themselves as Englishmen.

Discontent.

8. Meantime the King's misrule was driving his subjects almost to madness. All classes, from the highest prelates of the Church down to the humblest peasantry, suffered from his cruelties and illegal exactions. To aid him in his oppression, he filled his Court with greedy adventurers from his remaining French provinces, who were fit instruments for such a tyrant. Men felt that further endurance was out of the question. The clouds were quickly gathering for a storm.

9. The Church, in the person of Stephen Langton, Archbishop of

Canterbury, placed herself at the head of a movement to resist the tyranny of John. A private meeting of the barons was held at St. Paul's Church, August 1213, when Langton produced a charter granted by Henry I., embodying most of the privileges and liberties which the King was now denying his subjects. The following year, the assembled barons determined to demand their rights as freemen, and swore to withdraw their allegiance if those rights should be refused. Langton was not only a patriot, but a man of great sagacity, and to his prudent firmness England is largely indebted for her freedom.

Stephen Langton.

10. In January 1215 a formal demand was made on the King by the barons to redress the grievances of the nation. An answer was promised at the ensuing Easter. The interval was spent by John in vain intrigues to separate the clergy from the rest of the people, and thus to conquer his enemies in detail. Easter came, but the King's answer was not ready. The barons marched on London, with "The army of God and of holy Church" inscribed on their banners. John yielded, and met the barons at Runnymede, a broad meadow on the Thames between Staines and Windsor. There he was forced to subscribe to the memorable document which is known in English history as *Magna Carta*, "the Great Charter;" which, while confirming the ancient rights of the nobility and clergy, forms the basis of the present liberties of the English people. Two copies of the Charter, as old as John's reign, are preserved in the British Museum. Some parts of Magna Carta lost their importance with the decay of the feudal system, but its essential principles are the great framework of our Constitution. It has been ratified by succeeding sovereigns nearly forty times. It imposed a wholesome restraint on the power of the King by enacting that no tax should be levied without the sanction of the Great Council of the kingdom. Clauses also were introduced which tended to improve the condition of the serfs or *villeins*. But perhaps the most important words of Magna Carta are these: "No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or deprived of his property, or exiled, or otherwise punished, except by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land; nor shall justice and right be sold, refused, or delayed to any one."

Magna Carta.

11. The Charter was wrung from John by force, and he did not intend to carry out its provisions, unless compelled to do so. He at once applied to the Pope for a bull annulling the Charter; but without waiting for such authority he broke his word in a most shameless manner. Instead of keeping his engagement, he raised an army of mercenaries, and proceeded to devastate his own kingdom from south to north. The perplexed barons now turned to the King of France for help, who

Faithlessness of John.

sent over his son Louis, with the promise of the English crown, could he win it.

John's death.

12. John was in Lincolnshire when he heard that Louis had landed in England. Marching southward, he had to pass the sea coast of the Wash. A sudden rising of the tide swept away his baggage and royal treasures. Wasted by passion and trouble, his frame could not stand the shock of this disaster. He was thrown into a fever, from which he died on the 19th of October 1216.

CHAPTER XVIII.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—HENRY III. 1216 to 1272 A.D.

Outburst of national feeling.

1. The death of John was followed by an outburst of national feeling, which led all classes to rally round his young son Henry. The Prince's claim to the throne was supported even by the barons who had been fighting under the banner of Louis of France. Henry was but nine years old, and the kingdom was placed under the regency of the Earl of Pembroke, who was a wise and energetic ruler. At the Battle of Lincoln, in May 1217, he utterly broke the power of Louis and drove him from the kingdom. About the same time, Hubert de Burgh annihilated a French fleet near Dover. Louis then made peace and went home.

Character of Henry.

2. After Pembroke's death in 1219, De Burgh acted as Regent, till 1223, when Henry at the age of eighteen assumed the reins of government in person. De Burgh continued to act as his chief adviser, though his mind was much under the influence of Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, a native of Poitou. As Henry grew to manhood, he developed a character of great weakness. Mild in manners and amiable in disposition, he allowed himself to be swayed by unworthy favorites, who had their own selfish ends to serve. The first forty years of his reign have been pronounced the dreariest period in all English history.

War with France.

3. In 1230, Henry was induced to engage in a war with France for the recovery of the Norman provinces lost through the cowardice of his father. The attempt was vain. Normandy was not reconquered, while the English hold on Poitou and Guienne was very much weakened.

Peter des Roches.

4. The unsuccessful war with France brought about the fall and disgrace of De Burgh. Des Roches then became chief favorite and counsellor. His career was brief. His policy of filling all possible offices with his fellow-country-

men from Poitou excited universal disgust. The feeling became so strong that he was eventually banished.

Eleanor of Provence.

5. In 1236 Henry married Eleanor of Provence. The Queen, having great influence over her husband, unwisely followed the course that brought Des Roches to disgrace. Swarms of her countrymen were brought over, and soon monopolized all the chief positions in Church and State.

Oppressive levies.

6. The King allowed himself to be led into several unwise military projects, the chief of which aimed at gaining the crown of Sicily for his second son, Henry. The cost of these preparations, the expenses incurred in his former war with France, and the vast sums squandered on foreign favorites, obliged him to resort to oppressive and illegal means of raising money. In 1253 his necessities compelled him to convoke the Great Council of the realm in order to obtain supplies, which were granted only when he had solemnly ratified Magna Carta. In 1258 more money was needed; but the barons were deaf to his appeals. They met, clad in complete armor, and after a tumultuous interview with the King, adjourned from Westminster to meet at Oxford in June of the same year (1258). The name of *mad Parliament* has been given to this meeting, which was held at the time and place appointed.

Simon de Montfort.

7. At the head of the barons was Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. Though a foreigner, he was completely identified with the cause of the English nobles, and, beyond most men of his time, had broad sympathies with popular freedom. He was brother-in-law of the King, having married Henry's sister Eleanor, widow of the younger Earl of Pembroke. Seldom has a cause had an abler leader than that of the barons in their conflict with the King.

Provisions of Oxford.

8. Henry was obliged to accept the appointment of a Commission of twenty-four barons, with Montfort as president, to reform abuses. It presented a report, the terms of which both the King and his eldest son, Prince Edward, swore to maintain. The reforms thus agreed on are known as the *Provisions of Oxford*. The leading *provisions* were, that the freeholders of every county should annually elect a sheriff; that they should be represented in the Great Council of the nation; and that the Council should meet regularly thrice a year. The knights of the county, or "shire," thus brought into the Council, mark the origin of *county members* sitting in the House of Commons.

The Barons' War.

9. The Provisions of Oxford did not secure peace to the country. Some think that the barons did not use their new power wisely, and that they made unjust demands of the King. Henry's cause was embraced by a leading nobleman, the Earl of Gloucester, and was made still stronger by a

release from the Provisions of Oxford, obtained on appeal to the Pope. Montfort fled to France, but returning soon after, he met the King in open battle at Lewes (1264).

The Mise of Lewes.

10. After the battle, which resulted in the defeat and capture of Henry, his son Edward made an agreement with Montfort to the effect that all disputes should be referred for settlement to a Parliament. The Great Charter was to be observed, and Prince Edward himself detained in custody as a hostage. This compact is known as the *Mise of Lewes* (*mise* is old French for "treaty"). About this time the name *Parliament*—from the French *parler*, "to speak"—came to be applied to the Great Council.

Origin of House of Commons.

11. Simon de Montfort, who was now King in all but in name, proceeded to summon a Parliament. This met in 1265. To strengthen himself, and to place the liberties of the people on a broader basis, he called, in addition to prelates, barons, and knights of the shire, representatives of the boroughs or towns. Though the knights and members for the boroughs did not yet sit apart from the barons, the House of Commons may be fairly said to date from this Parliament, and to owe its main feature to Montfort.

Montfort's death.

12. Montfort's supremacy was destined to be short-lived. Powerful nobles deserted him. Prince Edward, escaping from custody, took command of the royal forces, and totally routed Montfort at the Battle of Evesham, August, 1265. The captive King, whom the barons had compelled to appear on the field at the risk of his life, had the satisfaction of seeing his great rival fall dead before his eyes.

End of Henry's reign.

13. Henry's authority was now restored, and he reigned in comparative tranquillity until his death in 1272. Two years before this event, his son and heir, Prince Edward, had joined a Crusade. He was on his homeward journey when he received tidings of his father's death.

CHAPTER XIX.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—EDWARD I. 1272 to 1307 A.D.

Delay of coronation.

1. Prince Edward was in Sicily when he heard that by his father's death he had succeeded to the English throne. Fearing no rival, he pursued his homeward journey in a very leisurely manner. When he reached his French possessions he found some matters requiring attention; and these so delayed him that he did not finally land in England till nearly two years after

his father's death. With his Queen, Eleanor of Castile, who had been his wife for twenty years, he was crowned at Westminster in August 1274.

Appearance and character of Edward.

2. Edward, from the length of his limbs, was surnamed *Longshanks*. In strength, courage, and skill, he had scarcely an equal among all the barons of his kingdom. In the Crusade he had won a high reputation for gallantry; and in the wars which he afterwards waged, he bore the severest hardships without murmuring. He was a skilful general, as well as a brave soldier. To his military accomplishments Edward added a mind of statesman-like grasp. He ruled with a stern hand; and though his character was not without its blemishes, he must be ranked among the wisest as well as ablest of English sovereigns.

His policy.

3. He was the first of the Plantagenet Kings to realize that the distinctions between Norman and Englishman had passed away. His aim was not only to be King of a united English nation, but, if possible, to extend English authority over the whole of Britain. His dukedom in France necessarily mixed him up to some extent with Continental affairs, but he gave his chief thought and care to England. The troubled reign of his father left behind it a large crop of abuses and difficulties, to the remedying of which Edward applied himself immediately after his coronation. Unsuitable and unjust magistrates and judges were summarily dismissed.

Conquest of Wales.

4. Llewelyn, Prince of North Wales, had lent "aid and comfort" to the rebellious movements of Simon de Montfort in the previous reign. Called upon by the new King to do homage for his dominions, the Welsh Prince refused; but he was soon compelled to do so by Edward, who led an expedition against him in person. Llewelyn remained submissive until the death of his wife, daughter of the celebrated De Montfort. Then forming a league with his brother David, who had formerly been his enemy and an attached friend of the King, he broke out into open rebellion. The brothers, with their brave clansmen, fought with determined courage, and inflicted several defeats on Edward's forces. At last they were overcome. Llewelyn was killed in battle, while the unfortunate David was taken prisoner, and put to death as a traitor. Thus ended the struggle for Welsh independence. Wales was formally annexed to England, and was brought in all respects under the same laws and government. Edward remained in Wales for nearly a year, and gave the title of "Prince of Wales" to his second son, Edward, who was born at Caernarvon. An elder brother, Prince Alphonso, dying soon after, the name became permanently attached to the eldest son of the ruling monarch.

5. Wales having been conquered in 1283, Edward was soon enabled by circumstances to interfere in the affairs of Scotland. Though

Richard I. had sold back to William the Lion, King of Scotland, the feudal claims which Henry II. had imposed on that monarch, the English Kings continued to assert a species of lordship over the Scottish Kings, which the latter sometimes admitted, but more frequently rejected. In 1286, the throne of Scotland was filled by Alexander III., grandson of William the Lion. Alexander was Edward's own brother-in-law, having married Margaret, daughter of Henry III. To provide for the peaceful union of the crowns, Edward procured the betrothal of the Prince of Wales to Alexander's grand-daughter and heiress, Margaret, daughter of Eric, King of Norway. Unfortunately for Edward's plans, Alexander's death in 1286 was followed a few years after by that of the young Princess on whom so many hopes were built. The *Maid of Norway*, as she is generally called, died at the Orkneys on the voyage from Norway to Scotland.

The Scottish succession.

6. The death of the Maid of Norway threw everything into confusion. The old line of Scottish Kings was practically extinct. Many representatives of remote branches preferred their claims. At last the rivals were reduced to two—John Baliol and Robert Bruce. Both were sprung from daughters of a brother of William the Lion. Baliol was *grandson* of the *eldest* daughter; Bruce was *son* of the *second* daughter. One insisted that he represented the older and higher branch, the other that he was a generation nearer the original stock.

Rival claims.

7. The question at issue was referred to Edward. Marching northward with his army, the English King summoned the competitors and the Scottish Parliament to meet him on the banks of the Tweed. After a proper interval, he decided in favor of Baliol, on whom he forthwith called to do homage for his crown. Baliol, making a virtue of necessity, swore fealty to Edward in humble terms, in 1292.

Edward appointed arbitrator.

8. Edward was now (1293) summoned by the King of France to atone for some injuries inflicted on a French fleet by the King's subjects in Guienne. He did not respond in person to the summons, but sent deputies, who, through some sharp practice on the part of the French King, were induced to surrender the entire duchy to that monarch. Not till some years afterwards was Guienne recovered. Meantime the King of France and John Baliol made common cause. Encouraged by Edward's difficulties on the Continent, Baliol asserted his independence; only, however, to find himself unable to maintain it. Edward soon appeared in the north, and after storming Berwick, decisively defeated Baliol at Dunbar. Baliol was deprived of his throne, if we can believe himself, without regret, and after three years' imprisonment was permitted to retire to Normandy, where he ended his days in peace. Edward

Battle of Dunbar.

returned to England, taking with him the royal treasures and regalia, also the famous "Stone of Scone," on which the Scottish Kings had been crowned, according to immemorial custom. This stone is still preserved in the "Coronation Chair" at Westminster Abbey.

William Wallace.

9. Scotland was now governed by English officers. Edward was on the Continent, endeavoring to recover Guienne from the French grasp. At this juncture the Scottish love of independence revived. A valiant and patriotic knight, named William Wallace, put himself at the head of the popular movement. Falling on the English forces in Scotland, he almost annihilated them near Stirling in 1297. For a year he held Scotland and ravaged the northern counties of England. Edward, returning from France in 1298, completely crushed the bold patriot at Falkirk. Seven years later, Wallace, who had renewed hostilities, was captured and executed as a traitor, which he certainly was not.

Treaty of Montreuil.

10. In 1303, peace was restored between England and France, and was ratified by a marriage engagement between the Prince of Wales and Isabella, daughter of the French King. Guienne became once more an English possession. These arrangements were effected by what is known as the *Treaty of Montreuil.*

Struggle for Scottish independence renewed.

11. In 1306, Robert Bruce ("the Bruce of Bannockburn"), grandson of Baliol's rival for the crown of Scotland, renewed the struggle for Scottish independence. Boldly defying Edward's authority, he had himself solemnly crowned and proclaimed as King of Scotland. Taking the field, he was soon defeated by the King's lieutenant, the Earl of Pembroke, at Methven, and was obliged to seek for shelter amid the wilds of the western islands. But early the next year he was ready to renew the fight. It was now Pembroke's turn to suffer defeat. He was attacked by Bruce at Loudoun Hill, and was utterly routed.

Death of Edward I.

12. Edward then prepared to take the field in person. He was in his seventieth year, and a fatal disease was preying on his system, but his will was as unconquerable as ever. Only death could subdue that proud, vindictive spirit. He reached Burgh-on-Sands, within sight of Scotland, and there died, leaving it as his dying charge to his son that Scotland should be subdued.

Important events.

13. Edward's long reign was marked by many important events besides those recorded above. The King's need of money to carry on his numerous wars often placed him at the mercy of Parliament, which he had been wise enough to continue on the basis established by Simon de Montfort. He was, therefore, in return for votes of money, often obliged to con-

firm the Great Charter, and in various ways to enlarge the liberties of the people. His expulsion of the Jews was a cruel and indefensible act, though his desire and efforts for their conversion to Christianity merit our sympathy.

CHAPTER XX.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—EDWARD II. 1307 to 1327 A.D.

Accession and character of Edward II.

1. Edward I. was succeeded by his eldest surviving son, under the title of Edward II. The new King, who was in his twenty-fourth year, had already given evidence of fatal weakness of character. He had come under the influence of a dissipated adventurer from Gascony, Piers Gaveston by name. Three months before his death, Edward I. had banished Gaveston from the kingdom, and had compelled his son to swear that he would never recall him. So strong a hold, however, had the favorite on Edward's affections, that one of his first acts was to bring him back from exile and appoint him Regent of the kingdom. Edward's conduct in this matter, first in allowing an unworthy favorite to lead him into disgraceful excesses, and secondly in violating his own pledged word, was a fair indication of his general character. He was weak to resist evil, and continued to the end of his days to be the victim of artful and intriguing favorites.

War with Scotland abandoned.

2. The King also showed himself regardless of his father's wishes concerning the war with Scotland. On his dying bed, Edward I. had admonished his son to make no terms with Bruce, but to subdue utterly the rebellious Scots. Before, however, his father's remains had been decently interred, the King patched up a truce with the Scottish general, and disbanded his forces. He proceeded shortly afterwards to France, where he married Isabella, the daughter of the French King, reputed to be the handsomest woman in Europe.

Death of Gaveston.

3. On his return from France, Edward continued to bestow his favors on Gaveston with a lavish hand, giving him the place of honor at the coronation ceremonies. This created general dissatisfaction, which was increased by the pride and insolence of the favorite. For a time the King shielded the upstart Gascon from popular indignation by sending him over to Ireland as viceroy. On his recall, which soon took place, owing, apparently, to the King's inability to live without him, the dislike to Gaveston manifested itself still more strongly. The barons took up arms, and, led by the Earl of Lancaster, the King's cousin, soon captured the object of their anger, who was put to death at Blacklow Hill, near

Warwick, in June 1312. The King lamented, but could neither prevent nor avenge the death of his favorite.

Battle of Bannockburn.

4. For four years there had been a nominal truce between England and Scotland. But Bruce, taking advantage of the dissensions in England, had silently resumed hostilities, and by the spring of 1314 had seized almost all the English fortresses in Scotland. For once in his life Edward acted with something like promptitude and energy. Co-operating with his barons, he raised an army of nearly one hundred thousand men, and marched northward to relieve Stirling Castle, which alone of the English strongholds held out against Bruce. The great battle which secured the independence of Scotland was fought about two miles from Stirling, and derives its name from the Bannock, a *burn* or small river in the neighborhood. Bruce gave to his followers a prelude of victory, in a duel on the eve of the battle, by cleaving with his own battle-axe the skull of Henry de Bohun, one of the most valiant of the English knights. To the large and variously composed English army he opposed a much smaller force, estimated at thirty thousand men. But these were veterans, trained under his own eye, and fighting with all the energy of patriots. Bruce, moreover, made his arrangements with consummate skill. The English cavalry fell helplessly into pitfalls. The archers were thrown into confusion by a charge of Scottish troopers sent forward at the opportune moment. Having no proper generalship, the mighty army of England was soon panic-stricken. Edward fled so precipitately that Bruce seized a large part of his treasures. Scotland never lost the independence which she thus so nobly won. Bannockburn was fought on June 18, 1314.

The Spensers.

5. The King, on his return to England, took unto himself a new favorite, Hugh Spenser, or De Spenser. Spenser's father was a man of good character; but the son's proud and upstart manners excited as much ill-feeling among the barons as had those of Gaveston. Parliament caused both father and son to be banished, 1321.

Death of Lancaster.

6. Edward soon recalled the Spensers, and taking the field against his barons, defeated his cousin, the Earl of Lancaster, at Boroughbridge. Lancaster was executed as a traitor, 1322.

Queen Isabella.

7. Queen Isabella, whose affection Edward had long since lost, threw in her fortunes with the cause of the barons. She had formed an unworthy alliance with a young nobleman named Roger Mortimer. Taking advantage of an enmity subsisting between her husband and the King of France, Isabella repaired to France, and succeeded in gathering together an army of considerable size. In 1326 she invaded England, where she was welcomed as a deliverer by the large party hostile to the Spensers. Events

followed one another in swift succession. The Spensers were seized and executed. The hapless King was captured in Wales and conveyed as a prisoner to Kenilworth. Isabella assumed regal authority, and summoned a Parliament, which met at Westminster in January 1327.

Deposition and death of Edward.

8. The Parliament solemnly deposed the captive King, and recognized his son, Prince Edward of Wales, as his rightful successor. Edward himself was committed to the custody of a certain Sir John Maltravers, who had orders to transfer him hastily from castle to castle. After suffering indignities worse than death, the unfortunate captive was cruelly murdered at Berkeley Castle, September 1327. His death has left an ineffaceable stain on the memory of Isabella and her "gentle Mortimer."

CHAPTER XXI.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—EDWARD III. 1327 to 1377 A.D.

Accession of Edward III.

1. Edward, Prince of Wales, was a minor at the time of his father's death. He was crowned at Westminster in January 1327, when but fourteen years of age. A council of guardians was appointed to direct affairs during his minority; but all real control was in the hands of Isabella, the Queen-mother, and Mortimer.

Peace with Scotland.

2. A year after Edward's accession, the difficulty with Scotland was settled by a treaty between the English rulers and the Scottish King. England acknowledged the independence of Scotland, and renounced all claim to feudal superiority (1328). The treaty was very unpopular in England, where Isabella and Mortimer were accused of giving away the rights of their country.

Death of Mortimer.

3. As Edward approached manhood, he chafed under the rule of his mother and Mortimer. The haughty demeanor of the latter made him many enemies among the nobles; and to this feeling of hostility, the young King, when eighteen years of age, determined to appeal. Mortimer was surprised at Nottingham Castle by Edward in person, and captured, and was arraigned before Parliament as a traitor. The Queen-mother was imprisoned within her own house for life. Mortimer was hanged at Tyburn (1330).

Character of Edward III.

4. Edward was now in reality King of England. Few sovereigns have surpassed him in the possession of kingly qualities. He was a firm, and, generally speaking, a wise ruler. He caused the laws to be impartially administered, and this secured the confidence and esteem of his subjects.

He was, however, ambitious to a fault. His love of conquest involved England in many bloody and needless wars.

Battle of Halidon Hill.

5. One of Edward's first steps was to break off the arrangement by which the independence of Scotland had been secured. Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, asserted his claim to the Scottish throne against David II., the son of Robert Bruce. In support of Baliol's pretensions, the English King marched into Scotland, and utterly routed the forces opposed to Baliol at the Battle of *Halidon Hill*, in July 1333. Baliol became King, swore fealty to Edward, and, by the support of English arms, ruled Scotland nominally till 1341, when the line of Bruce was restored.

Claim to the throne of France.

6. The death of Charles IV. in 1328 left the throne of France without any direct male heir. Charles was succeeded by his cousin Philip of Valois, who reigned in peace until 1337, when Edward of England asserted a rival claim,* and caused himself to be proclaimed "King of France." As females were excluded from the succession by law, or at least by general usage, in France, Philip VI. was undoubtedly the rightful successor of Charles IV. Edward put forth the peculiar doctrine that while females could not inherit, they could transmit the right of succession to male children. But even if this doctrine were true, it did not help Edward's cause, for Charles of Navarre stood nearer the throne than he, by female descent from Louis X., the eldest brother of Isabella, Edward's mother.

War with France.

7. Edward, who had put forth this claim in 1328, determined to assert it by force of arms in 1337. He was led to this apparently by the conduct of the French King in lending aid to the Scots, and in interfering with Edward's possessions in France. Two or three years were spent in preparation. The first actual blow was struck in June 1340, when Edward decisively defeated the French fleet in a battle off Sluys.

8. Nothing was done on land until 1346. In that year Edward,

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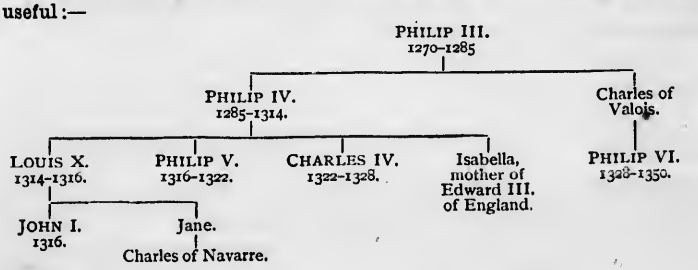
* For understanding the nature of Edward's claim, the following table will be useful:—



accompanied by his son, the Prince of Wales, and a powerful army, landed at Cape la Hogue in Normandy. He met the French army on the 26th of August at Creçy, a small village near Abbeville. The English army was far outnumbered, but made up in discipline and energy what was lacking in numbers. A shower relaxed the bow-strings of the French archers; while the stout yeomanry of England discharged their arrows with such terrible directness of aim as to scatter the enemy in confusion. The Prince of Wales, who was only sixteen years of age, performed wonderful feats of valor. He received the name of *Black Prince* from the color of his armor. The French losses were very great. Philip, surprised and mortified by his defeat, gathered together the remnant of his forces and withdrew to Amiens.

Battle of Creçy.

9. Edward followed up his victory by laying siege to Calais; which, after being beleaguered for nearly a year, was compelled to surrender to avoid famine. Calais was held by the English for upwards of two centuries.

Siege of Calais.

10. During the siege of Calais, David Bruce invaded England, but was defeated at the Battle of Nevil's Cross, near Durham. King David was taken prisoner, and was held in captivity for eleven years.

Battle of Nevil's Cross.

11. In 1347 a truce was concluded between England and France through the mediation of Pope Clement VI. Before leaving the Continent, Edward, who was always anxious for the commercial prosperity of his country, took steps to make his new possession, Calais, a grand distributing point for English products. Soon afterwards, he reached the height of his glory by defeating a powerful Spanish fleet in the Channel. He was virtually master of England, Scotland, and France.

Edward's power.

12. In 1349 England was devastated by a terrible pestilence, to which was given the expressive name of *the Black Death*. This frightful plague had its origin in the far East, and in its passage through the intermediate countries was estimated to have destroyed one-third of the population lying in its path. Some, indeed, suppose that it slew one-half of the inhabitants of England. Its ravages led to a great scarcity of laborers, which the King and Parliament vainly tried to remedy by legislation.

The Black Death.

13. In 1355 war with France was renewed, through difficulties consequent on the death of Philip VI. On the part of England, it was chiefly conducted by the Black Prince, though Edward for a time had his head-quarters at Calais. The chief engagement was the celebrated Battle of Poitiers, fought on September 19, 1356. With a force of ten thousand men, the English Prince encountered an army six times as large, under the command of John, King of France, in person. By skilful management and deter-

Battle of Poitiers.

mined valor, the English triumphed over the tremendous odds against them. The French King was captured and conveyed to England, making the second royal captive in Edward's possession.

14. After a truce of two years, war broke out afresh. During the prevalence of hostilities France suffered severely from the ravages of Edward's armies. Peace was made by the *Treaty of Bretigny*, 1360. Edward consented to renounce his claim to the French crown, on condition that his rights in Calais, Poitou, and Guienne were fully acknowledged. It was further stipulated that King John was to be ransomed by the payment of a sum equal to one and a half million pounds sterling. The money was never paid, and John remained in prison until his death, four years later.

Treaty of Bretigny.

15. In 1367, the Black Prince weakly yielded to the solicitations of a Spanish King, Pedro of Castile, to aid him against his rebellious subjects. In this expedition the English Prince gained little besides glory. Pedro's enemies were defeated, but his promise to repay Edward's expenses was not kept. This failure led to heaping increased taxation on the French provinces held by England.

The Spanish expedition.

16. Edward's French subjects now turned to the King of France for help. War with all its horrors spread once more over France. Led by a brave knight named Du Guesclin, the French were victorious. Province after province was wrested from the English, till in 1374 their actual possessions in France were reduced to Bordeaux, Bayonne, and Calais.

Losses in France.

17. The Black Prince, who had returned to England with shattered health in 1371, died in 1376. The blots on his memory are the unwise expedition into Spain related above, and a wholesale massacre of the people of Limoges just before his final departure from France. The latter deed, however, was not without provocation; and the general reputation of the Black Prince is that of a brave, modest, and magnanimous knight.

Death of the Black Prince.

18. Edward's Queen, Philippa of Hainault, was now dead, and he came under the evil influence of a woman named Alice Perrers. The death of the Black Prince not only gave the aged King a powerful shock, but also seriously disturbed the tranquillity of the kingdom. His third son, John, Duke of Lancaster, called from his birthplace *John of Gaunt*, or *Ghent*, was suspected, and with good reason, of aspiring to the succession. The glory of his foreign conquests had passed away, and nothing now remained but the heavy load of debt which they had created. At length, in June 1377, Edward died, having reigned upwards of fifty years. His surviving sons were John, Duke of Lancaster ("John of Gaunt"); Edmund, Duke of York; and Thomas, Duke of Gloucester.

Last days of Edward III.

19. Edward's reign was marked by important measures. Among these may be mentioned:—(1.) *The Statute of Provisors*, forbidding application to the Pope for presentation to a benefice; (2.) *The Statute of Treasons*, defining what offences constitute *high treason*, and forfeiting the lands, goods, and life of traitors.

Legislation.

20. Edward's need of money enabled Parliament to wrest from him large grants of power. By refusing to vote supplies, it obliged him to recognize three important principles:—(1.) That money cannot be legally raised by taxation or otherwise without the consent of Parliament; (2.) That legislation cannot be effected without the concurrence of both Houses of Parliament; (3.) That Parliament has the right to inquire into abuses and to impeach corrupt officials.

Growth of Parliamentary power.

21. Edward III. was the first King of England to confer the title of Duke, as marking a special rank in the peerage. The order of *Knights of the Garter* was also founded by him. He rebuilt the greater part of Windsor Castle, and finished St. Stephen's Chapel at Westminster. The architect employed by him in these magnificent creations was *William of Wykeham*, afterwards Bishop of Winchester and Lord High Chancellor. Edward's reign, though a period of war and bloodshed, saw the country make great advances in commerce and manufactures.

Events of reign.

GENERAL VIEW OF DESCENDANTS OF EDWARD III.

EDWARD III.

Edward the Black Prince, died 1376.	William, died 1335.	Lionel, Duke of Clarence.	John of Gaunt, married—	Edmund, Duke of York.
RICHARD II., 1377–1399.		(House of York, p. 83.)	*1. Blanche of Lancaster.* (House of Lancaster, p. 78.)	(House of York, p. 83.)
			2. Constance of Castile. *3. Catherine Swynford.* (House of Tudor, p. 84.)	

CHAPTER XXII.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF ANJOU.—RICHARD II. 1377 to 1399 A.D.

1. On the death of Edward III., his grandson Richard, eldest surviving son of the Black Prince, succeeded to the throne with the assent of all classes. The young King was eleven years old, and was crowned in July 1377. A Council of State was appointed to direct affairs during

Accession of Richard II.

Richard's minority; from which, to the surprise of many, all his uncles were excluded.

2. War with France and Scotland continued during the earlier years of this reign. Though attended by no important results, it entailed heavy expenses on the nation. To meet these, resort was had to new and vexatious methods of taxation, some of which bore heavily on the *villeins* or peasants, among whom already from other causes much discontent prevailed. In 1381 a poll-tax of a shilling a head was imposed on every person, male and female, above the age of fifteen. This levy was peculiarly odious to the peasantry. Uprisings against it took place generally throughout the south of England.

Discontent of the peasantry.

3. At Dartford, in Kent, a tax-gatherer insulted the daughter of a tiler named Walter, or Wat, who promptly slew the offending officer. The men of Kent flew to arms, and Wat, who was naturally the hero of the hour, was placed in command, under the popular name of Wat Tyler. Wat soon found himself marching on London with an army of one hundred thousand men, mostly peasants, but including also not a few substantial freeholders, whom hatred of taxation had driven to arms.

Wat Tyler.

4. The villeins of Essex also mustered for the attack, placing at their head a man named Jack Straw. John Ball, a fanatical preacher, inflamed the zeal of the rebels by his fiery discourses. Not content with asserting the duty of emancipating the villeins, he exhorted the latter to regard themselves as having equal rights with the nobles to both property and power. It is said that instead of going to Scripture for a text, he preached from the couplet :—

Jack Straw and John Ball.

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

5. On July 12th, 1381, Tyler and his host encamped at Blackheath, a suburb of London. Two days afterwards they entered the city by London Bridge. Private property generally was left untouched, but many public buildings, including the Temple, Newgate prison, and the Duke of Lancaster's palace in the Savoy, were demolished. The King, through a herald, offered to meet the rebels at Mile End and hear their demands. The latter were now reduced to *four:* the abolition of villeinage; the reduction of rent to fourpence an acre; freedom to buy and sell; and a general pardon for past offences. The interview took place, and the King solemnly agreed to grant a charter covering all these demands. While this conference was being held at Mile End, another body of insurgents broke into the Tower, and slew in cold

Insurrection of peasants.

blood the Archbishop of Canterbury and other persons of distinction, the King's own mother narrowly escaping capture.

6. The next day, as the King was riding through Smithfield, he met Tyler at the head of twenty thousand men. The rebel leader boldly challenged his sovereign to a conversation. Richard could do nothing but comply. As they conversed, Tyler grew warm and laid hold of the King's bridle. At that, Walworth, Lord Mayor of London, who was accompanying Richard, stabbed the bold insurgent in the throat, while another of the King's attendants instantly killed him outright. A thousand bows were drawn to avenge the fallen leader, when the young King, with rare presence of mind, cried out, "What are ye doing, my lieges? Tyler was a traitor. Come with me, and I will be your leader." Instead of shooting, the rebels quietly accepted Richard's invitation to follow him to a place outside of the city, where he would hear and settle their complaints. By the time they reached Islington, the place designated for the conference, volunteers from all directions had greatly swelled the King's body-guard. The rebels found themselves outnumbered, and were allowed to disperse quietly.

Richard's presence of mind.

7. The nobility and gentry were now anxious to show their loyalty. Forces were raised in all parts of the kingdom to sustain law and order. A fortnight after the dispersion of the rebels, the King felt himself strong enough to revoke the charter granted to the villeins. The surviving leaders in the insurrectionary movement were sought out and punished. Jack Straw and John Ball were executed.

Villeins' charter revoked.

8. In 1385 Richard invaded Scotland, and proceeded as far north as to Aberdeen. The Scottish King did not think it prudent to resist the progress of the English, who sacked and burned in succession Edinburgh, Dunfermline, Perth, and Dundee. Three years later, at Otterburn, the victory of the Douglases over the Percies, made memorable by the ballad of "Chevy Chase," restored the balance in favor of Scotland.

War with Scotland.

9. Thus far, Richard had given evidence of considerable strength of character. But this did not grow with his years. He became fond of ease and pleasure. Advisers and favorites were not wisely chosen. In 1387 dissatisfaction with his conduct took the form of a direct effort to dethrone him. At the head of this movement was his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, a man of warm temper and restless disposition. For a time it seemed probable that Richard would lose his crown. At length, in 1389, the powerful aid of another uncle, the Duke of Lancaster ("John of Gaunt"), enabled him to recover his position, and for nine years he reigned in comparative peace. Richard and Gloucester were outwardly reconciled, but some years afterwards the latter

Character and government of Richard.

was sent as a prisoner to Calais, where he died in a mysterious manner.

Richard's wives.

10. Richard's first wife was Anne of Bohemia, who, as "good Queen Anne," had a warm place in the affections of the English people. His second marriage to Isabel, daughter of the King of France, a mere child at the time of the nuptials, was very unpopular.

Banishment of Hereford and Norfolk.

11. In 1398, a step was taken by the King which soon led to his downfall. Of the noblemen who were concerned with Gloucester in the rebellious affair of 1387 two remained—Richard's cousin, Henry, Earl of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt, and the Duke of Norfolk. A quarrel between these noblemen was about to be settled by *wager of battle*, when the King interposed and banished both from the kingdom—Hereford for ten years, Norfolk for life. A few months later, Hereford's father, the oft-mentioned John of Gaunt, died; whereupon the King instantly seized his estates, though he had solemnly promised that they should pass in regular succession to Hereford, notwithstanding his banishment.

Dethronement of Richard.

12. Hereford was a high-spirited noble, and he determined on revenge. Instead of fretting his life away in exile, he would reign in Richard's stead. A fellow-exile, Thomas Arundel, who had been Archbishop of Canterbury, but had been impeached and deposed for alleged complicity in the designs of Gloucester in 1387, made common cause with Hereford. Taking advantage of Richard's absence in Ireland, they landed, with a small force, at Ravenspur in Yorkshire. On Richard's return, which was delayed by contrary winds, he found that his kingdom had melted away from him. His most powerful nobles were arrayed under the standard of his cousin. He had neither troops nor the means of raising them. Treason had done its work everywhere. Richard soon fell into the hands of Hereford, who, with sixty thousand men at his bidding, was completely master of the situation. The King was placed in close confinement, while his name and seal were used by his rival to summon Parliament. Parliament on its convocation adjudged Richard unfit to govern, and solemnly deposed him. Six months later, the ex-King died at Pontefract Castle; how, no man knows.

John Wyclif.

13. To this and the preceding reign belong the life and career of John Wyclif, well known for his translation of the Sacred Scriptures. Different accounts are given of Wyclif's religious opinions, which in some respects certainly varied from the received doctrines. He was arraigned for heresy; but after explaining his views to the Primate and Bench of Bishops, he was allowed to retain his rectory at Lutterworth. He exerted a powerful influence through his preachers, whom he sent

throughout England. His disciples were afterwards called *Lollards.* He had influential friends; among them John of Gaunt, and, as is supposed by some, Queen Anne herself.

Statute of Præmunire.

14. In the year 1393, a long controversy as to the respective rights of the Crown and the Church in the matter of ecclesiastical nominations was settled, as far as Parliament could settle it, by the passage of a statute called *Præmunire.* *Præmunire* is still in force; but it now includes a number of miscellaneous offences. One of its effects is to make elections by the clergy purely nominal, it being treason to reject the nominee of the Crown.

HOUSE OF ANJOU.

HENRY II.—1154-1189.

- Henry, d. 1183.
- RICHARD I.—1189-1199.
- Geoffrey, d. 1186.
  - Arthur, Duke of Brittany.
- JOHN—1199-1216.
  - HENRY III.—1216-1272.
    - EDWARD I.—1272-1307.
      - EDWARD II.—1307-1327.
        - EDWARD III.—1327-1377.
          - The Black Prince.
            - RICHARD II.—1377-1399.
          - Etc., etc., etc.

CHAPTER XXIII.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF LANCASTER.—HENRY IV. 1399 to 1413 A.D.

Accession of Henry IV.

1. The Parliament that deposed Richard proceeded to confirm the claim of his successful rival, Henry of Lancaster. The new King, who had been surnamed *Bolingbroke,* from the place of his birth, assumed the title of Henry IV., and was crowned a fortnight after Richard's deposition—October 14, 1399. Henry ascended the throne by right of conquest, not of birth. According to the law of succession, there stood between him and the crown the young Earl of March, descended from Lionel of Clarence, second son of Edward III., whereas his own father, John of Gaunt, was third son. Henry himself vaguely claimed the crown as "descended by right line of blood from King Henry III." That he was so descended by both lines is an undoubted fact, his mother, Blanche of Lancaster, being sprung directly from the second son of the third Henry. But a weak claim is not strengthened by adding to it another weaker than itself.

2. Six months after Henry's accession, the corpse of Richard II. was taken from Pontefract Castle to London, and publicly exhibited at St. Paul's. It was afterwards interred at Langley. Richard had been condemned by Henry, on the advice of Parliament, to "secret and perpetual confinement." The sentence had been rigorously executed, and, until the exposure of his corpse, nothing was known of the fate of the poor captive. Many stories are told as to the manner in which he came by his death; but as they are all purely conjectural it is idle to repeat them. Richard's widow was restored to her father, the King of France; but that monarch's claim for the unpaid portion of his daughter's dowry was refused.

Death of Richard.

3. Henry determined to distinguish himself by arms. He therefore gladly embraced the opportunity given by the refusal of King Robert of Scotland to recognize him as King of England, to lead an army into the sister kingdom. Nothing came of the expedition, not even the military glory which Henry sought.

War with Scotland.

4. The King's return from Scotland was hastened by reports of a disturbance in Wales. Owen Glendower, a Welsh gentleman who had been in the service of Richard II., and who claimed descent from Llewelyn, the last native Prince of Wales, took up arms and gave the English much trouble. He succeeded in capturing two nobles—Lord Grey and Sir Edmund Mortimer. The latter was uncle of the young Earl of March, rightful heir to the throne. Henry IV. allowed Lord Grey to purchase a ransom, but refused a similar permission to Mortimer, from motives which can be easily understood.

Owen Glendower.

5. In 1402 the Scots, under Lord Douglas, invaded England, but were signally defeated by Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, son of the Earl of Northumberland. The battle, known as that of *Homildon Hill*, was won by the superior archery of the English.

Battle of Homildon Hill.

6. In gaining the English throne, Henry had received no more important aid than that of the Earl of Northumberland and his valiant son Hotspur. They had also rendered him more recent service at the Battle of Homildon Hill. We are now to find them taking up arms against the King. Mortimer, to whom Henry had denied the privilege of ransom, was Hotspur's brother-in-law. The latter, who had personally seconded Mortimer's request, took offence at what he conceived to be the King's ingratitude, and with his father sought alliances with Douglas of Scotland and Glendower of Wales. Another reason for the rebellion of the Percies was Henry's refusal to repay the expenses which they had incurred in his behalf in the war with the Scots.

Rebellion of the Percies.

7. Henry, on learning of the new movement against him, proceeded by forced marches to outstrip Hotspur, who was aiming to effect a junction with Glendower. He met the brave Percy at Hately Bridge, near Shrewsbury. Aided by his intrepid son, Prince Henry, the future conqueror of France, the King was completely victorious. Hotspur fell in the thick of the fight, pierced to the brain by a well-aimed arrow. His father was kept from the battle by illness, and pretended to the King that the rebellion was a personal matter of Hotspur's. Pardoned for the time, Northumberland engaged in subsequent conspiracies, and was defeated and killed near Bramham Moor in 1408.

Battle of Hately Bridge.

8. During the later years of his life Henry IV. suffered much from ill-health. This soured his temper, and led him to indulge in groundless suspicions of those about him. It is said that his conscience pricked him for dethroning Richard, and that he desired to purchase peace of mind by leading a new crusade. Death prevented the accomplishment of this desire. Henry was seized with an epileptic fit in Westminster Abbey. He was taken to a room called the "Jerusalem Chamber," and there died, on the 20th of March 1413.

Death of Henry IV.

9. Henry's reign was marked by vigorous action against the Lollards, or disciples of Wyclif. A statute was passed by which all persons convicted of heresy before the ecclesiastical courts should be handed over to the civil power for punishment. Under this statute a clergyman named William Sawtré, who had been rector of Lynn, was burned to death. The exact theological opinions of Sawtré are not known. Those who took active measures against him claimed that his doctrines were subversive of the rights of property, and therefore dangerous to the State.

William Sawtré.

CHAPTER XXIV.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF LANCASTER.—HENRY V. 1413 to 1422. A.D.

1. The late King's eldest son succeeded peacefully to the throne, under the title of Henry V. Immediately after his father's seizure of the throne, he had been created Prince of Wales; and his succession was so much taken as a matter of course, that no one thought of reviving the claim of the rightful heir, the Earl of March. Henry was crowned at Westminster in April 1413.

Accession of Henry V.

2. The new King commenced to reign at the ripe age of twenty-five.

He possessed excellent abilities, and had received a thorough education at Queen's College, Cambridge. On the battle-field he had given proof of signal courage and great military skill. During youth his habits are said to have been somewhat dissipated; but there is probably a degree of exaggeration in the stories told concerning him. His errors, whatever they may have been, seem to have been due to the giddiness of youth rather than to settled badness of heart; for as King he was distinguished for the regularity and piety of his life.

Character of Henry V.

3. The first act of Henry was to surround his throne by wise counsellors. The companions of his youthful pleasures were dismissed. He gave evidence of a magnanimous disposition by releasing from captivity the unfortunate Earl of March, who had suffered fourteen years' imprisonment on account of his birth; by restoring to Hotspur's heirs their confiscated estates; and by solemnly reinterring the bones of Richard II. in Westminster Abbey.

Beginning of reign.

4. Henry V. inherited from his father a strong dread of the principles of the Lollards. The numbers adhering to that sect became so large as, in his opinion, to threaten the State as well as the Church with danger. Their leader at this time was Sir John Oldcastle, commonly called Lord Cobham, a title derived from his wife's estate. The Lollards generally were accused of conspiracy. Cobham was charged with heresy, and, after trial, was duly convicted. Escaping from the Tower, he unwisely put himself at the head of a political revolt, which was summarily crushed by the King's prompt action. Several of his associate leaders were captured and executed. Cobham himself managed to elude the authorities until 1418, when he met the same fate.

The Lollards.

5. France was at this time plunged in the horrors of a civil war. The old King, Charles VI., was insane, and his relatives, the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy, were struggling for the mastery. Henry of England, who was a most ambitious prince, deemed this the fitting time for reviving the English claim to the French crown. He therefore addressed himself to earnest preparations for invading France. The expedition was soon ready, but Henry was detained in England for a short time by an insurrection headed by his second-cousin, Richard, Earl of Cambridge, who had married a sister of Henry's lawful competitor, the Earl of March. This movement was soon suppressed, and Cambridge and his chief associates were executed as traitors. Henry finally set sail for France in August 1415. His fleet comprised fifteen hundred sail, and carried over a force of six thousand men-at-arms, and twenty-four thousand foot. A safe landing was effected near the mouth of the Seine.

Preparations to invade France.

6. Harfleur was besieged, and was taken after five weeks' resistance, which so weakened Henry's forces that he decided to fall back on Calais. The French made a successful effort to cut off his retreat, and to the number of sixty thousand strong, threw themselves across his way near the village of Agincourt, not far from the famous field of Creçy. As at Creçy, the English were far outnumbered, while retreat was impossible. The inequality in numbers was to some extent made up for by the disadvantages of the French position, a narrow space with woods in the rear. Henry headed the attack in person, and fought hand to hand with the French nobles. The English archers did terrible execution, while the charges of the French cavalry were successively checked by palisades of sharpened sticks, hastily but firmly driven into the ground. The position of the enemy exposed them to attacks on both flanks, and deprived them of all advantage from their superior numbers. In the end Henry was completely victorious. The second line of the French, which made a most determined resistance, was pierced, the English King occupying the post of danger and performing prodigies of valor. Its leader, the Duke of Alençon, was slain; the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon were captured; and the number of prisoners in Henry's hands at the close of the day is said to have exceeded the entire strength of his own army. The King returned to England in triumph in the last week in November.

Battle of Agincourt.

7. The victory at Agincourt did not put an end to the civil war in France. In July 1417, Henry recrossed the Channel with the determination of making himself actual master of that country. The important fortresses of Caen and Rouen soon fell before his arms, though the latter stood a desperate siege of four months. France, torn by factions and reduced by war, had now no alternative but submission.

Second invasion of France.

8. The Duke of Burgundy, who had in his possession the poor insane King, Charles VI., agreed to accept from the victorious invader the following terms:—(1.) That Henry should marry Catherine, the French King's daughter; (2.) That he should succeed to the throne of France on Charles's death; (3.) That he should be Regent of France during Charles's life-time. This agreement bears date May 1420, and is known in history as the *Treaty of Troyes*. Henry with his bride Catherine did not return to England till nearly a year later. The intervening time was spent in receiving the submission of French nobles, and in formally assuming the government of the country.

The Treaty of Troyes.

9. Henry was soon recalled to France, where his brother, the Duke of Clarence, had been defeated and killed by a Scottish force in the pay of the French. The King acted with his usual decision. Having landed in France in June 1421,

Death of Henry V.

in less than a month he drove his enemies south of the Loire, and completely re-established his authority. Shortly afterwards, his Queen bore him a son and heir. He was master of two kingdoms, beloved by his soldiers, revered by his subjects. His future was bright with promise. But for some time a secret malady had been preying on his constitution. Joined by his wife and child, he had spent Whitsuntide at Paris in great splendor; but even amid the festivities he had forebodings of his approaching end. Retiring to Vincennes, he died there, August 31, 1422. His remains were brought to England for interment, and his saddle and helmet still hang over his tomb in Westminster Abbey. Like his father, Henry V. had cherished a strong desire to lead a crusade for the recovery of Jerusalem. His widow, Catherine of France, afterwards married a Welsh gentleman named Owen Tudor. Their son Edmund Tudor, by marrying a descendant of John of Gaunt, laid the foundation of the Royal House of Tudor.

10. The premature death of Henry saved France from ruin as an independent kingdom. Henry's successor was an infant in arms; while the Dauphin of France, who had never acknowledged the Treaty of Troyes made in the name of his insane father, was in the full vigor of early manhood. It will be our lot to see that Prince, under the title of Charles VII., not only recover his lost possessions, but even strip from England the last fragment of her domain in France.

Deliverance of France.

CHAPTER XXV.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF LANCASTER.—HENRY VI. 1422 to 1461 A.D.

1. The new heir to the crowns of England and France was nine months old when his father died. Parliament acknowledged him under the title of Henry VI. His eldest uncle, the Duke of Bedford, was appointed "Protector of the Realm and Church of England;" but as Bedford's real duties lay in France, where he acted as Regent, the chief direction of affairs at home devolved on a younger uncle, the Duke of Gloucester. The personal guardianship of the infant King was committed to his grand-uncle, Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, a son of John of Gaunt by his third marriage.

Accession of Henry VI.

2. A few months after the accession of Henry VI., Charles VI., the imbecile King of France, breathed his last. In accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Troyes, Henry was immediately proclaimed his successor at Paris. Bedford, who was a man of great ability, did his best to uphold his nephew's authority. But, as we have seen, the Dauphin Charles,

War in France.

natural heir and successor of Charles VI., had never recognized the Treaty of Troyes as valid and binding. On his father's death he at once asserted his claim, and was crowned at Chartres. As the representative of the old French line of Kings, Charles drew to him the support of many of the nobility. The river Loire became the boundary line between the territories acknowledging the respective Kings. South of that river, the nobility and gentry adhered to Charles; Bedford kept the north obedient to Henry. Several battles were fought, generally resulting in favor of the English. During those conflicts Charles received powerful aid from the Scots. To detach the latter from the French, Bedford sagaciously advised the release of James of Scotland, who had been detained in honorable confinement at the English Court since the reign of Henry IV. The advice was acted on, and Scotland recovered one of the wisest of her Kings.

3. In 1428, Bedford resolved to cross the Loire, and if possible to strike a decisive blow where Charles's authority was strongest. In carrying out this policy, siege was laid to Orleans, the chief stronghold of Charles. The English invested Orleans for seven months, and reduced the garrison to great extremities; but a most wonderful interposition saved them from the necessity of surrender.

Siege of Orleans.

4. At Domremy, a small village near Lorraine, lived a modest peasant maiden named Joan. She is known in history as *Joan of Arc*, though Dr. Lingard thinks that her true name was *Joan Darc*. Her family was passionately attached to the French cause; and Joan, brooding over the miseries of France, conceived that she had a divine mission to deliver her country from the intruder. Making her way to Charles, she declared that if help were afforded her, she would raise the siege of Orleans, scatter the English, and speedily bring about his coronation at Rheims, the ancient French capital. These enthusiastic predictions were actually fulfilled. Early in May 1429, Joan, having been supplied with a small force by Charles, managed to enter Orleans without opposition from the English. Her presence, her confidence, and her fervid exhortations at once animated the garrison with new hope. Every one believed in her celestial mission. Armed and mounted, the heroic maiden led her countrymen forth in sallies against the siege-works of the English, and captured position after position. The besiegers soon concluded that the higher powers were lending help to their enemy. They fought with less and less energy, while every day the garrison caught more of Joan's enthusiasm. Eventually the English raised the siege, and Orleans was safe. Then Joan fulfilled her second promise. She led Charles in triumph into Rheims, where he was solemnly crowned according to the ancient rite of the French Kings. A few months later Joan fell into the hands of the English. A charge

Joan of Arc.

of witchcraft having been preferred against her, she was adjudged guilty and put to death. She died with martyr-like constancy, affirming to the last that Heaven had inspired her to save her country. No one can doubt that Joan was sincere. As a true patriot she deserved a better fate.

5. From the day of Joan's death, the English cause in France steadily declined. Bedford put forth every effort to stem the tide of disaster, but in vain. The French captured Harfleur. In 1435, the Duke of Burgundy, for years England's faithful ally, transferred his allegiance to his own sovereign. Bedford's death followed close upon Burgundy's desertion. Charles soon entered Paris in triumph; and in 1445 the English were glad to make a temporary truce.

English losses.

6. In 1445, Henry VI., who was then twenty-three years of age, married Margaret, daughter of René, Duke of Anjou. Margaret was unquestionably a woman of remarkable ability. Her life was spent in a brave but, after all, unavailing struggle to maintain the cause of her husband and his race. Henry himself was a most amiable and pious prince; but he inherited from his French grandfather a mind of such exceeding feebleness that he was never *King* in the true sense of the word.

Margaret of Anjou.

7. In domestic affairs, Beaufort, first bishop and afterwards cardinal, gradually got the upper hand of Gloucester. He favored a mild policy towards France. Henry's marriage was followed by the cession of Anjou and Maine to Charles VII. Shortly afterwards, Gloucester died in prison, where he had been confined on a charge of treason. Soon his great rival Beaufort died also. Then Charles VII., encouraged by the yielding policy of England, invaded Normandy, and took Rouen, its capital. This roused the English people to madness. Suffolk, who after the death of Beaufort had been Margaret's chief adviser, was impeached and found guilty of treason. Henry tried to save him by banishment, but he was seized and beheaded without process of law.

More losses in France.

8. By 1451 Charles had acquired complete control of Normandy. In 1453, under the command of the Earl of Shrewsbury, England made a final and determined effort to retain her remaining territory in south-western France. But Shrewsbury's defeat and death at the Battle of Castillon were followed by the downfall of Bordeaux and the seizure of the surrounding country. All that England had now left was the single fortress of Calais.

Final loss of France.

9. During the long struggle with France, England herself had been frightfully misgoverned. This, coupled with heavy taxation, led to numerous popular outbreaks. The most formidable of these risings was that headed by Jack Cade, said to be an Irishman. He marched towards London

Insurrection of Jack Cade.

with not fewer than twenty thousand men. The citizens of London met him on London Bridge, and induced him to seek a peaceful redress of grievances. This the authorities promised, and the rebels dispersed. The danger past, no further heed was paid to Cade's demands. A price was put on his head, which led to his capture and death not long afterwards.

Richard Plantagenet.

10. In 1454, a young Prince, who received the name of Edward, was born to Henry and Margaret. Before this event, and while the throne was without a direct heir, public attention had been directed to Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, as a nobleman well qualified to rule, and as possessing undoubted claims to the succession. He was in the male line descended from Edmund of York, *fifth* son of Edward III.; but by his mother, who was a Mortimer, sister of the Earl of March who at the deposition of Richard II. stood nearest the throne, he traced his descent to Lionel of Clarence, *third* son of the hero of Creçy. On his mother's side, therefore, his ancestral claim to the throne was stronger than that of the reigning family, which sprang from John of Gaunt, Edward's *fourth* son. York was a nobleman of great wealth and influence. Both in France and in Ireland he had shown himself a master in the art of governing men. He had allied himself by marriage with the Earl of Warwick, a noble even more powerful than himself, and surnamed *the King-maker* from his influence in determining who should occupy the throne during this and the succeeding reign. Shortly after the birth of his son, the King became insane, and the Duke of York received the appointment of *Protector*. His first act in this capacity was to drive from Court the unpopular Duke of Somerset, a member of the Lancastrian family, whom the people held responsible for the final loss of France. On the King's recovery, Somerset was recalled and York dismissed. Without directly asserting his own claim to the throne, the latter appealed to arms.

War of the Roses.

11. For the past hundred years, England, inspired by the ambition of her Kings, had waged an intermittent war of conquest in France. Now for thirty years her own soil was to be drenched with blood in a dreary series of civil strifes. These conflicts were waged between the partisans of the houses of York and Lancaster, and are known as the *War of the Roses*. This name is derived from the badges of the respective parties—that of the Yorkists having been a *white* rose, that of the Lancastrians a *red* one.

Yorkist victories.

12. The first battle of this memorable war was fought at St. Albans, May 23, 1455. The White Rose was victorious, Somerset was slain, and the King himself taken prisoner. The latter was soon released, and peace prevailed for a time. Then came fresh hostilities. The Yorkists were again triumphant, gaining a signal victory at Blore Heath, in Staffordshire, 1459.

A year later, the Lancastrian cause suffered a still more crushing blow at Northampton, the King himself being again taken prisoner.

13. The Duke of York was now in a position to claim the crown. Parliament decided substantially in his favor. It decreed that Henry should reign nominally for the term of his natural life, but it gave the real direction of affairs to York, by whom or by whose heirs Henry was to be succeeded. The young Prince Edward was thus completely set aside.

Parliament decides in York's favor.

14. Margaret now took the field to avenge the insult inflicted on her son. She repaired to the north, where the Lancastrian cause was particularly strong. York met her at Wakefield, and encountered a most disastrous defeat. He was himself slain, and his head, encircled with a paper crown, was mockingly stuck on the walls of York. He left three sons—Edward, Earl of March; George, Duke of Clarence; and Richard, Duke of Gloucester.

Battle of Wakefield.

15. The Yorkists soon rallied under young Edward, who now assumed his father's title and claims. The Lancastrians were defeated at Mortimer's Cross. Their commander, the Earl of Pembroke, son of Owen Tudor, was seized and executed.

Battle of Mortimer's Cross.

16. Queen Margaret did not abandon the cause of her husband and son. Marching towards London, she encountered the Earl of Warwick near St. Albans, and completely routed him. By this victory the captive King was restored to his friends.

Second Battle of St. Albans.

17. The Lancastrians did not make a wise use of their victory. They loitered to pillage, while Edward marched boldly to London. There he received a warm welcome. Vigorous measures were at once taken, which compelled Margaret to flee again to the north. Barons, prelates, and citizens united in calling Edward to the throne. He was proclaimed at Westminster as Edward IV. on March 3rd, 1461. Henry, the deposed King, lived ten years longer, during six months of which he bore the almost empty title of King.

Edward IV. proclaimed.

18. Troubled as it was, the reign of Henry VI. settled some important constitutional principles. One of these was, that the King could not, without the concurrence of Parliament, make provision for the government of the country during the minority of his successor. Another was, that in cases of disputed succession the supreme decision rested with Parliament. Henry's reign is also noted for statutes prescribing the qualifications of voters, and the manner in which elections should be conducted. Henry himself lives in history as the founder of Eton College, and of King's College, Cambridge.

Important events.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

EDWARD III.
John of Gaunt = *Blanche of Lancaster.*
HENRY IV. 1399–1413.
HENRY V. 1413–1422.
HENRY VI. 1422–1461.
Edward, Prince of Wales, killed at Tewkesbury, 1471.

HENRY III.

EDWARD I.	Edmund, Earl of Lancaster.
EDWARD II.	Henry, Earl of Lancaster.
EDWARD III.	Henry, Duke of Lancaster.
	Blanche = *John of Gaunt.*
	HENRY IV.

CHAPTER XXVI.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF YORK.—EDWARD IV. 1461 to 1483 A.D.

Character of Edward IV.

1. Edward IV. was twenty years of age at his accession. The claims of descent on which he based his right to the throne have already been indicated. Few princes have been more gifted by nature than Edward; few have rendered themselves more odious by their vices. He was a winning courtier, a bold soldier, and a skilful general. On the other hand, he was inordinately fond of pleasure, and in pursuing it he broke through all moral restraints without scruple.

Battle of Towton.

2. The Lancastrians were not prepared to submit without a struggle. Margaret soon gathered an army of sixty thousand men in Yorkshire. Edward was ready to accept the challenge, and marching northward in company with Warwick, inflicted a terrible defeat on the ex-Queen's army at Towton, near Tadcaster, on the 29th of March 1461. Henry and Margaret fled to Scotland, leaving more than twenty thousand of their followers dead on the field.

Edward crowned.

3. Edward returned to London, where he was crowned in the following June. Parliament having been summoned, his hereditary right to the throne was declared by statute, and an Act was passed making Henry, Margaret, and their chief followers guilty of treason.

Battle of Hexham.

4. In 1464, Margaret, having obtained help from France, was able to take the field again. Her army, however, suffered several defeats, notably at Hexham, where it was almost annihilated. Somerset, her chief general, was captured and beheaded. Margaret herself, with her young son, escaped to France; but her unfortunate husband, who remained in England, soon fell into the hands of Edward, and was confined in the Tower.

5. In 1464, the King avowed his marriage, which had taken place some time previously, with Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Grey, a Lancastrian knight, who had fallen in one of the recent battles. Though the lady thus raised from a comparatively humble position to a throne possessed great personal charms and an unblemished character, the marriage gave deep offence to Warwick and the Duke of Clarence, the King's brother. Edward increased the dissatisfaction of these nobles by showering honors and riches on the Woodville family, most of whom were Lancastrians. Warwick, and Clarence, who had become his son-in-law, plotted with the Lancastrians, and finally went over to their side. Warwick cemented his friendship with Margaret by procuring the marriage of the young Prince to his own daughter Anne.

Disaffection of Warwick.

6. In 1470, Warwick and Clarence, who had been in France with Margaret, crossed over to England, and soon found themselves at the head of an irresistible army. It was now Edward's turn to flee. He found refuge with his brother-in-law, Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy.

Flight of Edward IV.

7. Henry VI. was now brought forth from his confinement and placed on the throne. His second reign, which was purely nominal—Warwick being the real director of affairs—lasted only six months. In the spring of 1471, Edward returned from his temporary exile, and reaching London without encountering Warwick, quietly resumed the reins of government. His imbecile rival was sent back to his prison in the Tower.

Henry VI. recalled.

8. On the 14th of April 1471, the decisive battle between Edward and Warwick was fought at Barnet, on Gladsmoor Heath. The great King-maker was defeated and slain. Scores of the Lancastrian lords lay stretched on the fatal field beside their new ally and leader.

Battle of Barnet.

9. In the case of any spirit less resolute than that of Margaret, the defeat at Barnet and the death of Warwick would have ended the struggle. But one more brave effort was to be made. Margaret, with her son Prince Edward, now a promising youth of eighteen, landed in England on the very day of the disastrous battle. Edward, in conjunction with his brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, met her at Tewkesbury on the first of May 1471. The brave ex-Queen's forces were completely overthrown. Prince Edward was killed—either slain in battle, or, according to common report, brutally murdered afterwards. After the Battle of Wakefield, ten years before, the Lancastrians had slain the King's brother, the young Duke of Rutland. Prince Edward's fate was a terrible retaliation. Margaret herself was captured, and was confined in the Tower until her subsequent release by Louis XI. of France.

Battle of Tewkesbury.

10. The life of Henry VI. was of no particular account to Edward,

so long as Prince Edward lived to represent the Lancastrian cause. Now, however, the ex-King would serve as a point around which his party might rally. His death would plainly be serviceable to the King's cause, and we are not surprised to hear that it almost immediately followed that of his son. It was given out that he had died of grief.

Death of Henry VI.

11. We have seen that Edward's brother, the Duke of Clarence, had, under the influence of Warwick, deserted his cause at a critical time. Though the Duke afterwards deserted his father-in-law and assisted Edward at the Battle of Barnet, he was never forgiven. When once secure on his throne, Edward had Clarence accused and convicted of treason. His death in some unknown manner followed soon after.

Death of Clarence.

12. From the Battle of Tewkesbury until his death Edward IV. reigned about twelve years. These were marked by no events of consequence. In 1475 he invaded France; but nothing came of the movement except the so-called *Treaty of Pecquigny*, by which Edward agreed to release Margaret of Anjou for a stipulated price; and to give his eldest daughter, Elizabeth, in marriage to the Dauphin. The latter agreement was never fulfilled. Edward's favorite method of raising money for the support of his government and of his pleasures was by means of "benevolences," or forced loans, exacted from wealthy nobles and merchants. He was thus comparatively independent of Parliament.

Edward's reign.

13. Edward's constitution was impaired by intemperance, and he died in April 1483, at the early age of forty-two. He left two sons—Edward, aged twelve, and Richard, aged nine; also five daughters, the eldest of whom, Elizabeth, subsequently became the wife and Queen of Henry VII.

Death of Edward IV.

CHAPTER XXVII.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF YORK.—EDWARD V.
April to June, 1483 A.D.

1. Edward V., who reigned for a few months as nominal King of England, was a lad of twelve at his father's death. When that event took place he was at Ludlow Castle, in charge of Lord Rivers, his maternal uncle. On his way to London, he was met by his father's brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester. Rivers and the King's half-brother, Lord Grey, were treacherously seized by Gloucester and thrown into prison. Edward himself was brought to London, and placed under guard in the Tower. His mother, with her other son and her five daughters, took refuge in Westminster Abbey.

Accession of Edward V.

2. The Duke of Gloucester, who had evidently determined to make himself King, was appointed Protector. Lord Hastings, a powerful noble, who did not readily comply with Gloucester's plans, was accused of witchcraft and was immediately executed. The King's relatives, Rivers and Grey, were beheaded summarily at Pontefract. His brother, the young Duke of York, was taken from the sanctuary at Westminster and sent to the Tower.

Gloucester appointed Protector.

3. A Parliament had been summoned in the name of Edward V., and the 22nd of June was named as the day of the young King's coronation. This was artfully arranged to enable the Protector to secure the throne for himself. Shortly before the day fixed for Edward's coronation, a divine named Shaw, brother of the Lord Mayor, preached a sermon at St. Paul's Cross, in which he denied the legitimacy of the late King's marriage with Elizabeth Woodville, and asserted that Gloucester was his brother's true successor. A day or two later, a carefully contrived deputation, with the Duke of Buckingham at its head, waited on the Protector, and pressed the crown on his acceptance. With well dissembled reluctance, Gloucester accepted the trust thus offered. On the 8th of July 1483 he was crowned at Westminster. His wife, the new Queen, was a daughter of the great king-maker, Warwick, and the widow of Prince Edward, son of Henry VI.

Gloucester proclaimed King.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

PLANTAGENET LINE: HOUSE OF YORK.—RICHARD III. 1483 to 1485 A.D.

1. Richard of Gloucester was thirty-three years of age when he thus unlawfully seized the throne of England. During his brother's reign he had given proofs of great capacity. He was a deadly foe to encounter on the field of battle; and amid all the confusion of the times in which he lived he never lost his presence of mind. In planning, he was shrewd and far-seeing; in action, prompt and energetic. His character as depicted by Shakespeare was drawn to please the natural enemies of his family, and may be justly regarded as giving an exaggerated view of his moral deformities. At the same time, the plain facts of history show Richard to have been cruel, unscrupulous, and implacable.

Character of Richard III.

2. To secure popularity in the north, Richard had himself and his Queen re-crowned in York Minster. In various other ways he sought to make his rule acceptable to the people. But he found it impossible to suppress a strong sentiment of sympathy with the captive Princes. Soon the nation

Disappearance of the Princes.

was shocked, if not surprised, to hear that these innocent boys had disappeared. The commonly-received story is to the effect that a man named Tyrrel, acting under orders from the King, smothered them with pillows, and afterwards buried them under a stairway. This report, which is in itself probable, receives confirmation from the fact that in the reign of Charles II. some workmen engaged in making repairs found the bones of two boys buried under the staircase leading to the chapel of the Tower.

3. Richard soon found that, though he had won a crown, he had not secured the confidence of his subjects. He had now arrayed against him not only the Lancastrians, but also many of the Yorkists, who were indignant at the murder of his nephews. The Duke of Buckingham, a former supporter, deserted him. Efforts were made to effect a coalition of all the King's opponents. The Duke of Buckingham put himself at the head of the movement. Henry, Earl of Richmond, grandson of Owen Tudor and Catherine, widow of Henry V., and through his mother a remote descendant of John of Gaunt, was fixed on as Richard's successor. Richmond, who was an exile in Brittany, lent himself to the designs of the conspirators, assenting to his proposed marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. The attempt came to nought. Buckingham was defeated and slain. Richmond, after vainly trying to effect a landing on the southern coast, returned to France.

Coalition against Richard.

4. But one Parliament was held in Richard's reign. It passed a statute declaring "benevolences" unlawful. For the first time the Acts of Parliament were printed.

Parliament.

5. In 1484 Richard lost his only son, the young Prince Edward. The next year his Queen also died. On the death of his son and his wife, he declared his nephew, John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, heir to the throne. It is said that at one time he cherished the unnatural purpose of marrying his niece, Elizabeth of York.

Richard's family.

6. The failure of Buckingham's insurrection did not quench the ambition of the Earl of Richmond. Having been again invited to England by the various parties opposed to Richard, he carefully watched his opportunity. It must be understood that he had no rightful claim to the English throne. The Lancastrians accepted him as their representative, simply because their true royal line had been cut off in the carnage of the civil war. Richmond's descent from Edward III. was tainted with illegitimacy. In the popular estimation, though not in reality, his claim received some strength from the fact that his grandmother had been Queen.

Henry Earl of Richmond.

7. Richmond having collected a small force in Normandy, crossed

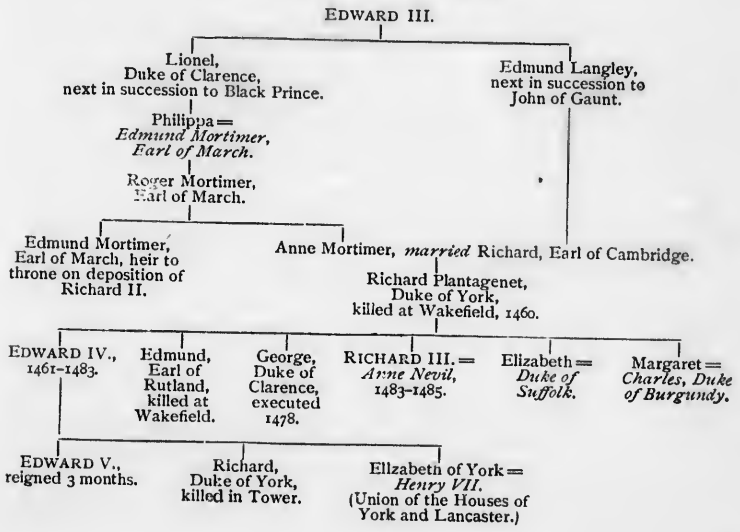
the Channel, and landed at Milford Haven, in Wales, in August 1485. As he advanced into the country, his army rapidly grew in size. Two powerful noblemen, Lord Stanley of Lancashire, and Percy, Earl of Northumberland, deserted Richard and ranged themselves under Richmond's standard. The rivals met, to fight the last battle of the War of the Roses, at Bosworth, or Market-Bosworth, on August 22nd 1485. The Red Rose triumphed at last. With the few followers who remained steadfast, Richard made a desperate struggle for victory. He fell, overpowered by numbers, as he was spurring forward to engage Richmond in personal combat. The latter was at once saluted as King, under the title of Henry VII.

Battle of Bosworth Field.

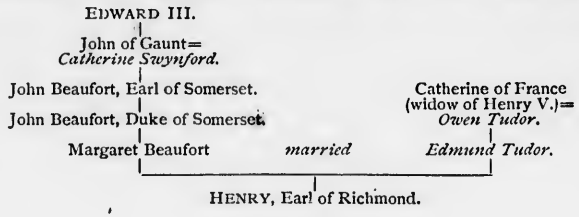
8. The War of the Roses was marked not only by fierce and bloody battles, but by cruel massacres, as victory placed either party under the power of the other. The leading men of the rival factions were specially marked out for slaughter. The consequence was that England was almost stripped of her nobility. It belongs to another place to treat of the important bearing of this fact on the development of the English nation.

The War of the Roses.

HOUSE OF YORK.



GENEALOGY OF HENRY TUDOR, EARL OF RICHMOND.



CHAPTER XXIX.

POLITICAL, SOCIAL, AND LITERARY PROGRESS DURING THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

Great changes.

1. During the three centuries and a quarter intervening between the accession of Henry of Anjou and the death at Bosworth of Richard of Gloucester, the political and social institutions of England underwent many important changes.

Limited monarchy.

2. It became an accepted principle of the constitution that the throne should be occupied by an hereditary Sovereign ruling with limited powers. The limiting power was exercised by Parliament, and had respect to three grand principles:—(1.) That, without the Parliament, the King could neither make, repeal, nor alter laws; (2.) That no tax could be imposed without the sanction of Parliament; (3.) That the Sovereign must rule according to law, his responsible advisers being answerable to Parliament in case of its violation.

Breaking up of the Feudal System.

3. With the growth of parliamentary power came the breaking up of the Feudal System. The barons ceased to be retainers of the Crown, rendering military service for lands held. They developed into an independent peerage of five orders or degrees—to wit, dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons. These titles, with their accompanying privileges, though in the first instance conferred by letters patent from the Sovereign, are hereditary.

Extinction of villeinage.

4. The same causes that enlarged the powers of Parliament, and limited the prerogatives of the King, tended to abolish villeinage or serfdom. This desirable result was also much furthered by the active exertions of the clergy. The Church, imitating the example of her Divine Founder, denounced oppression, and secured the emancipation of thousands of unhappy serfs. The War of the Roses, by sweeping away almost the entire nobility, removed the only class especially interested in retaining villeinage, and this virtually extinguished it.

5. The industrial arts made great progress during this period. The wearing of linen dates from the reign of Henry III.; that of woollens from the reign of Edward III. Towards the end of the Plantagenet epoch, coal-mining became an important branch of industry. Banking institutions were established, and gradually the basis of England's commercial supremacy was firmly laid. **Manufactures and trade.**

6. During this period, Gothic architecture filled England with its glorious creations—York Minster, the Cathedrals of Salisbury and Ely, Westminster Abbey, and St. George's Chapel, Windsor. **Architecture.**

7. When this period began, Latin was the language of the learned classes; French of the nobility and gentry; English, in its early or transition form, was the despised *patois* of the common people. Before its close, peer and peasant, "gentle and simple," alike, spoke English, whose modern form may be said to date from the introduction of the printing-press into England by William Caxton, in the reign of Edward IV. The Plantagenet period included a century of war with France, and thirty years of deadly strife between the Roses, to say nothing of other civil conflicts and almost constant hostilities with Scotland. We should not, therefore, be surprised to find it comparatively barren of great literary productions, which generally demand a somewhat settled condition of society. These centuries, however, gave forth some works of great value. Here it is only necessary for us to mention the "Canterbury Tales" of that immortal poet Geoffrey Chaucer. **Language and literature.**

8. The Plantagenet period saw the Norman and Anglo-Saxon races in England completely amalgamated. The reign of John contributed greatly to this result. By the loss of his Norman provinces, that bad King confined the ambition of his nobles within the limits of England; while by the oppression of all classes of his subjects alike, he led "the two races, so long hostile, to feel that they had common interests and common grievances." By putting a premium on what was distinctively *English*, the Hundred Years' War with France completed the work begun in the reign of John. **Fusion of races.**

CHAPTER XXX.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.—HENRY VII.

1485 to 1509. A.D.

1. Henry Tudor, as we have seen, became King under the title of Henry VII. His coronation, which was delayed by the prevalence of a terrible disease called "the Sweating Sickness," took place at Westminster, 1485. To Parlia- **Accession of Henry VII.**

ment he declared that he had "come to the throne by just title of inheritance and right of conquest." None knew better than Henry the falseness of the first claim, and he was therefore anxious to strengthen his position by marrying, according to previous arrangement, Elizabeth of York, the daughter of Edward IV. As a matter of fact, he reigned by a purely parliamentary title; for Parliament, without recognizing either the claim of blood or that of conquest, simply enacted that "the inheritance of the crown should be, rest, and abide in his most royal person." About a year after his coronation Henry married Elizabeth, and this united the Houses so long at variance.

His character.

2. The victor of Bosworth Field was in his thirtieth year when he began to reign. He possessed a cold, calculating disposition. He was reserved, crafty, and given to dissimulation. His ruling passion was avarice, which he indulged without much regard to the rights and feelings of his subjects. It is said that he treated his wife Elizabeth, who was a beautiful and virtuous woman, with great harshness; but of this there is no certain evidence.

Lambert Simnel.

3. The early part of Henry's reign was marked by risings prompted by the friends of the late King. His most bitter and determined enemy was Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV. She was one of the most remarkable women of the age, and no scheme to injure the House of Lancaster was too wild to merit her favor and support. One of Henry's first acts had been to confine in the Tower the young Earl of Warwick, son of the late Duke of Clarence. A rumor that Warwick had escaped from custody was seized on by the Duchess of Burgundy and other Yorkists—especially by Warwick's cousin, the Earl of Lincoln, son of Edward IV.'s sister Elizabeth—to put a pretender in the field. An ignoble impostor named Lambert Simnel was induced to come forward and claim to be the Earl of Warwick escaped from the Tower. In England, the King promptly exposed the trick by causing the real Warwick to be conveyed publicly through the streets of London. But in Ireland, where the Yorkist cause had always been popular, and where Simnel first displayed himself, the deception was for a time successful. The Duchess of Burgundy sent over two thousand German mercenaries under the command of a brave officer named Swartz. Thus encouraged and reinforced, the pretender, acting under the direction of Lincoln, invaded England. His motley forces were almost annihilated by the King at the Battle of Stoke-Bardolph, in Nottinghamshire. Lincoln and Swartz were slain on the field. Simnel was taken prisoner; and the King, in contemptuous pity, made him a scullion in his kitchen. It is said that by good conduct he subsequently advanced himself to the more dignified post of falconer.

4. In 1492, the peace of the kingdom was disturbed by a more plausible and mysterious impostor. A person, whose real name is believed to have been Perkin Warbeck, and who was a native of Tournay in Belgium, gave it out that he was Richard, Duke of York, second son of Edward IV. This claim had been suggested by a rumor that the young Prince referred to had not shared the fate of Edward V. in the Tower, but had escaped, and was still at large. There seems to be no reason to doubt that many Yorkists sincerely believed in Warbeck's claims. Margaret of Burgundy professed to identify him positively as her nephew, and called him *the White Rose of England.* For a time his pretensions gained amazing credit. He was honorably received at the Court of France. Influential nobles in England, who were hostile to the King, thought it worth while to correspond with one who claimed to be the true heir to the throne. This led—for Henry had surrounded himself with a net-work of spies—to the arrest and execution of Sir William Stanley, who had fought for the King at Bosworth, on the charge of treasonable correspondence with Warbeck. After vainly trying to effect a landing in Ireland, the impostor repaired to Scotland, where King James IV. hospitably entertained him, and gave him in marriage a near kinswoman of his own. The Scottish King even went so far as to lead an army into England in Warbeck's interest; but he returned to his own realm on finding the English disinclined to rise in support of so shadowy a claim. In 1497 peace between Henry and James obliged the adventurer to retire from Scotland. Warbeck's last game was played in Cornwall. There the people had been exasperated by a tax levied on them, and they flocked to his standard in considerable numbers. But "the last of the Plantagenets" did not display the courage generally ascribed to his race. He deserted his deluded followers, took refuge in a sanctuary, and shortly afterwards surrendered on obtaining a promise of his life. For nearly two years he suffered a mild captivity in the Tower. Then a charge was suddenly preferred against him of plotting with his fellow-prisoner, Warwick, for their common escape. He was hanged at Tyburn in November 1499. A few days later, Warwick, who had been imprisoned for fourteen years for no other crime than his birth, was beheaded. His life was plainly sacrificed to promote the selfish interests of the King. He was the last legitimate descendant of the Plantagenets, and his presence naturally excited Henry's jealousy and sense of danger. His death left the first Tudor King without a rival to disturb his dreams.

Perkin Warbeck.

5. One of the chief aims of Henry's life was to amass treasures which would make him independent of appeals to Parliament for aid. So well did he succeed, that during the last thirteen years of his reign he found it necessary to convoke but a single Parliament. To obtain

money, he did not scruple to resort to the most unjust and illegal means.

Henry's avarice and extortions.

"Benevolences," or forced loans, though declared unlawful by Parliament, were revived. Wealthy persons convicted of crime soon found that there was one way of obtaining pardon—namely, by purchasing it. Obsolete laws were raked up and put in force to aid in the successful practice of extortion. Innocent men, if *rich*, lived in mortal terror of the spies and informers by whom they were surrounded. In the infamous work of wringing money from the people by fraud, Henry found fitting instruments in two men named Dudley and Empson. The former, who at one time was Speaker of the House of Commons, disgraced a respectable birth and talents of no mean order; the latter's origin was as vile as his conduct. To lend dignity to their illegal exactions, the King created Empson and Dudley "Barons of the Exchequer."

6. With the growth of parliamentary power, the Royal Council of the Norman and the early Plantagenet Kings had fallen into disuse after the reign of Edward III. Henry revived this Council under the title of "Star Chamber" (a name conferred upon it in the reign of Edward III.), and made it an instrument of the most odious tyranny. The criminal jurisdiction given to this secret and irresponsible body gave the King almost absolute control over the lives and fortunes of his subjects. In after years England had reason to curse the day on which the Star Chamber was revived.

The Star Chamber.

7. Henry VII.'s foreign policy was cautious in the extreme. At one time he declared that affairs in France demanded his interference. Parliament promptly voted supplies, which the King readily and gratefully accepted. The money was quietly deposited in the royal coffers, beside that which the crafty and avaricious King took care to raise by means of "benevolences." A few troops were sent over to Brittany, and afterwards Henry crossed the Channel with a small army. But peace was concluded without a single blow being struck, in accordance with a secret understanding which had existed all along between the French and English Kings. By the so-called *Treaty of Estaples*, Charles VII. agreed to pay Henry a sum equal to £149,000. Here was a King who understood the art of money-making.

Henry's foreign policy.

8. In 1501, a marriage was contracted between the King's eldest son, Prince Arthur, and a Spanish Princess, Catharine of Aragon. The young Prince died in less than a year after the marriage. An engagement was then made for the widow with Henry's second son, Prince Henry. A Papal dispensation permitting the Prince to marry his brother's wife was obtained. In 1503, the King's eldest daughter, Margaret, was married to James IV.

Royal marriages.

of Scotland. From this marriage there resulted in time the union of England and Scotland under one Sovereign.

9. Henry VII. died at Richmond, a few miles from London, in April 1509. He was buried at Westminster, in that beautiful Chapel of the famous Abbey which perpetuates his name. It is said that his last days were clouded with remorse on account of his illegal exactions, and that he gave a dying charge to his successor to undo, as far as possible, the wrongs which Dudley and Empson had inflicted on innocent men. **Death of Henry VII.**

10. Parliament meeting seldom, the legislation of the reign of Henry VII. was meagre and unimportant. A statute was enacted suppressing *maintenance*, or the system by which the greater nobles supported large numbers of retainers, and thus made themselves rivals of the King. Another Act defined the duty of subjects to the reigning Sovereign. To speak technically, *allegiance* was declared to be due to the *de facto* (the actual) King, as distinguished from the *de jure* (rightful) one. **Legislation.**

11. The period of Henry's reign was throughout Europe marked by great intellectual activity. The revival of learning spread from Italy into other countries. Three great inventions—gunpowder, the printing-press, and the mariner's compass—had already brought about important changes, and were making their influence felt in England. It is to Henry's credit that he obtained for his country some share in the glory of maritime discovery. To the expeditions of John Cabot and his son Sebastian, which sailed from Bristol under the auspices and at the expense of the English King, we owe the discovery of the mainland of North America. **Great events.**

CHAPTER XXXI.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.—HENRY VIII.
1509 to 1547 A.D.

1. In Henry, the second son of the late King, England had at length a Sovereign who reigned with an undisputed title. In the plume of Henry VIII. the colors of the rival Roses were inextricably blended. The young King being now eighteen years of age, proceeded to carry out the marriage contract with Catharine of Aragon, the widow of his deceased brother Arthur. The royal nuptials were performed on the 7th of June, two months after Henry's accession. The coronation took place a fortnight later in Westminster Abbey. **Accession of Henry VIII.**

2. Under the guidance of his father's trusted adviser, the Bishop of Winchester, Henry devoted himself to his new duties with considerable energy. Empson and Dudley, the ministers of the late monarch's avarice, were executed on **Beginning of reign.**

a charge of treason. No restitution was made, however, to those whom their rapacity had impoverished. Then followed a period of mirth-making, of splendid tournaments, of gay processions. In a right royal manner did the jovial King dissipate the treasures heaped up by his parsimonious father. It is too soon to draw a picture of his character. All that we know of him up to this point leads us to expect a prosperous reign. As he verged on manhood, Henry was a model of physical strength and beauty. He was so frank, so generous, so kingly in his bearing, that few noticed in his character the germs of evil qualities by which his later life was darkened and disgraced. His abilities were good. No Prince of his time had such an extensive knowledge of literature. He was a well-read theologian, and an excellent linguist, speaking Latin, French, and Spanish with fluency. The first twenty years of his reign gave little proof of that arbitrary temper and those consuming passions which his name so readily suggests.

Battle of the Spurs.

3. Anxious to regain for England some influence on the Continent, Henry was led to declare war against Louis XII. of France in 1511. His allies were the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, and his own father-in-law, Ferdinand of Spain. Taking the field in person, he encountered the French at Guinegate, near Boulogne. The French troops fled with such precipitate haste that the affair is known as *the Battle of Spurs*.

Battle of Flodden Field.

4. In the same year as the Battle of Spurs (1513), James IV. of Scotland invaded England in the interest of his ally, Louis of France. He was defeated and slain by the English, under the Earl of Surrey, at the Battle of Flodden Field.

Peace.

5. In 1514, Henry made peace both with France and with Scotland. The reconciliation with France was cemented by the marriage of Louis XII. with Mary, Henry's youngest sister. Louis dying soon afterwards, his widow married the English Duke of Suffolk. She thus became the grandmother of Lady Jane Grey.

The German Empire.

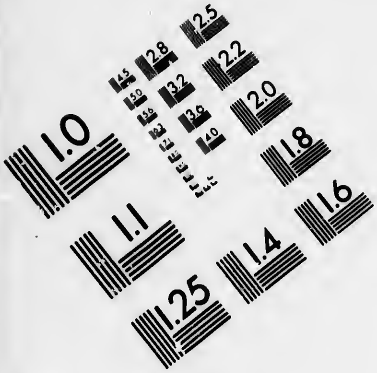
6. Henry's father-in-law, Ferdinand of Spain, died in 1516, and was succeeded by his grandson, Charles of Austria, a Prince of vast possessions and still vaster ambition. Three years later (1519) the death of the Emperor Maximilian left the splendid prize of the German Empire to be competed for by the Princes of western Christendom. There were three candidates—Charles, who was already lord of Spain, Austria, the Netherlands, Sicily, and Naples; Francis I. of France; and Henry VIII. of England. The last, however, did not press his claims. The real struggle lay between Charles and Francis. Charles was chosen by an immense majority of the electors, and became Charles V. of Germany: his defeated rival vowed revenge.

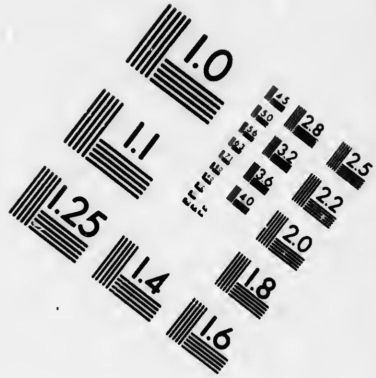
7. In their succeeding conflicts, both of these powerful Princes sought to secure the support of Henry. In 1520, the Emperor visited England, and was received by his uncle* with the state due to the greatest monarch in the world. **Henry courted.** The same year the Kings of France and England met near Calais, on territory belonging to the latter. Tournaments of unheard-of splendor were held, giving to the site of the festivities the name of *the Field of the Cloth of Gold.* After this, the Emperor and Henry had a second interview, and eventually England espoused the cause of Germany. The English King, however, did not take a very active part in the struggle. In 1525, at the famous Battle of Pavia, Charles V. completely annihilated the forces of his rival, the King of France, who was himself taken prisoner. In 1526, the Treaty of Madrid restored Francis to his throne; and in 1527 he and the English King became reconciled, the latter agreeing to renounce all claim to the crown of France.

8. The early part of the reign of Henry VIII. was contemporaneous with the rise of Protestantism in Germany. In 1522, a year after Martin Luther had been condemned for heresy by the Diet of Worms, Henry endeavored to prevent the spread of the new doctrines into England by publishing a treatise in defence of the Seven Sacraments of the Church. In return for this service, he received from the Pope the title of "Defender of the Faith" (*Fidei Defensor*); which is still retained as one of the regular designations of the English Sovereign. **Defender of the Faith.**

9. For a short time after his accession, Henry VIII. acted under the advice of Fox, Bishop of Winchester, and Howard, Earl of Surrey, members of his father's Council. These counsellors were soon supplanted by Thomas Wolsey, a clergyman who lived to see himself successively Dean of York, Bishop of Lincoln, Archbishop of York, Cardinal, and Papal Legate. During the first half of Henry's reign, Wolsey filled the high position of Chancellor of the Realm, and had the supreme direction of affairs, both home and foreign. He was a man of remarkable talents and unbounded ambition. Foreign Princes courted his favor, while his own master rewarded his services in the most munificent manner. He was a generous patron of learning. Under the name of *Cardinal* College, he founded the now famous College of Christ Church at Oxford. Two palaces, Hampton Court and Whitehall, afterwards the abodes of royalty, were built by him for his own use. He shaped the foreign policy of England according to his personal ends, counselling alliance, now with Charles, now with Francis. At home his great **Wolsey.**

* Charles V.'s mother, Joanna of Aragon, was sister to Queen Catharine of England.





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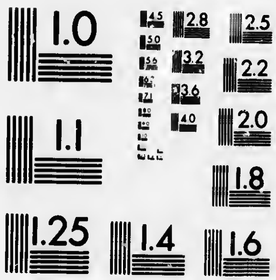

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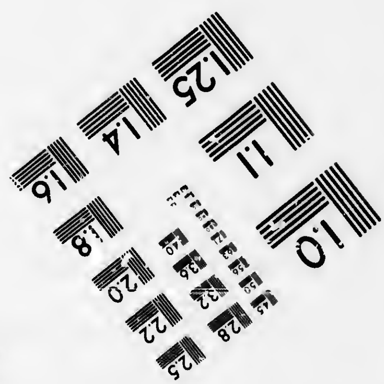


end was to make his master an absolute sovereign, with himself as his sole adviser and executive. In his capacity of Chancellor, Wolsey showed that he possessed a mind of wonderful judicial breadth and impartiality.

10. As his reign advanced, the King became more and more despotic. To rule without Parliament was the aim both of himself and of his favorite minister. From 1515 to 1522 no Parliament sat. In 1523 it became absolutely necessary to call one, "benevolences" and other illegal methods of raising money having failed to supply the amount required. A stormy scene occurred when Wolsey appeared in the House of Commons to demand in the King's name an immediate vote of £800,000. The Speaker, Sir Thomas More, boldly pleaded the ancient privileges of Parliament, and the King was obliged to content himself with half of the sum demanded.

Discontinuance of Parliament.

11. We are now approaching the turning-point of Henry's career. He has reached the middle of his reign, and his character has been gradually changing for the worse. In the year 1527, he surprised his subjects by announcing doubts as to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow, Catharine, who had born him one child, Mary, afterwards Queen. Catharine was much his senior, but was a most amiable, virtuous, and accomplished lady.

Catharine of Aragon.

12. The King professed to be disturbed in mind by the doubts which had arisen in his mind as to the validity of the Papal dispensation sanctioning his marriage. But the explanation of these doubts appeared when it was seen that Henry had transferred his affections from his wife to a lady of the Court named Anna Boleyn. Anna Boleyn possessed great personal charms, and for a time completely captivated the King, who openly paid her attentions due only to his lawful wife.

Anna Boleyn.

13. The King soon made up his mind to put away Catharine. He therefore applied to the Pope for a divorce, on the ground that the dispensation under which the marriage had taken place was, for various reasons, invalid. Before this, however, he composed a treatise on the subject, in which he tried to show that his demand was justified by the teachings of Scripture.

Divorce determined on.

14. On being applied to for a divorce, the Pope, who was then a prisoner in the hands of Catharine's nephew, Charles V., appointed a Commission, consisting of Wolsey and Cardinal Campeggio, an Italian, with the rank of Legates, to consider the question and report on the facts. The Commission began its sittings in London, in May 1529. With queenly dignity, Catharine refused to plead before a court whose authority she declined to

Commission appointed.

recognize. The Commission did not reach a decision. Two months after its proceedings began, it was broken up by orders to transfer the question to Rome, where the King and Queen were summoned to appear.

Downfall of Wolsey.

15. It is generally believed that in his early movements for a divorce Henry received encouragement from Wolsey. The Cardinal, it is said, regarded the fact that the Papal dispensation had been obtained without the knowledge or wish of the young Prince as sufficient to release him from all obligation. But subsequent study did not confirm this view, and, as a member of the Commission, Wolsey hesitated for the first time to gratify his royal master. His hesitation sealed his doom. Both the King and Anna Boleyn blamed him for the delays of the Commission and for its adjournment without a decision. He was deprived of the office of Chancellor in October 1529. Further disgraces, mingled, however, with some marks of royal favor, awaited him. He was prosecuted for violating the *Statute of Præmunire* by holding an ecclesiastical court in England without the King's permission. Henry eased his fall by permitting him to retain the Archbishopric of York, though he stripped him of all his other possessions. For a few months the fallen Chancellor enjoyed comparative quiet. But his enemies were active. A new charge of treason was preferred against him, to meet which he was summoned to London. He journeyed as far as to Leicester, where a severe attack of dysentery compelled him to halt. Entering the abbey, he had only strength to say: "Father abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you;" adding with his dying breath: "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the King, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs." Whatever may have been his faults, Thomas Wolsey was one of the greatest of Englishmen. A comparison of Henry's career *before* and *after* his death shows that he exercised a restraining influence on that monarch's passions.

Wolsey's successors.

16. In the office of Chancellor, Wolsey was succeeded by Sir Thomas More, a man of eminent genius and lovable character. More was distinguished both as a statesman and as an author. He published his political speculations in a remarkable book entitled *Utopia*. His retiring nature was ill-fitted for his new duties, and he retired as soon as he saw that the King was bent on a final breach with the Papal See. Soon we shall find him dying, a martyr for his opinions. Thomas Cranmer, a divine of moderate attainments, took Wolsey's place as ecclesiastical adviser of the Court. He also was destined to die a victim to the religious fury of the times. He had recommended himself to Henry by writing in advocacy of the divorce, and especially by efforts, mostly in vain, to obtain opinions in its favor from the universities and the theologians of the Continent. But Wolsey's real successor was his own favorite secretary, Thomas

Cromwell. This remarkable man gained the King's good-will by advising him to solve the difficulties connected with the divorce by disavowing the Papal jurisdiction and placing the supreme government of the Church in England in his own hands. It would then be an easy matter to obtain a divorce. Henry eagerly caught at the suggestion. Cromwell was immediately sworn a member of the Privy Council, and for a number of years was the most powerful subject in England. Both Cranmer and Cromwell were in sympathy with that great religious movement which has received the name of the *Reformation*. It thus happened that greater changes were introduced into England in connection with religion than Henry himself intended.

Henry acknowledged head of the Church.

17. Acting on Cromwell's bold suggestion, Henry now declared himself supreme governor of the Church within his own realm. The clergy in Convocation were compelled to acknowledge this claim, though their zealous opposition required the insertion of the saving clause, "in so far as is permitted by the law of Christ." This action was taken in 1531, and in the following year notice was given that the payment of *annates*, or "first-fruits"—that is, the first year's income of all sees in which a new bishop was appointed—would in future be withheld from Rome. It was this indication of hostility to the Pope that led to the immediate resignation of Sir Thomas More.

The Pope rebukes Henry.

18. Foreseeing the drift of events in England, the Pope forbade Henry, on pain of excommunication, to make use of his own courts to secure the divorce which had been denied him by the highest tribunal in Christendom. He also rebuked him for bringing Anna Boleyn to his palace and putting her in the place rightfully belonging to his wedded wife.

Henry marries Anna Boleyn.

19. Henry replied to the Pope's challenge by the *Statute of Appeals*, an Act which made illegal the carrying of appeals, or ecclesiastical cases of any kind, to the Court of Rome. Thus at one blow the artful Cromwell destroyed the judicial power of the Pope in England. Instead of appearing at Rome to answer for his conduct, Henry was privately married to Anna Boleyn in January 1533.

Cranmer's decision.

20. Meantime Cranmer had been appointed Archbishop of Canterbury. His first official act was to pronounce the King's marriage to Catharine invalid—"null and void" by the Divine law—from the beginning. This decision was announced in May 1533, and was at once followed by the coronation of Anna Boleyn as Queen of England.

Act of Supremacy.

21. In 1534 an *Act of Supremacy* was passed declaring the King to be "the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England." To withhold or deny this title was to incur the penalty of high treason.

22. At the same time Parliament solemnly confirmed the sentence of Cranmer's court respecting the divorce. The marriage with Anna Boleyn was confirmed, and the Princess Mary, Catharine's daughter, was excluded from the succession. **Act of Succession.**

23. Henry and Cromwell were terribly in earnest. The Act of Supremacy was by no means a dead letter. Among those who could not conscientiously subscribe to the oath which it embodied were Fisher, the venerable bishop of Rochester, now upwards of seventy years old, and the ex-chancellor, Sir Thomas More. They were ruthlessly executed. More died with the fortitude of a philosopher; Fisher with the serenity of a Christian, exclaiming as he laid his head on the fatal block, "This is life eternal, to know thee, the only true God." **Persecution.**

24. The years subsequent to her divorce were spent by Queen Catharine in retirement. Through all the trying circumstances of her lot she demeaned herself with great dignity. In the interests of her daughter Mary, she declined to leave England for an asylum on the Continent, offered her by her nephew Charles V. She died in 1536, praying with her last breath for "the salvation of her dear lord and master." Four months afterwards her rival, Anna Boleyn, died too, but a different death. She had lost her hold on the King's affections. A charge of unchastity was preferred against her. She was adjudged guilty, and hurried to the block. She left one child, Elizabeth, of whom we shall hear again. Anna Boleyn had "the fatal gift of beauty," but her innocence of the crime laid to her charge is believed by many. **Deaths of the rival Queens.**

25. The day after Anna's execution the capricious tyrant married a lady named Jane Seymour. She died within a year, after giving birth to a son, who subsequently reigned as Edward VI. An Act was passed excluding the issue of the two former Queens from the succession, and settling it on the offspring of Jane Seymour. A general power, however, was given to the King to devise the crown by will. Henry next married a German Princess, Anne of Cleves. This union was brought about by Cromwell with the design of bringing Henry under Protestant influence. The attempt was not successful. The coarse person of Anne displeased the King's taste, and a separation was soon quietly arranged. The decline of Cromwell's power dates from this ill-assorted union. Henry's next wife was Catharine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk. Reports damaging to his Queen's reputation soon reached his ears, and at once orders were given for her execution. Henry's sixth and last wife was Catharine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer. She had tact enough so to manage her husband as to outlive him. **Other wives of Henry VIII.**

Suppression of monasteries.

26. In 1536 the abolition of the monasteries, many of which were very wealthy corporations, was decided on. The task was assigned to Cromwell, with the title of Vicar-General. He performed it thoroughly. First the smaller monasteries were suppressed. Three years later (1539) violent hands were laid on the larger ones. A part of the confiscated revenues was used in founding new bishoprics; but much the larger portion was appropriated by Henry himself, or was distributed among his courtiers.

The progress of Protestantism.

27. Henry VIII. remained to the last a believer in the main doctrines of the Catholic Church. Still, circumstances at times drove him to courses that favored Protestantism. He found in Cranmer and Cromwell such efficient instruments in aiding him to gratify his passions and increase his power, that he was led naturally to assent to religious changes which they represented to be for his own interest. Thus *Articles of Religion* were adopted by Convocation which varied essentially from the Roman standards. The Bible and the Three Creeds were recognized as the sole bases of doctrine. The Lutheran dogma of justification by faith was given a place alongside of penance and transubstantiation. The blow which had stricken down the Papacy in England bade fair to make religious opinion a chaos.

Death of Cromwell.

28. For some time Cromwell's power had been waning. The King never forgave him for arranging his marriage with the homely and repulsive Anne of Cleves. The powerful party which supported Henry in rejecting the authority of the Pope, but which at the same time zealously adhered to Catholic doctrine and tradition, could ill brook a minister under whom England was rapidly becoming Protestant. Cromwell's race was run. He was impeached, and convicted of high treason. In July 1540 he was beheaded on Tower Hill.

The Bloody Statute.

29. The year before Cromwell's death, the rising influence of the Catholic party, under the leadership of Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, was shown by the passage of an Act called the *Statute of Six Articles*, but popularly known as the *Bloody Statute*. The "Six Articles" are six fundamental points of the Catholic faith. Many Protestants lost their lives for refusing to subscribe to these articles, as did many Catholics for declining to acknowledge the King's supremacy. It is said that once six of the former and three of the latter were put to death on the same day.

War with Scotland.

30. In 1541, Henry's nephew, James V. of Scotland, irritated by his uncle's attacks on the Papal authority, sent an army across the Border. This army was easily defeated at Solway Moss, and James died shortly afterwards of a broken heart. His infant daughter was the famous *Mary, Queen of Scots.*

31. Time healed the breach between Henry and his other nephew, Charles V. of Germany. In 1544 they united to make war against the French King, Francis I. Henry took the field in person, and captured Boulogne. Francis was soon forced to conclude a peace advantageous to England. **War with France.**

32. The later years of Henry's reign were stained by some deeds of atrocious cruelty. In 1538, the new Pope, Paul III., issued a bull excommunicating and deposing Henry. This act was attributed to the influence of Cardinal Pole, an Englishman of the royal Plantagenet line, grandson of the last Duke of Clarence and great-grandson of Warwick, "the King-maker." Not being able to lay hands on Pole, who was out of the kingdom, Henry seized and beheaded his beautiful and venerable mother, Margaret, Countess of Salisbury, first cousin of his own mother, Elizabeth of York. Henry's last victim was the Earl of Surrey, son and heir of the Duke of Norfolk. The Duke himself was doomed to death, but he fortunately escaped, the warrant for his execution having been issued only the day before Henry died. **Henry's cruelty.**

33. Henry VIII. died on the 28th of January 1547. His luxurious habits of life had brought on a corpulency which made existence a burden. A virulent ulcer caused him great suffering, and so aggravated his ill-temper that his attendants durst scarcely approach him. His death excited but little regret in either of the two great parties into which his kingdom had become divided. By his will, which Parliament had given him authority to make, he bequeathed the crown to Edward, his son by Jane Seymour, now a lad of nine years. Should Edward die childless, the succession was assigned, first to Mary, his daughter by Catharine of Aragon, and her heirs; and then to Elizabeth, his daughter by Anna Boleyn, and her heirs. Another clause of the will provided for the appointment of a council to direct the young King during his minority. At its head was placed his maternal uncle the Earl of Hertford, better known by his subsequent title of Duke of Somerset. **Henry's death.**

34. Henry VIII. reigned, especially during the latter part of his reign, with the powers of an absolute sovereign. Parliament continued to meet; but, under the management of Wolsey and Cromwell, it sank into a mere instrument for registering the King's decrees. Persons charged with political offences saw themselves deprived of all chance of justice; for they were no longer tried by the ordinary courts, but were summarily condemned by Parliament through bills of attainder. Treason was so minutely defined and so vaguely extended that even the innocent could not escape suspicion, and men were liable to be hanged for their very thoughts. It was possible to incur *in advance* the guilt and terrible consequences of heresy. Individuals were liable to be **Government of Henry VIII.**

punished for rejecting *to-day* doctrines which might not be declared heretical until *to-morrow*.

Character of Henry VIII.

35. It must not be forgotten that Henry's reign naturally divides itself into two parts—that which *preceded* and that which *followed* his divorce from Catharine of Aragon. During the first half of his reign, Henry was the gay and splendid monarch; devoted to pleasure, yet not neglectful of business; lavish of the treasures hoarded by his father; anxious to raise England to a higher place among the European nations; interesting himself in the progress of education; and writing in defence of his religious opinions. The course of events accompanying and succeeding the divorce rapidly developed the worst elements of his nature. Base appetites obtained the mastery over him. He became at once cruel, haughty, and licentious. Flattered by servile courtiers, he respected neither the rights of man nor the law of God. With impartial cruelty he beheaded Catholics for opposing his spoliations of the Church, and burned Protestants for rejecting his definitions of religion.

General progress.

36. Notwithstanding the religious troubles which prevailed, England continued to advance as a commercial nation. Like his father, Henry devoted much care to the building up of an efficient royal navy. Learning also received much encouragement. On his death-bed he munificently endowed that great seat of science, Trinity College, Cambridge. Christ Church College, Oxford, originally founded by Wolsey as *Cardinal College*, reveres his memory as its chief benefactor.

CHAPTER XXXII.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.—EDWARD VI.
1547 to 1553 A.D.

Accession of Edward VI.

1. According to the terms of his father's will, Prince Edward, then in his tenth year, ascended the throne under the title of Edward VI. He was crowned at Westminster on February 28th 1547. The whole power of the Council of Regency appointed by his father in his will was illegally assumed by its President, Lord Hertford. He took the title of *Protector*, and was created Duke of Somerset.

The Protector.

2. The Protector was brother of Jane Seymour, and therefore uncle of the young King. He was naturally interested in the welfare of his nephew; while the fact that he had no royal blood in his veins tended to disarm popular suspicion. As a zealous Protestant, he took care to have the King trained in the principles of the new faith. The Earl of Southampton,

champion of the Catholic interests, was dismissed from the Council. Somerset made himself the real King of England.

3. Henry VIII. had all but arranged by treaty for a marriage between his son and the young Princess Mary of Scotland. Somerset invaded Scotland to secure the carrying out of this project. Though he signally defeated the Earl of Arran, the Scottish Regent, at the Battle of Pinkie, he failed to accomplish the object of the expedition. Mary was sent out of the country, and betrothed to the Dauphin of France. **Battle of Pinkie.**

4. The country was now divided into two well-defined parties. The Protector, as leader of the Protestant cause, received strong support from Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, and from Latimer, Hooper, Ridley, and other clergymen of note. The chief supporters of the old religion were the Earl of Southampton, Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and Bonner, Bishop of London. **Leaders of parties.**

5. Somerset being completely in the ascendant, a series of important religious changes was rapidly developed. The "Statute of the Six Articles" was repealed; the Missal and the Breviary, long in use, were replaced by the English Book of Common Prayer; peremptory orders were issued to remove all images and other objects of religious veneration from the churches; the service of the Mass was prohibited; priests were allowed to marry. The strong arm of the law was vigorously used to carry these sweeping changes into effect. Gardiner and Bonner, who resisted them, were summarily deprived of their sees. In the interests of Protestantism, all the penal laws of the late reign were annulled; even the obsolete statutes against Lollardism were formally rescinded. **Religious changes.**

6. Somerset's rapid rise and arbitrary government raised up against him powerful enemies. One of these was his own brother, Thomas Seymour, Lord High Admiral of England. Seymour had married the Queen-Dowager, Catharine Parr, and is said to have aspired to the hand of the Princess Elizabeth. His plot against his brother the Protector was unsuccessful. He was beheaded on Tower Hill, in March 1549. John Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of the Dudley who had ministered to the rapacity of Henry VII., proved a more dangerous foe. Under his later title of Duke of Northumberland, he has earned a conspicuous if not an enviable place in English history. **Somerset's enemies.**

7. The year 1549 was marked by several risings against the Government. These have been variously ascribed to social and to religious causes. Undoubtedly the popular discontent was to some extent due to the scarcity and high price of food. Immense quantities of land, formerly owned by the Church and leased at low rates, were now in the hands of nobles, who exacted **Popular outbreaks.**

much higher rents than the former proprietors had demanded. Still it is clear that dissatisfaction with the recent religious changes was the chief cause of the outbreaks. The mass of the people, outside of London and a few of the larger towns, were attached to the doctrines and usages of the Roman Catholic Church. Some of these rose in arms to resist changes which they neither desired nor understood. The rising in the west was put down by Lord Russell, that in the east by the Earl of Warwick.

Fall of Somerset.

8. Somerset did not long retain his high position. A powerful combination was formed against him. The nobility hated him on account of his real or supposed sympathy with the common people in their social grievances. He had made himself unpopular by confiscating ecclesiastical revenues and by spending the money in rearing an immense palace on the Strand, where *Somerset* House now stands. The Catholic party thought that any change from such a ruler would help their cause. He was charged with having mismanaged affairs at Boulogne. The time of his fall had come. Dismissed from office in 1549, he was allowed to live till 1552, when he was arraigned on a charge of felony, convicted, and beheaded.

Duke of Northumberland.

9. The Earl of Warwick succeeded to the office and power of Somerset. He was created Duke of Northumberland. To the surprise of all, especially of the Catholics, Northumberland labored to promote the spread of the new doctrines even more ardently than Somerset had done. Bishops who adhered to the Church of Rome were ejected, and the chief sees were filled by the appointment of leading Protestant clergymen. Coverdale became Bishop of Exeter; Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester; and Ridley, Bishop of London. The Protestant faith was defined in *Articles of Religion*, forty-two at first, but afterwards reduced to thirty-nine. A *Book of Homilies* (or sermons) was prepared, and its use was made authoritative in all the churches. Northumberland was a selfish, scheming man; and it is easy to see that his religious zeal was not altogether disinterested.

Ambitious designs of the Duke.

10. In 1552 the young King gave evident signs of failing health. Meantime the Princess Mary, next in succession according to the late King's will, inflexibly maintained her adherence to the Catholic religion. She could neither be frightened nor bribed into abandoning the faith of her mother. Northumberland saw a chance of securing the crown for his own family. His fourth son, Lord Guilford Dudley, had married Lady Jane Grey, granddaughter of Henry VIII.'s youngest sister, Mary, Duchess of Suffolk. He therefore persuaded the dying King to alter the succession in favor of this beautiful and virtuous lady, who was all the time ignorant of his artful and ambitious designs.

Mary, the rightful heir, was (he argued to the King) out of the question, for she would upset the reformed Protestant faith; besides, both she and her sister Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate by Acts of Parliament. Henry VIII.'s will had excluded the heirs of his sister Margaret of Scotland, and in default of heirs to his own children, had bequeathed the crown to the heirs of his sister Mary. The appeal to Edward's strong Protestant feelings was successful. The young King did what he could to disinherit his sisters. Letters-patent were signed bequeathing the crown to Lady Jane Grey.

Death of Edward VI.

11. Edward died on the 6th of July 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age, and the seventh of his reign. He was a pious and gentle youth, of scholarly tastes and habits. His relation to the important events of his reign, which still affect the whole structure and tone of English society, was but that of a spectator; though undoubtedly the strong Protestant sentiments with which his mind was imbued made easier the task of Somerset and Northumberland in effecting a religious revolution.

Events of the reign.

12. An immense amount of ecclesiastical property was confiscated during Edward's reign. Much of the proceeds was worse than wasted in furthering the designs of ambitious leaders. With a part, however, a number of schools were founded, which are still known as *King Edward the Sixth's Free Grammar Schools*. Shortly before Edward's death an expedition was sent, under the command of Sebastian Cabot, to discover a north-eastern route to China and India. One of the vessels was wrecked off the coast of Norway, but a part of the fleet reached the Russian port of Archangel. Cabot himself is supposed to have perished on the frozen shores of Nova Zembla.

Northumberland foiled.

13. On Edward's death, the first effort of Northumberland was to secure, if possible, the persons of the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth. In this he failed; and he soon found that he had miscalculated the temper of the nation. The majority of the Council deserted him on the proclamation of Lady Jane Grey as Queen, on the 10th of July. The nation as a whole strongly supported the cause of hereditary right. Mary entered London in triumph. Northumberland, with Lady Jane and her husband, was committed to the Tower.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.—MARY I.
1553 to 1558 A.D.

1. Mary entered London as Queen on August 3rd, 1553. A fortnight before, after a brief sovereignty of nine days, Lady Jane Grey

had resigned all claim to the crown, which she had never desired to wear. With her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, she was committed to the Tower. The execution of the sentence of death, which was soon passed on them, was, by the Queen's command, deferred. No mercy was shown to Northumberland, the framer of the plot to disinherit Mary. Having been convicted of treason, he was beheaded on August 22nd. He died acknowledging his guilt, and declaring that after many wanderings he had returned to the fold of the Catholic Church. Gardiner, Bonner, and other bishops who had been deposed by Edward, were taken from the Tower and restored to their sees. Archbishop Cranmer, together with Ridley, Latimer, and Hooper, Protestant bishops, was thrown into prison.

Accession of Mary.

2. The first Queen that ever swayed the English sceptre began to reign at the mature age of thirty-seven. Mary possessed great firmness of character, but few personal attractions. The troubles through which she had passed left their mark both on her countenance and on her disposition. The latter bordered on the melancholy. She was ardently attached to the Roman Catholic religion, for her fidelity to which she had suffered much inconvenience during her late brother's reign. Like all the Tudors, she was courageous and self-willed.

Character of Mary.

3. Early in 1554 symptoms of popular discontent began to appear. The Protestants were alarmed at the steps taken to re-establish the old religion, while all classes disapproved of the Queen's contemplated marriage with Philip of Spain, son and heir of her cousin, the Emperor Charles V. In Kent a formidable revolt broke out under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wyatt. Wyatt's aim, apparently, was to dethrone the Queen and transfer the succession to her sister Elizabeth. The insurgents marched on London with but little opposition. They seized the suburbs of Southwark and Westminster. In this crisis the Queen displayed the courage of her race. By her promptness the Tower gates were closed, and Wyatt was foiled in his attempt to cross London Bridge. The rebel leader then endeavored to enter the city from Westminster; but by the time he reached Temple Bar so many of his followers had deserted him that he gave himself up to the royal forces. He was condemned, and was soon afterwards executed. About the same time the Duke of Suffolk, father of Lady Jane Grey, organized a revolt in the midland counties. This imprudent attempt, which was easily suppressed, not only cost Suffolk his life, but sealed the doom of his amiable and accomplished daughter.

Insurrection.

4. Up to this time Mary had declared her purpose of showing mercy to one whom she regarded as the innocent victim of the ambition of unscrupulous relatives. Now, those who had previously urged her to

carry out the sentence of death already passed against her rival found it easy to persuade her that it was unsafe to allow Lady Jane to live longer. On February 12, 1554, Lady Jane Grey followed her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, to the block. She had known nothing of the selfish intrigues designed to raise her to the throne. Her beauty, her artless innocence, her love of study, her simple piety, all combine to increase our sorrow for her sad fate.

Death of Lady Jane Grey.

5. In the following July Mary carried out her purpose of marrying her cousin, Philip of Spain. In this matter she not only obeyed the dictates of affection, but yielded to the strong desire of Philip's father, her own steadfast friend, the Emperor Charles V. During all the troubles of her father's and her brother's reign, that monarch had been her confidential adviser; and, when occasion required, her open advocate and defender. But with Mary's subjects of all creeds and classes the marriage was in the highest degree unpopular. Philip represented national ideas and interests entirely diverse from those of Englishmen. Gardiner and the other bishops of the Queen's own Church warmly urged her to wed an Englishman if she wedded at all. This patriotic advice was cordially seconded by the Protestants, who, not without reason, regarded Philip as an enemy of their religion. After the marriage, Philip received the nominal title of King; but Parliament, devoted as it was to Mary, steadfastly refused to consent to his coronation, and to his taking any direct part in the government of the country. It also declined to give him the succession, in case Mary should die childless. Mary loved her husband; but the union, which was not blessed with any offspring, proved an unhappy one. Philip soon tired of the uncongenial society of England, and embraced the opportunity afforded by his father's abdication to leave the country, to return only for a few months shortly before Mary's death.

Mary's marriage.

6. Among the first events of the reign had been the restoration of the Catholic bishops deposed by Edward, and the re-establishment of public worship according to the Catholic ritual. To prepare the way for these changes, all the statutes of the reign of Edward VI. relating to religion had been repealed. The effect of this legislation had been to restore things to the state in which Henry VIII. had left them. Married priests were obliged to leave their churches, the Prayer-book was disused, the Mass was restored. This satisfied Parliament, but it by no means satisfied the Queen. The former was quite content that the Act of Supremacy should remain in force, and was determined that there should be no restoration to the Church of the vast amount of its property which had been secularized. The Queen, on the other hand, longed to see her kingdom brought back to full communion with the

Reconciliation with Rome.

Roman See. At length a compromise was effected. Pope Julius III. authorized his legate, Cardinal Pole, "the last of the Plantagenets," to assure Parliament that all property which had been wrested from the Church during the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. should be considered legally vested in its present owners. This removed the chief difficulty. In November 1554 an address was adopted by Parliament acknowledging the national heresy, and praying for reunion with the Papal See. On the following day, in presence of the Queen and Parliament, Cardinal Pole solemnly absolved the kingdom from its guilt and restored it to union with the Church. The fabric of English Protestantism seemed completely overthrown.

Persecution.

7. Before adjourning, Parliament revived the laws passed against heretics in the reign of Henry IV., and ordered that they should be enforced from the beginning of the new year (1555). Under these provisions, a court was opened on the 22nd of January. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester and Lord Chancellor, presided, though he is believed to have secretly disapproved of extreme measures. Hooper, the deprived Bishop of Gloucester, and three clergymen, named Rogers, Saunders, and Hadley, were first arraigned and convicted. They were handed over to the civil power, and burned at Smithfield. Three more illustrious victims perished at Oxford—Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer. Catholic historians vie with Protestant in extolling the heroic constancy with which Latimer and Ridley met their cruel fate. From his window the ex-archbishop saw his two friends led forth to the stake. His courage failed him in the trying hour. He endeavored to save his life by recanting the doctrines of Protestantism, by deploring his heretical wanderings, and by humbly suing for pardon. This act of humiliation was of no avail. Nor can Mary be justly blamed for her severity. Cranmer had cruelly wronged both her mother and herself in the matter of the divorce. He had aided Northumberland in his infamous attempt to cheat her out of the crown after her brother's death. He was not only a heretic, but also a traitor. On finding that he must die, Cranmer's courage revived. At the stake he withdrew his recantation of Protestantism, and he is now reckoned among the martyrs of the Church of England. Then followed a succession of humbler victims, till near the close of Mary's reign. For these cruelties, perpetrated in the holy name of religion, and for similar cruelties inflicted on Catholics in succeeding reigns, it is right that we should make every possible excuse. It is right to say that they belonged to an age less enlightened and tolerant than our own, to an age in which no one questioned the right of the civil power to treat all departure from established doctrine as a criminal offence. It is right, also, that we should remember that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between religious offences on the one hand, and civil and political

offences on the other. Whether Mary or her advisers must be held chiefly responsible for these unhappy events is an uncertain point. Bonner, Bishop of London, has acquired an undesirable prominence in the records of this persecution; but this may be due to the fact that most of the victims belonged to his diocese. As to the number of persons who lost their lives, estimates naturally vary. Dr. Lingard, the eminent Catholic historian, whose account of these melancholy transactions is highly creditable to his candor, after referring to certain exaggerated reports, concludes by saying: "Yet these deductions will take but little from the infamy of the measure. After every allowance, it will be found that in the space of four years almost two hundred persons perished in the flames for religious opinion—a number at which the mind is struck with horror, and learns to bless the legislation of a more tolerant age."

8. Philip left England in 1555, and did not return until 1557. In the interval, he had succeeded his father as King of Spain and of the Low Countries. His return to England had for its object to secure the co-operation of the Queen in a war against France and Scotland. Mary acceded to his request, and English troops were sent to reinforce the armies of Philip. To England the outcome of this war was disastrous. On January 22nd, 1558, the French succeeded in capturing Calais, the sole remaining English possession in France.

War with France.

9. For upwards of a year the Queen's health had been gradually failing. The loss of Calais gave to her enfeebled constitution a shock from which it could not recover. She died on the 17th of November 1558. Within the course of a few months she was followed to the grave by her kinsman Cardinal Pole, who had succeeded Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury. On the subject of religious toleration, Pole was in advance of his age. Prominent as was his position, he took no part in the persecutions of the times.

Death of Mary.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.—ELIZABETH.
1558 to 1603 A.D.

1. Mary having died childless, the succession to the throne devolved on her half-sister Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anna Boleyn. From a suspicion that Wyatt's insurrection had been incited in her interest, she had been confined in the Tower for a short time subsequent to that event. Philip of Spain interceded for her, and she was removed to Woodstock; where, however, a strict guard was maintained over her.

Accession of Elizabeth.

It is said that when she received the tidings of her accession she exclaimed, "*A Domino factum est istud*".—(It is the Lord's doing.)

2. The new Queen was in her twenty-fifth year when she ascended the throne. Though not positively beautiful, like her unfortunate mother, Elizabeth had a commanding figure; her mien was dignified and queenly, and the expression of her countenance was remarkably intelligent. She had received an excellent education, and was mistress of all the accomplishments that could grace a Court. It is not easy to paint her character, for it presents an assemblage of qualities not often found combined. From her father she derived a haughty, imperious temper, and a tendency to be careless about the *means* by which her *ends* should be reached. Her love of pleasure and display, and probably her vanity too, were inherited from Anna Boleyn. Though she took an active part in establishing one form of belief and worship and in proscribing another, her own nature does not seem to have been penetrated by any deep sense of religion. She lacked the religious earnestness of her sister. When Mary persecuted Protestants, it was because she believed—however erroneous the belief may have been—that the good of souls required it. When Elizabeth persecuted Catholics and Puritans, it was simply because their religious theories and practices interfered with her scheme of absolute uniformity of worship. Elizabeth's standard of morality was not high. In her eyes deceit and falsehood were scarcely crimes; and oftener than once she stained the annals of her reign with deeds of cruelty which no apologist can justify. As to her great abilities as a ruler, there can be no question. Her political judgment was rarely at fault. She pursued with unfaltering steadfastness the policy of making England great, by making her independent of other nations. Few sovereigns, moreover, have shown greater wisdom in the selection of able and discreet counsellors.

Character of Elizabeth.

3. For a short time after Elizabeth's accession, different opinions were held as to the policy likely to be adopted by her in regard to religious questions; for though generally supposed to have Protestant leanings, she was known to have conformed to the Catholic worship during her sister's reign. All doubt was soon removed. The chief places at her council board were given to Protestants. Sir Nicolas Bacon, father of the famous Lord Bacon, became Chancellor; Sir William Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh, was appointed Secretary of State, and for forty years continued to be the Queen's chief adviser. The coronation took place on January 15th, 1559. Parliament, after pronouncing the Queen's title valid and complete, placed the government of the Church in her hands by a *New Act of Supremacy*. This measure was of a most sweeping and stringent character. Every holder of a clerical office was required to take an oath denying altogether the Papal authority

Re-establishment of Protestantism.

in England. To assert such authority was made a punishable offence. The Act of Supremacy was immediately followed by an *Act of Uniformity*, by which the use of the second prayer-book of Edward VI. was made compulsory. To secure the effectual carrying out of the provisions of these Acts, the Queen was empowered to appoint commissioners to deal with all cases and questions of "heresy and schism." This was the origin of the notorious *Court of High Commission*, an institution which became an instrument of fearful religious oppression. Four years later (in 1563) the Church of England was virtually completed in its present form by the adoption of the well-known *Thirty-nine Articles of Religion.*

4. With but a single exception, the Catholic bishops refused to take the oath of supremacy. The new prelates appointed to the sees thus vacated were in all cases zealous Protestants. They were required to tender the oath to all the clergy of their respective dioceses. Of the ordinary parish priests much the larger part conformed; but the oath was refused by many of the occupants of the higher positions in connection with cathedrals and universities. The re-establishment of Protestantism in England brought back many men of learning and ability who had withdrawn to the Continent during the reign of Mary. The same fact also attracted to England religious exiles from various countries of Europe. Representatives of both these classes were promoted to sees and benefices from which Catholics had been expelled.

Vacant sees and benefices.

5. The Act of Uniformity was rigorously enforced. At a later period of Elizabeth's reign, laws were enacted under which many Catholics lost their lives for the sake of their religion. The Act in question, however, did not make nonconformity to the established order a *capital* offence, though its provisions were enforced by heavy fines. Debarred from the exercise of their religion, and punished for non-attendance at services repugnant to their consciences, the Catholics of England were now in a most unhappy position. Many of them left the country and joined themselves to Elizabeth's enemies abroad. The Act of Uniformity was unpalatable also to an increasing party among the Protestants, to which the name of *Puritan* was afterwards applied. This class desired a simpler and less formal mode of worship than that provided in the established ritual. The Puritans, however, were firm upholders of the throne of Elizabeth.

The Act of Uniformity.

6. Elizabeth's high position, to say nothing of her charms, attracted to her many suitors. Among these may be mentioned her sister's husband the widower Philip of Spain, the Archduke Charles of Austria, King Eric of Sweden, the Duke of Anjou, and the Earl of Arran. Among her own subjects, Dudley, Earl of Leicester, aspired to her affections, and probably received a

Elizabeth's suitors.

larger share of them than any of his rivals. But Elizabeth remained fixed in her resolution "to live and die a maiden queen," as she expressed herself in an address to Parliament. Her advisers warmly besought her to yield to the nation's wishes, and by marriage to provide the kingdom with a Protestant successor. Parliament seconded this appeal, and on one occasion the Queen condescended to make a favorable reply. Her promise, however, was soon evaded, and was then forgotten. She was determined to remain single, and to exercise an undivided power. Unquestionably, too, her course was largely determined by the dangers to which she saw that her kingdom would be exposed by any choice of husband that she might make.

Elizabeth's policy.

7. Having deliberately cast in her lot with Protestantism, Elizabeth occupied a position of great danger. At her accession more than half of her subjects were sincerely attached to the old faith. The legislation which suppressed their religion kept these in a state of constant discontent and irritation. Perils of no ordinary kind threatened England from the neighboring kingdom of Scotland. Abroad, there was not a single Protestant nation to which, in an emergency, she could look with any rational hope of succor. The great States of Europe were all ruled by Catholic princes, and these princes, with the exception for a time of Philip of Spain, were to a man her enemies. That she emerged triumphantly from a position of such difficulty and danger is due to the steadfastness with which, during the early part of her reign, she kept her kingdom free from all foreign complications. She was urged by religious enthusiasts to put herself at the head of a great "Protestant league." Others invited her to take the government of the Low Countries, then engaged in the memorable struggle with Philip of Spain. To all such appeals to her ambition she was deaf. It was enough for her to rule England. Her aim, as she herself expressed it, was to "preserve her throne, keep England out of war, and maintain the order of the State."

Mary Queen of Scots.

8. As Elizabeth was without children, the nearest heir to the throne was Mary, daughter of James V. of Scotland, and grand-daughter of Margaret, sister of Henry VIII. Mary, who had lost her father in infancy, had been brought up at the Court of France, her mother having been a French Princess of the noted house of Guise. In early womanhood she married the Dauphin of France, who subsequently reigned for a short time as Francis II. On the accession of Francis to the throne of France, he assumed the title of "King of England," claiming the English crown by right of his wife. This assumption was equivalent to a declaration that Elizabeth was illegitimate and was reigning as a usurper. Thus began the long quarrel between these celebrated queens. During Mary's absence in France, the Reformation had made great progress in Scot-

land, especially during the few years immediately following Elizabeth's accession to the English throne. A body of nobles, who took the name of *Lords of the Congregation*, put themselves at the head of the Protestant party. They received powerful aid from the preaching of John Knox, a remarkable man, who had been first a Catholic priest, and afterwards a Presbyterian minister; who had spent part of his life as a captive in the galleys of France, another part as a preacher in England during Edward VI.'s reign, and yet another at Geneva. From his return to Scotland in 1559 till his death in 1572, he labored hard to establish in his native country that form of Protestantism known as *Presbyterianism*. When the King of France took the title of King of England, Elizabeth replied to the challenge by sending a fleet and an army to assist the Lords of the Congregation in besieging Leith, a fortress then held for Mary by French troops under the command of her mother the Queen-Dowager, Mary of Guise. The fall of Leith was followed by the establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland. In 1560, Francis II., one of the feeblest of princes, died; and in the following year his youthful widow returned to her native dominions, where her short reign was a constant succession of troubles, owing to the difference of religion between herself and the great majority of her subjects.

Flight of Mary.

9. In 1565, Mary married Henry Stuart, Earl of Darnley. Darnley was her cousin, being grandson of Henry the Seventh's daughter Margaret by her second marriage with the Earl of Angus. This union both annoyed and alarmed Elizabeth. After Mary, Darnley was next heir to the English crown. He was also a great favorite with the Catholics of England. Elizabeth's fears proved groundless, for Darnley turned out to be one of the weakest and worst of men. In 1566, in a fit of insane jealousy, he entered the Queen's room with a band of confederates, and stabbed David Rizzio, her confidential secretary. A year later, a still more terrible tragedy resulted in his own death. On the night of February 9th, 1567, the house where he was sleeping, called *Kirk-of-Field*, situated in a lonely field near Edinburgh, was blown up with gunpowder. The next morning, the dead body of Darnley was found lying in a neighboring enclosure. Scarcely any question in modern history has been debated more earnestly than whether Mary was or was not an accomplice in the murder of her husband. The fact that within a month she married the Earl of Bothwell, who was undoubtedly the prime agent in securing Darnley's death, at first sight tells against her; but her defenders endeavor to show that she married Bothwell under compulsion. The Lords of the Congregation at once took up arms, alleging that Bothwell, who had the Queen in his possession, was aiming at the crown. They forced Mary to surrender on the 5th of June 1567, at Carberry Hill, near Edinburgh, and shortly afterwards to abdicate the

throne in favor of her infant son, who was crowned as James VI. of Scotland. The regency was vested in the Queen's half-brother, James Stuart, Earl of Murray, who was the chief Protestant leader. In 1568, Mary escaped from the castle on an island of Lochleven, where she had been confined, and rallied sufficient forces to enable her to take the field against the Regent. On May 13th, 1568, her army was utterly defeated at Langside, near Glasgow. She fled from the battle-field, and sought shelter in England.

Captivity of Mary.

10. Arriving at Carlisle, Mary wrote to Elizabeth, casting herself on the protecting mercy of her sister-Queen. By the advice of her Council, Elizabeth announced her purpose to detain Mary as a prisoner of State. A Commission was appointed to investigate the matter of Darnley's death; but the Scottish Queen denied its authority, and claimed the rights of an independent sovereign. Her request to be permitted to return to her own dominion was refused. She was placed in close custody at Tutbury, in Staffordshire, refusing to purchase freedom by renouncing her rights as Queen of Scotland.

Revolts.

11. Soon after these events, two powerful Catholic noblemen, the Earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland, incited a revolt in the northern counties. It was quickly suppressed, and the leaders fled to Scotland. The Duke of Norfolk, a Protestant, but bitterly hostile to Elizabeth's chief minister, Cecil, was connected with this movement, and had conceived the design of marrying the captive Mary. He was seized and committed to the Tower, but was soon released. Three years after, in 1572, he entered into a second plot, with Alva, Philip's general in the Low Countries. Cecil obtained an early knowledge of the scheme. Norfolk was seized, tried, and convicted of treason, and was executed on Tower Hill. He was the leader of the more moderate party of Protestants. Northumberland soon followed him to the scaffold.

Maritime enterprise.

12. To this period belong the names of several Englishmen who made themselves famous by their voyages of discovery. Martin Frobisher and John Davis, penetrating into the polar seas, first reached the bay and the strait to which they have respectively given their names. Francis Drake was the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe. Sir John Hawkins sailed to Guinea and involved his country in the guilt of the slave-trade. Sir Walter Ralegh, landing on the east coast of America, gave, in honor of his Sovereign, the name of *Virginia* to the colony which he founded there. Drake's voyage round the world was fruitful in political consequences. That bold navigator captured a large number of Spanish galleons laden with gold and silver. This led Philip to retaliate by lending help to the friends of the captive Queen of Scots.

13. It seems to have been Elizabeth's hope, at the beginning of her reign, that all her subjects would quietly accept the religious system which she established. The hope was a vain one. The Puritans, indeed, continued to sustain her; and supported her the more strongly, the more rigorously she oppressed the Catholics. But the Catholics themselves proved absolutely irreconcilable. They maintained their refusal to attend the established services, and were encouraged in this by the action of the Pope, who, in 1570, issued a bull excommunicating and deposing Elizabeth. Parliament replied to this by a most stringent enactment, making attendance on any Catholic service a treasonable offence. Events on the Continent—particularly the massacre of Protestants at Paris on St. Bartholomew's Day, and Alva's remorseless cruelties in the Low Countries—so excited the minds of English Protestants, that even severer measures still would have been favorably received. To bring this dreary record of religious persecution to a summary close, let us look forward to the year 1580, when a band of ardent Jesuit missionaries landed in England to attempt the conversion of the kingdom to its old faith. This band was led by an Englishman named Campion, who, the succeeding year (1581), was arrested, and, after torture, was put to death as a traitor. A law was passed making it an act of treason to convert a Protestant to Catholicism. Another statute decreed that all Jesuits and priests in general must leave the kingdom within forty days, at the risk of their lives. Under these terrible and revolting laws many priests, a smaller number of laymen, and even some women were put to death. Happily, we are not required to justify such injustice and inhumanity. The pleas sometimes urged to mitigate the guilt of the persecution under Mary I. can be urged here with equal force; but *here* as well as *there* they are insufficient. Besides, neither persecution destroyed the religion against which it was directed.

Increasing severity against Catholics.

14. We have already related the failure of some early attempts to secure the liberation of the imprisoned Queen of Scots. A similar attempt made in the nineteenth year of her captivity cost her her life, under a special statute passed in 1584. That statute held guilty of treason any person claiming the crown, on whose behalf any treasonable effort should be made. Provision was made for a special Commission to try the individual thus circumstanced. This Act was clearly intended for Mary's case alone. In 1586, a plot was formed by a man named Anthony Babington, in league with several others, to effect the release of Mary and her accession to the throne, Elizabeth and her ministers having first been seized and put to death. The scheme failed. The various stages of its development were communicated to Elizabeth's ministers by spies. Babington and his fellow-conspirators

Death of Mary Queen of Scots.

were seized. The appointed Commission met in the hall of Fotheringay Castle, to try Queen Mary as an alleged accomplice in a plot to dethrone and murder the Queen of England. Guilty or innocent, her conviction was a foregone conclusion. She strenuously denied any knowledge of a design against the Queen's life. Who could blame her for a desire to recover her own liberty? But she was not permitted to meet the witnesses against her. The Commissioners deliberated in secret. In October 1586 they pronounced her guilty, and sentenced her to death. A feeble remonstrance against carrying out this sentence was received from Mary's son James, and a much more forcible one from the French authorities. Elizabeth hesitated, and said that she did not wish to imbrue her hands in the blood of her kinswoman. Nevertheless, she signed the death-warrant, which was soon speeding on its way to Fotheringay Castle. Then, when the deed was done beyond recall, she expressed anxiety to have the fatal document brought back and cancelled. She afterwards sought to attach the guilt of her own action to her servants, who had simply carried out her will. On February 8th, 1587, amid the cold gray mist of a winter morning, Mary Queen of Scots laid her head on the block with a dignified composure that touched the hearts of all beholders. Few women have been endowed with greater gifts or adorned with more attractive graces. Her conduct at certain great periods of her life is one of the debatable questions of modern history. But even those who hold that her relations with Darnley and Bothwell were suspicious, are compelled to admit that during her captivity and trial, and especially during the trying hours that preceded the scaffold, she bore herself like an innocent woman. Her death, after a trial lacking the first elements of a judicial process, is the darkest cloud that hangs over the memory of Elizabeth.

Relations with Spain.

15. During the earlier part of her reign Elizabeth's relations with Philip were, on the whole, friendly. She had received kindnesses from him during Mary's reign; afterwards he had been her suitor. Besides, it was Elizabeth's fixed policy not to interfere with affairs on the Continent. But gradually events compelled a change. Philip was the great champion of Catholicism. Elizabeth was almost forced to assume a similar relation to Protestantism. Philip became a supporter of the claim of the Scottish Queen to the English throne. England became filled with refugees from the Netherlands, who kindled into a flame the feeling against Spain already existing in England. In 1585 Elizabeth found it impossible any longer to resist the pressure of events. She consented that a half-hearted effort should be made in behalf of the struggling Protestants of Holland. The expedition sent to the Netherlands accomplished little. The Earl of Leicester arrived in the Scheldt just too late to prevent the important fortress of Antwerp from falling into

the hands of the Spaniards. Equally fruitless was his attack on Zutphen the following year. The net result of the movement was to annoy Philip, without giving any real aid to the cause of freedom in the Low Countries. We have already alluded to another matter which still more seriously enraged the King of Spain—namely, the seizure of his treasure-ships by Drake and other English captains.

The Invincible Armada.

16. For some time Philip had been planning a decisive measure of retaliation. The news of the death of the Queen of Scots, an event which naturally sent a thrill of horror through the Catholic nations of Europe, removed all hesitation from his mind. Throughout the spring of 1587, Spain resounded with preparations for a great invasion of England. Philip endeavored to conceal his personal and selfish designs by investing the enterprise with the character of a religious crusade. His attempt was put off for a year by the daring activity of Drake, who, sailing with a small fleet to the coast of Spain, burned a hundred ships in the harbors of Cadiz and Corunna. Drake called his exploit "singeing the King of Spain's beard." By the ensuing summer (1588), another and larger fleet, bearing the boastful name of the *Invincible Armada*, was got in readiness by Philip. The scheme of attack was to land an army in England, under the command of Alexander Farnese, Prince of Parma, the most skilful general in Europe. The force designed for this purpose Parma had already collected at Dunkirk. It would be the work of the Armada to protect the transports as they conveyed Parma's troops across the Channel. The proud Spanish fleet, as it sailed out of the Tagus, embraced 130 vessels, manned by 11,000 seamen, and carrying 3,000 pieces of cannon, and 22,000 veteran soldiers. Though it sailed from Lisbon in May, the Armada was so baffled by contrary winds that it did not reach the English Channel until the middle of July. The commander was a powerful Spanish grandee, the Duke de Medina Sidonia.

English preparations.

17. Against the great danger which now threatened her, Elizabeth appealed to the patriotism of her people. To her appeal they responded with remarkable unanimity. The Catholics magnanimously forgot the harsh treatment they had received, and only remembered that they were Englishmen. The royal navy was replenished by the gift of ships from cities, corporations, and even private individuals. A land force to meet the hosts of Parma was gathered, and Elizabeth herself addressed her assembled troops at Tilbury. The command of the fleet was intrusted to Lord Howard of Effingham, a skilful admiral and a devoted Roman Catholic. Under him served the most renowned naval captains of the age—Drake, Frobisher, Ralegh, and Hawkins. Compared with the Armada, the English ships were both few and small. The war-ships proper numbered only 34, carrying 800 guns, though these were aided

by a number of volunteer vessels of small size. The superiority of the English fleet over the Armada consisted in the two facts, that the vessels were better manned, and that they themselves were lighter and more manageable than the huge Spanish galleons.

Destruction of the Armada.

18. On the 19th of July the Armada passed the Lizard on the coast of Cornwall. On the 20th, the English fleet, under Howard, sailed out of Plymouth, and by skilful steering soon got to windward of the Armada. This position enabled the English admiral to attack and retreat at pleasure. For a week he hung upon the enemy's fleet, as it advanced slowly up the Channel, every day disabling one or more of the lumbering Spanish vessels. On the 27th, the Duke de Medina Sidonia, maddened by delay and loss, anchored off Calais. To bring him out into the open sea, eight ships, filled with combustible material and set on fire, were sent drifting with the wind in the direction of the Spanish fleet. The device was crowned with complete success. The Spaniards, panic-stricken, cut their cables and put to sea, steering for the German Ocean. They were at once attacked by Howard and his captains, and many of their ships were disabled and destroyed. It is said that nothing but the failure of the English ammunition saved the Armada from complete destruction. With the remnant of his fleet the Spanish admiral sailed homeward round the north of the British Islands. Violent storms met him and wrecked many of his ships on the coasts of Scotland and Ireland. He did not reach Spain until October, when he entered Corunna with about fifty vessels, manned by half-starved crews. The invasion of England had proved a failure.

Further troubles with Spain.

19. The defeat of the Armada was followed by aggressive movements of the English against Spain. In 1589, Drake and Essex entered the port of Corunna and burned a number of ships, intended, it was supposed, for a new Armada. In 1596, Lord Howard of Effingham stormed Cadiz, and captured a Spanish fleet. As a reward of his services he was made Earl of Nottingham. During all these years the commerce and American possessions of Spain continued to suffer severely from the depredations of English rovers. Philip died in 1598, and for the few remaining years of her life Elizabeth was free from anxiety as far as Spanish affairs were concerned.

Earl of Essex.

20. After the death of Leicester, the Queen's favorite courtier was the Earl of Essex. The principles of Protestantism, widely as they had extended in England, made little or no progress in Ireland. Even within the *Pale*, as the district around Dublin inhabited by English settlers was called, the people and gentry firmly adhered to the Catholic religion. It was natural, therefore, that the princes opposed to Elizabeth should seek to make Ireland a centre of disaffection against her. In 1594 a for-

midable insurrection broke out, headed by the Earl of Tyrone, who was aided by Philip of Spain. Essex was sent over as Lord-Lieutenant, but so mismanaged affairs that he returned in disgrace. The rebellion was quelled in 1602 by Lord Mountjoy. After his return to England, Essex became involved in grave difficulties. Lord Burleigh, Elizabeth's chief adviser for nearly forty years, had died in 1598. His successor in the Queen's confidence was his second son, Robert, who was a bitter enemy of Essex. Maddened by a temporary loss of the Queen's favor, the latter, in 1601, plunged into a wild scheme of insurrection in London, which resulted in his conviction for treason. When condemned to death, he is said to have relied for pardon on a ring which Elizabeth had given him, to be sent to her in any time of trouble. The ring was intrusted to the Countess of Nottingham, who treacherously failed to deliver it. Essex was beheaded on Tower Hill. On learning, two years afterwards, that her failure to receive the ring was not due to Essex's obstinacy but to the treachery of another, the Queen is said to have wept bitterly.

Monopolies.

21. During Elizabeth's reign the practice of granting *monopolies*—that is, the exclusive privilege of trading in particular articles—to certain favored individuals grew into a great evil. It interrupted the natural course of trade, and enabled a few to grow rich at the expense of many. The Queen long refused to listen to the voice of Parliament when asking her to abolish the obnoxious practice. At length, finding that it would be dangerous to resist further, she complied with the request, gracefully thanking Parliament for calling her attention to the matter. The celebrated *East India Company*, which dates from this reign, may be considered a *corporate* monopoly.

Changes in religion.

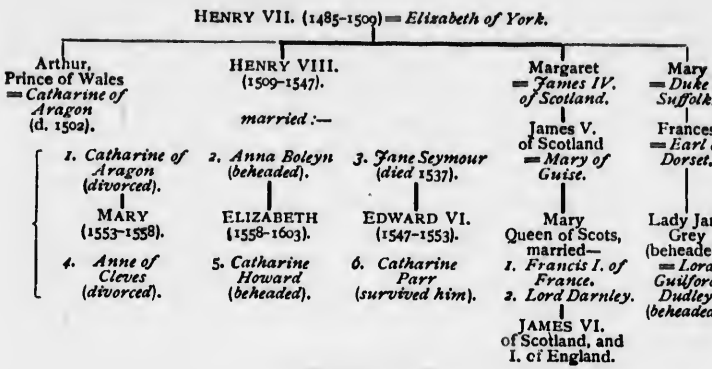
22. The long reign of Elizabeth saw great religious changes sweep over England. The Puritans, few at first, grew into a powerful party. At times they composed a large majority in Parliament; and the University of Oxford, which, when Elizabeth began to reign, was firmly attached to the Catholic religion, was at her death a centre of Puritan opinion. Under the influence of laws of steadily increasing severity, the Catholics naturally became greatly reduced in numbers. The wars with Spain in the latter part of the reign, in as far as they seemed to identify the cause of Protestantism with that of patriotism, are thought by some to have had an influence in the same direction.

Death of Elizabeth.

23. Elizabeth died at Richmond on March 24, 1603. She was in her seventieth year, and had held the sceptre during a long and exciting reign of forty-five years. James VI. of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Queen of Scots, was universally accepted as her rightful successor. The Tudor dynasty was at an end.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

SHOWING DESCENT OF JAMES I.



CHAPTER XXXV.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL STATE OF ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS.

Despotism of the Tudors.

1. The rule of the Tudors was a partial or modified despotism. This was due, in the first place, to the arbitrary natures of the sovereigns themselves. Henry VII., Henry VIII., and Elizabeth, whose reigns cover most of the Tudor period, were fond of power, and in the highest degree self-willed. In the second place, the decay of parliamentary power was caused by the sweeping away of the nobility of England by the War of the Roses. Under the Angevin Kings, the barons held a powerful check on the personal will of the monarch. They compelled the King to govern according to the expressed desires of Parliament. The absence of this check, and the fact that the power of the *commonalty*, or great middle class, was then but partially developed, enabled the Tudor monarchs to impose their own will upon the nation. They observed to some extent the *forms* of parliamentary government, but they set aside its *real principles*. This was particularly seen in the levying of money by means which Parliament had never sanctioned. The Tudors exhibited the same arbitrary tendency in violating, by means of such bodies as the Star Chamber and the Court of High Commission, the rights which Magna Charta guarantees to every Englishman. Instead of being tried by his "peers," many a man was convicted and condemned by secret tribunals entirely unknown to law. But during all the Tudor period elements of popular power were growing, that

were destined, after a bitter struggle with the succeeding race of Kings, to establish English liberty on a secure foundation.

2. The Tudor Period was one of great mental activity. In England, as elsewhere throughout Europe, navigation, geography, and commerce made great advances. A new world in the West, and what became practically a new world in the East, stirred the minds of men with new ideas. Literature began to flourish as never before in England. To this period of a century and a quarter belong many of the most famous English authors. The two most eminent writers of the reign of Henry VIII. are numbered among the victims of that tyrant's capricious cruelty—Sir Thomas More, who succeeded Wolsey as Chancellor, the author of "Utopia," a man of pure life and amiable character; and the Earl of Surrey, whose life was equally unblemished, and who is known as the first writer of English *blank verse*, and as the earliest introducer of the *sonnet* into England. The writers of Elizabeth's reign form a group by themselves of great distinction. Nations have lived and died without producing two such poets as Spenser, author of *The Faerie Queene*, and the immortal dramatist William Shakespeare. Scarcely less worthy of mention are the prose writers of the same reign:—Hooker, who wrote the *Ecclesiastical Polity;* Sir Philip Sidney, killed in a skirmish near Zutphen; and, greatest of all, Francis Bacon, son of Elizabeth's first Chancellor. Bacon's chief work, the *Novum Organum*, to which modern science owes so much, was not written till the next reign, but his celebrated *Essays* belong to the time of Elizabeth.

Learning and literature.

3. The Tudor Period was also marked by a perceptible improvement in the domestic habits of the people. Intercourse with foreign nations gave to the rich a wider range of luxuries in matters of food and dress—though the style of the latter cannot be very highly praised either for beauty or for convenience—while it brought within reach of the poorer classes a larger measure of the ordinary comforts of life. The houses, especially of well-to-do people, were more airy and better lighted, glass for windows having now come into general use. Fruits and vegetables previously unknown to England were introduced. *Tobacco*, which some would not count among the special blessings of the age, now for the first time found its way into the mouths and nostrils of Englishmen. No one could be disposed to question the utility of the *potato*, generally supposed to have been introduced from America by Sir Walter Ralegh.

Domestic improvements.

4. From the middle of the reign of Henry VIII. to the death of Elizabeth was a time of great religious agitation. During that period England passed from a state of unquestioning submission to the See of Rome to a state in which her national Church owned no earthly head but the monarch of the

Religious agitation.

realm. We have aimed simply at tracing and recording events in an impartial manner, without any reference to the respective merits of rival creeds and systems of church government. It is enough to assume that all were sincerely attached to their own belief, their fidelity to which so many on both sides were willing to seal with their lives.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

HOUSE OF STUART.—JAMES I.
1603 to 1625 A.D.

Accession of James I.

1. Elizabeth died without having positively signified her wishes as to the succession. For many years fears had been entertained that her death would be the signal for bitter strife, but the event proved that they were groundless. James VI. of Scotland, son of Lord Darnley and Mary Queen of Scots, succeeded without opposition to the throne. He was the nearest heir, none of the children of Henry VIII. having left descendants. James was on both father's and mother's side great-grandson of Margaret,* daughter of Henry VII.

Previous history of James.

2. When he ascended the English throne, James had been nominally King of Scotland for thirty-six years, having been proclaimed in 1567, when he was but a year old. After the assassination of his uncle, the Regent Murray, a man of great force of character, the regency had been held in succession by the Earls of Lennox, Mar, and Morton. As he came to years of manhood, James's position was one of peculiar embarrassment. His own mother, from whom he was separated by religion (for he had been bred a rigid Protestant), was a captive in the hands of Elizabeth, to whose throne he hoped to succeed. On the one side was filial affection; on the other were religious feelings and seeming personal interest. For many years after Murray's death, strife and confusion held sway in Scotland. In 1581, contrary to the King's wishes, the General Assembly of the Scottish Church substituted *Presbyterianism*, a system of ecclesiastical government by means of

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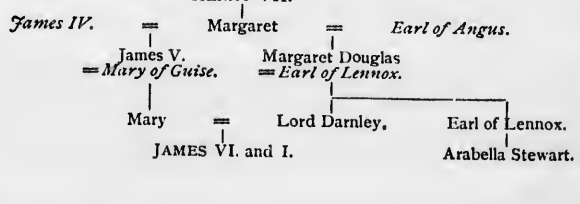
* Margaret was twice married. Queen Mary was descended from her first marriage, and Darnley from her second; thus:—



church courts, for *Episcopacy*, or government by *bishops*. The Presbyterian Church was established by Act of Parliament in 1592. James's reign in Scotland was comparatively quiet and uneventful. He accepted reluctantly the religious system favored by the great majority of his subjects, though he continued to give evidence of his leanings to Episcopacy. In 1590 he married the Princess Anne of Denmark, by whom he had three children;—Henry, who died nine years after the Union of the Crowns; Charles, his father's successor on the throne; and Elizabeth, who married Frederick, the Elector Palatine, and from whom the reigning House of Brunswick traces its descent.

3. There was little in the personal appearance of James to attract the favor of his new subjects His dread of assassination led him to wear quilted clothes, which made his naturally ungainly figure look almost ridiculous. His features were homely, his tongue was too large for his mouth, and his eyes were wild and rolling. Legs too weak for the body they were called on to sustain, rendered his gait shuffling and ungainly. He had received a careful education, chiefly at the hands of George Buchanan, a Latin scholar and poet of some eminence. His capacity for acquiring knowledge was good, and undoubtedly he was one of the most learned princes of the day. Unfortunately his mind was not strong enough to digest all the materials with which it was stored. Thus James was *learned* rather than *wise* in the highest sense. A witty Frenchman called him "the wisest fool in Europe." He was fond of theological and political discussion; and equally so of hunting, hawking, and the pleasures of the table. James held tenaciously to the doctrine called *the divine right of Kings;* which was to the effect that Kings can do no wrong, *their* duty being *to rule*, and that of *their subjects to obey*. He had probably derived this theory from his flatterers, but he believed it to have originated with himself. Four years before his accession he had published his views on the subject, in a treatise entitled *Basilicon Doron* ("The Prerogative of Kings").

Character and opinions of James I.

4. From the government of James all classes of the English people cherished favorable hopes. The Episcopalians welcomed a King holding so strongly to their views of Church government; the Puritans thought that the similarity between their principles and those of the Presbyterians would secure them moderate treatment from one who ruled over Scotland; the Catholics expected James to show some regard to the creed of his mother. Before, however, the King had time to reveal his policy, two plots, having some connection with each other, and known respectively as the "Main" (principal) and the "Bye" (subordinate), were formed against him. Our knowledge of these plots is very imperfect. Their object seems to have been the dethronement of James

"Main" and "Bye" Plots.

in the interest of his cousin, Arabella Stuart,* daughter of Darnley's younger brother, the Earl of Lennox. Those connected with the "Main" were chiefly dissatisfied Protestants; with the "Bye," Catholics. The whole plan resulted in failure. Arabella Stuart, who is not known to have had any share in the attempts, was committed to life-long captivity. She died in 1615, having in the meantime become insane. The two principal plotters, Lords Cobham and Grey, were pardoned; others were executed; while Sir Walter Ralegh, after being sentenced to death, was granted a reprieve, and confined in the Tower. Ralegh's guilt was never clearly shown.

5. The Puritans had now become a powerful party, though not formally separated from the Church. Most of the Protestant exiles who came to England from the Continent attached themselves to their ranks. A considerable portion of the clergy sympathized with their views in favor of a revision of the Prayer-book and the adoption of simpler forms of worship. In 1604 a Conference was held at Hampton Court between the bishops of the Established Church and representatives of the Puritan divines, to consider the questions at issue between the two parties. The Conference was unable to compose the differences, and broke up after a few minor changes in the Church service were agreed on. The King attended the sessions in person, and took a lively part in the debates, always on the side of the Church as established. The most important result of the Conference was the publication of the *Authorized Version* of the Scriptures, which is still the recognized edition in use among English-speaking Protestants in all lands. Having been promised at the Conference, the work of translation was, six months after, intrusted to forty-seven divines. The first edition was printed in black letter in 1611.

The Hampton Court Conference.

6. The Hampton Court Conference was followed by a proclamation requiring all to conform to the religious services as by law established. This was a death-blow to the hopes of the Puritans. The first Parliament of James, which met in March 1604, re-affirmed the existing penal laws against the Catholics; and a royal proclamation ordered all adherents of the Church of Rome to govern themselves accordingly. It was probably the despair caused by this proclamation that drove a few misguided men to form what is known in English history as *the Gunpowder Plot.* This was a scheme to blow up the Parliament House with powder, at either the opening or the close of a session, so as to insure the destruction not only of the members of both Houses, but of the King and the royal family, who would naturally be present on such occasions. The plot originated with Robert Catesby, a Roman

The Gunpowder Plot.

* See pedigree, foot-note, page 118.

Catholic of good family, to whose excited mind no venture seemed too bold. He secured the aid of a man named Guido Fawkes, generally known as Guy Fawkes, a desperado who had seen service in the armies of Spain in the Low Countries. A few others whom Catesby thought he could trust were admitted to his counsels; but the great body of the Roman Catholics knew nothing of a scheme the success of which would have ruined their cause quite as signally as its failure. The conspirators got possession of a cellar under the Houses of Parliament, and stored it with gunpowder concealed beneath fagots. Outwardly, everything promised success. But a day or two before the meeting of Parliament, Lord Mounteagle, a Catholic peer, received an anonymous letter praying him to absent himself from the opening ceremonies, as something terrible was about to happen. Mounteagle showed the letter to Cecil, the chief adviser of the Crown, who in turn delivered it to the King. James merited the title of "the modern Solomon," given him by his flatterers, by being the first to solve the riddle. Late on the evening of November 4th, 1605, the cellars under the Houses of Parliament were searched, and Guy Fawkes was discovered, dark lantern in hand, ready for the explosion planned for the following day. The other conspirators fled, but were successfully pursued. Catesby was mortally wounded when resisting arrest. The rest, including Fawkes, were summarily executed. Fawkes's lantern is preserved in the Bodleian Library, Oxford. It is now generally believed that Mounteagle's letter from one of the conspirators was not the first intimation to Cecil of the existence of the plot, but that in various ways he obtained knowledge of the affair from the beginning.

New penal laws.

7. To the great mass of English Catholics Catesby's insane movement was a surprise and a sorrow. Pope Pius V. wrote to the King expressing his abhorrence of so impious a plot. A not unreasonable fear was entertained that Parliament would be led to retaliate by increased severity of persecution; though, of course, when men's minds are cool, the natural moral to be drawn from such events is the danger and folly of driving people to madness for the sake of their religion. The fear was realized. The next session brought with it new penal statutes of a much more stringent and oppressive character. To be a Catholic was to be fettered with restrictions and threatened with pains and penalties at every turn and in every relation of life. It is to James's credit that he sometimes incurred the displeasure of Parliament by his reluctance to execute these harsh and cruel laws. Part of the new enactments consisted of an oath of allegiance so constructed as to distinguish between Catholics accepting and those rejecting the temporal pretensions of the Pope. In this way a division was effected which considerably reduced the strength of the Catholic body in England.

8. Apart from religious questions, James was involved in almost

continual difficulty with Parliament. His claim to arbitrary power by divine right, and the iniquitous doings of the Court of High Commission, led to constant remonstrance from the House of Commons. For a time he tried to force on Parliament devices of his own for the purpose of raising money, and when he found that body too independent he dissolved it, and for the three years following 1611 England was without a Parliament.

Difficulties with Parliament.

9. The suppression of rebellions in Ireland, headed by the Earl of Tyrone and other Irish chieftains, left at the disposal of the Crown several millions of acres of land, through the confiscation of the rebels' estates. Protestant settlers were invited over to settle on the land from Great Britain, and particularly from Scotland. Their descendants still form the bulk of the population in that part of Ireland known as Ulster.

Colonization of Ulster.

10. Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, who had been Elizabeth's chief adviser during the latter part of her reign, continued to direct the counsels of James, until his death in 1611. From that time forward the King fell under the evil influence of favorites. The first of these was Robert Carr, created Earl of Somerset. Somerset was hurled from power by the popular indignation which followed the poisoning of his secretary, Sir Thomas Overbury, through the agency of his countess, whose divorce from her former husband, Lord Essex, was too shameful a transaction to be recorded in these pages. Somerset's place in the King's affections was taken by George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, whose control was broken only by James's death. The policy of Buckingham, who was vain, ambitious, and unprincipled, involved both James and his successor in much trouble.

The King's favorites.

11. In 1616, Sir Walter Ralegh was released from confinement that he might lead an expedition to Guiana, having given out that he had discovered a gold mine there during Elizabeth's reign. The King, who was anxious to cultivate friendly relations with Spain, exacted from Ralegh a pledge not to interfere with any of the Spanish settlements in South America. This pledge, if it were really given, Ralegh was not able to keep. The mine was not found, and it was only by seizing Spanish treasures that he could hope to redeem his expedition from failure. He attacked, but did not succeed in capturing, one of the Spanish towns. When he returned home empty-handed, his life was demanded by the ambassador from the Court of Spain, in reparation of the insult and wrong done to his master's country. Anxious not to offend the King of Spain, James acceded to the request, conveniently taking advantage of the sentence of death passed on Ralegh in the beginning of his reign. During his imprisonment of thirteen years, Sir

Death of Sir Walter Ralegh.

Walter Ralegh wrote several books, among them his *History of the World.*

The Elector Palatine.

12. In 1613, James had married his only daughter, Elizabeth, to Frederick, the Elector Palatine of Germany. Three years later, Frederick was offered the crown of Bohemia by the Protestant party in that country. In an unlucky hour he accepted it. He was defeated by the Spaniards in the Battle of Prague, and eventually lost not only Bohemia, but his ancestral electorate as well. He and his wife took refuge in Holland, a country which had freed itself from the yoke of Spain, and was then an independent republic. Elizabeth of Bohemia was grandmother of George I., the first of the Brunswick Kings of England. Despite the urgent appeals of Parliament, all that James did for his unfortunate son-in-law was to send him a small body of troops at a time when they could do no good.

Parliamentary opposition.

13. James's second Parliament was convoked in 1614. It would grant no supplies, and was soon dissolved, the King preferring to rely on illegal methods of obtaining money through the Star Chamber. His third Parliament met in 1621, and was composed of men determined to establish, if possible, a better mode of government. Sir Edward Coke, an eminent jurist, who had been dismissed from the chancellorship in 1616 for his uprightness, took the lead. Coke attacked the vicious system of *monopolies*, which the King had revived. The illustrious Bacon, who had succeeded Coke as Chancellor, was impeached for bribery. He was convicted, and was condemned to imprisonment and the enormous fine of £40,000. These penalties were soon remitted, but the disgrace of his fall still continues to cloud the memory of this great writer and thinker. The same Parliament remonstrated with the King on the contemplated marriage of his son Charles—who, by the death of his elder brother Henry, had become Prince of Wales—with the Infanta of Spain. It also issued a famous *Protestation*, maintaining the ancient rights and liberties of English subjects. The King's reply was twofold. First, he told Parliament "not to meddle with anything that concerned his government or deep matters of State." Secondly, he dissolved Parliament, throwing Sir Edward Coke and other leading members into prison. Parliamentary opposition to the regal tyranny of the Stuarts really dates from this session.

Prince Charles's marriage engagement.

14. For some time negotiations had been in progress for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Spanish Infanta. The contemplated union involved much difficulty to both parties. Neither England nor Spain had forgotten the Invincible Armada. English Protestants disliked the idea of their future King espousing a Catholic wife. The Spaniards were reluctant to intrust their

Princess to so intensely anti-Catholic a nation as England had become. At length, in 1623, Prince Charles, accompanied by the Earl of Buckingham, visited Spain in person. They travelled as "John" and "Thomas Smith." Though the Prince was cordially received by the Spanish Court, and though he made a favorable impression on the Infanta herself, the negotiations that followed were long, tedious, and in the end fruitless. Every attempt to make a satisfactory settlement in matters of religion proved a failure. Soon the Spanish diplomatists and Buckingham became equally anxious to break off the match, though each party tried to put the responsibility on the other. At last "John" and "Thomas Smith" turned their faces homeward. Passing through Paris, Prince Charles was attracted by the beauty and accomplishments of the Princess Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII., and daughter of the great Henry IV. of France. After some delay in arranging difficulties in connection with the education of the royal children and the religious privileges of the Princess herself, a marriage-contract was drawn up and signed.

Last of James's Parliaments.

15. The last of James's Parliaments met in February 1624. The King was forced by Buckingham to declare war against Spain. The proclamation was heartily endorsed by Parliament, which voted £300,000 for the necessary expenses. The Earl of Middlesex, Lord High Treasurer, was impeached and convicted of bribery. He was sentenced to pay a fine of £50,000. Monopolies were declared illegal. The marriage-contract with Henrietta Maria was reluctantly ratified.

Death of James I.

16. The King did not live to see the marriage of his son and heir. He died on March 27th, 1625, of ague, and was buried in the Chapel of Henry VII. in Westminster Abbey. James assumed the title of "King of *Great Britain;*" and by uniting the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew he furnished the original of the well-known "Union Jack." It must be borne in mind that the union of England and Scotland under James was simply a *union of crowns;* in all other respects the nations continued totally distinct. James was a firm believer in *witchcraft*, and wrote a treatise on the subject.

The Colonial Empire of England.

17. Ralegh's early attempt to found a colony in Virginia having proved a failure, in 1607 a company of adventurers visited the same region and established the first permanent English settlement in America. About the same time the French were colonizing Canada and Acadia. In 1610 James granted a charter for the colonization of Newfoundland. Two years later (1612), the first English settlement was made in India, at Surat. In 1620 a band of Puritans, whom religious persecution had driven from England to Holland, crossed the Atlantic in a vessel called the *Mayflower*, and laid the foundations of *New En-*

gland. The following year Sir William Alexander obtained from James a charter for the colonization of the peninsula of Nova Scotia; but the French having already taken possession of that country, its occupation by the English had to be postponed to a later period.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

HOUSE OF STUART.—CHARLES I. 1625 to 1649 A.D.

Accession of Charles I.

1. Charles I. was in his twenty-fifth year when he ascended the throne. His first care was to carry out his marriage-contract with the French Princess, Henrietta Maria. Buckingham, whose influence over Charles was even greater than that which he had exercised over the preceding King, was despatched to Paris to bring over the royal bride. The next matter that engaged the attention of Charles was the financial state of the kingdom. The treasury was exhausted, and the heavy expenses of a war with Spain were impending.

Character of Charles I.

2. Charles was an accomplished Prince, and his person and manners were in striking contrast to those of his father. His frame was well-proportioned, his bearing dignified, his features handsome and expressive. He possessed highly-cultivated tastes, being fond of music, painting, and architecture. His mind was of a deeply religious cast, and in private life he was a model of all the domestic virtues. The weakness which historians profess to find in his character is a fatal tendency towards insincerity, a disposition to make promises when not really expecting to fulfil them. Both in political and in religious matters Charles inherited his father's views. He was a firm believer in the doctrine that the prerogatives of Kings should not be questioned by their subjects. This led him, from the very beginning of his reign, to make assertions of arbitrary power that brought him into constant conflict with Parliament. The favorite phrase to express his view of the duty of the subject to the King was "passive obedience." Like his father, Charles was a zealous upholder of the Episcopal form of Church government.

Charles's first Parliament.

3. The first Parliament of this reign met in June 1625. The House of Commons contained a number of singularly able men, whose names will become familiar to the student of this part of English history. We may mention Coke, Eliot, Pym, Selden, and Wentworth. These were all determined opponents of arbitrary power, though Wentworth subsequently united his fortunes with those of the King. This, as well as succeeding

Parliaments, was strongly imbued with Puritanical sentiments. The first difficulty that arose had reference to money. The King asked for £700,000 to pay the late King's debts, to defray the expenses of his own marriage, and to equip an army and navy. He also asked for *tunnage* and *poundage* for life. Parliament granted him only £140,000, with tunnage and poundage for one year. "Tunnage" and "poundage" were imposts on every *tun* of wine and every *pound* of goods imported into the kingdom.

Penal laws.

4. The King found himself awkwardly situated in respect to the penal laws against Catholics. His personal inclinations —to his credit be it said—were averse to the enforcement of these odious statutes. Besides, he was bound by a secret provision of his treaty of marriage *not* to enforce them. But, on the other hand, Parliament insisted that the laws should be fully and promptly executed. Under these difficulties, Charles pursued a partial and temporizing policy which pleased neither party. He executed the law sufficiently to call forth indignant remonstrances from the King of France; he allowed a sufficient number of Catholics to escape to enrage the Parliament.

Expedition against Cadiz.

5. Parliament was dissolved in August 1625. Buckingham then took steps to carry into effect the declaration of war against Spain. An expedition was hastily organized and despatched to Cadiz. It resulted in nothing but disgrace.

Second Parliament.

6. In August 1626, Charles was forced by want of money to convoke a second Parliament. His necessities had obliged him to pawn the crown jewels. But Parliament, when assembled, positively refused to grant supplies, save on redress of grievances. It proceeded to draw up articles of impeachment against Buckingham. The King in a rage dissolved it, and threw two of the managers of the impeachment into prison.

Illegal taxation.

7. Forced loans were now the order of the day. The King proceeded to collect tunnage and poundage without authority of Parliament. Martial law was proclaimed to hush the voice of opposition.

War with France.

8. At this juncture Buckingham added a war with France to the other difficulties of the country. Under the pretence of helping the Huguenots, or French Protestants, whose stronghold, Rochelle, was then in a state of siege, he sailed with a small fleet to the coasts of France. The people of Rochelle would have nothing to do with him, and refused to admit the English troops within their walls. A hostile landing was then made on the Isle of Rhè, but no permanent advantage was gained. This ill-concerted movement resulted in great injury to the cause of French Protestantism.

9. Popular dissatisfaction with Charles's illegal methods of raising money became so intense, that in August 1628 a third Parliament was summoned. In this Parliament the party opposed to the King's policy was in a decided majority. Charles asked for supplies; but again the Commons proceeded to attack Buckingham. The King felt himself to be in a weak position. Parliament saw its advantage, and determined to strike a decisive blow. A joint-committee of the Lords and Commons drew up, and Parliament as a whole presented to the King for his assent, the memorable *Petition of Right*, a document which is one of the grand charters of English liberty. In connection with recitals of various abuses under which the nation suffered, the Petition of Right claimed exemption—(1) From illegal taxation of all kinds; (2) from the penalties which those opposing such taxation had suffered; (3) the billeting of soldiers on private persons; (4) the proclamation of martial law in time of peace. With visible reluctance Charles assented to the Petition of Right on June 7th, 1628. **Petition of Right.**

10. Parliament now renewed the impeachment of Buckingham. To save his minister, the King suddenly prorogued Parliament on the 26th of June. Two months later Buckingham, as he was about to take command of a second expedition in behalf of the besieged Huguenots of Rochelle, was assassinated by a man named Felton, who made no effort to escape. The assassin was actuated by personal rather than by political motives, having been disappointed in his application for a certain office in the gift of his victim. The expedition to Rochelle accomplished nothing, and the war with France ended in 1630. **Death of Buckingham.**

11. Buckingham was succeeded in his position as chief adviser of the King by Sir Thomas Wentworth, a man of superior abilities and great force of character. Wentworth had been one of the leaders of the opposition, and a most determined foe of the King's arbitrary assumptions. Having deserted his own party, he urged Charles forward to tyrannical measures that proved fatal to both. The same year (1628) William Laud was appointed Bishop of London, and became the leading ecclesiastical counsellor of the King. Laud was a zealous upholder of the royal prerogative, and instructed his clergy to proclaim *the divine right of kings* and *passive obedience* as religious maxims. The Puritans, who now reigned supreme in Parliament, found in him a most powerful antagonist. His enemies charged him with trying to restore Catholicism; but he claimed that his only object was to protect the Church of England from "Puritanical innovations." Laud became Archbishop of Canterbury in 1633. **Wentworth and Laud.**

12. Parliament re-assembled in 1629. Violent discussions took place over tunnage and poundage and other matters of finance. The opposi-

tion leaders, headed by Sir John Eliot, carried all before them. The Established Articles of Religion were re-affirmed, and it was decreed that whoever advocated religious views contrary thereto should be deemed "a capital enemy to the King and Commonwealth." A similar resolution was taken in reference to all who should favor the illegal payment of tunnage and poundage. Charles cut short the debates by dissolving Parliament on March 29th, 1629. In his speech he violently assailed those who had taken a leading part against him, styling them "seditious vipers." Several members were committed to the Tower, among them Sir John Eliot, who was prosecuted for sedition, and died three years afterwards in prison.

Parliamentary discussions.

13. England now remained eleven years without a Parliament. During this long interval Charles reigned practically as an absolute sovereign. The provisions of the Petition of Right were entirely disregarded. Taxes were imposed and collected without any shadow of legal authority. Political misdemeanors, or what were considered such, were summarily dealt with by the Star Chamber. Religious offenders were arraigned before the Court of High Commission. Wentworth devised a scheme to which he gave the name of *Thorough*. Its object was to make the King absolute and permanent master of the kingdom by means of a large standing army. Wentworth did much to realize his own design. He was appointed President of the *Council of the North*, a body which had been formed by Henry VIII. after the suppression of the *Pilgrimage of Grace* in 1536. Afterwards he was transferred to Ireland as Lord-Deputy. In both positions he ruled with an iron hand, endeavoring to show his master how easy it was to repress opposition by force of arms. The Star Chamber and the Court of High Commission drove many thousands, whose political and religious principles were not in accordance with those of Wentworth and Laud, to seek refuge in the wilds of America. The colony of Maryland was founded by Catholics in 1633; Connecticut and Rhode Island by Puritans in 1635 and 1638.

Eleven years without a Parliament.

14. It is not necessary to describe all the means to which the King resorted to make up for the loss of parliamentary votes of supply. In 1634, London, for refusing to comply with one of his illegal exactions, was fined £50,000 and deprived of the lands owned by her citizens in Ulster. A tax called *Ship-money*, formerly raised in maritime counties to aid in fitting out ships of war, was revived in 1634, and in the following year was extended to the inland counties. In 1637, John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused to pay the tax levied on him as Ship-money, and demanded that its legality be tested in the courts of law. Out of twelve judges, seven decided that "the tax was lawful when necessary," and that "of

Ship-money.

its necessity the King was the sole judge." This decision, manifestly absurd, did much to strengthen Hampden's cause and to encourage resistance to tyranny.

The Scottish "Covenant."

15. In 1637, the King, acting on the advice of Laud, attempted to impose on the Presbyterians of Scotland the use of a Liturgy. This, following a similar effort to establish Episcopacy, drove the people to rebellion. In 1638, all classes, from the nobility to the peasantry, united in subscribing the *National Covenant*, by which they bound themselves to aid one another in resisting religious changes. A General Assembly, held at Glasgow in November, abolished Episcopacy, the Liturgy, and the High Commission Court, as far as Scotland was concerned.

The Pacification of Berwick.

16. War now seemed imminent between Charles and his Scottish subjects. The King advanced northward as far as to Berwick, only to find that he was too weak to engage in hostilities. He agreed to summon a Parliament, and to leave the religious affairs of Scotland free from the interference of Laud. The agreement by which this temporary peace was patched up is known as the *Pacification of Berwick.*

The Short Parliament.

17. Charles's fourth Parliament, which met in April 1640, is distinguished as the *Short Parliament.* It sat only from April 3rd to May 5th. Instead of voting supplies, the object for which it was called, it at once determined to consider the national grievances. The King took his revenge by a prompt dissolution.

War with Scotland renewed.

18. Not satisfied with the manner in which the provisions of the *Pacification of Berwick* had been carried out, the Scots renewed the war against Charles. They advanced under General Leslie into England, and captured Newcastle and Durham. Then another accommodation was effected, called the *Treaty of Ripon.* The Scottish force was to remain in England until a Commission representing both parties should adjust the points of difference. Charles agreed to pay in the meantime £5,600 a week for the support of Leslie's army. The King was now at York, where he convoked a great *Council of Peers*, by which he was advised to summon another Parliament.

The Long Parliament.

19. The fifth and last Parliament of Charles's reign met in 1640. It has received the name of the *Long Parliament* from the extraordinary length of its duration. It was not finally dissolved till 1660, having lasted more than *nineteen* years, and outlived the King *eleven* years. The electors generally returned members hostile to the usurpations of Charles. Many strong friends of the Monarchy and the Church were determined that unconstitutional courts and illegal taxes should be put down for ever. The first act of the Long Parliament was to set free the imprisoned victims

of the Star Chamber and the Court of High Commission. It then proceeded to abolish these tribunals, and to limit the powers of the Council of the North. The leader of the opposition party in Parliament now was Pym, member for Tavistock, the sole survivor of the band of patriots who struggled against Charles in the earlier Parliaments of his reign. Sir Edward Coke was dead; Eliot had worn out his life in prison; Wentworth was now the chief support of the tyranny of the King.

Religious affairs.

20. Parliament soon took occasion to express its disapproval of the ecclesiastical policy of Archbishop Laud. That prelate was himself committed to the Tower. The images, crucifixes, and altars which, under his direction, had been restored in many of the churches, were summarily removed. Beautiful and costly stained windows, "with dim religious light," were in many cases rudely smashed. Clergymen supposed to sympathize with the views of Laud were imprisoned or driven from their livings.

Death of Wentworth.

21. Sir Thomas Wentworth, who had returned from Ireland and been created Earl of Strafford shortly before the meeting of the Long Parliament, was now attacked. Pym moved, with the unanimous consent of the House, "that the Commons do impeach Sir Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, of high treason." As Strafford had been faithful to the *King*, however unfaithful to the *kingdom*, the charge of treason was a difficult one to establish. Impeachment was abandoned, and the more summary process of a *Bill of Attainder* was substituted. The bill passed both Houses, and on the 7th of May 1641 received the assent of the King. Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill five days later.

Triennial Act.

22. The same session at which Strafford was convicted saw an important Act placed on the statute-book, at least temporarily. This was the *Triennial Act*, which provided that Parliament should be summoned at least once in three years, and that when once summoned it should not be prorogued for at least fifty days, save with its own consent. It was also fixed that Parliament should not be *dissolved* on the mere pleasure of the King. This Act was repealed after the Restoration (in 1664).

Outbreak in Ireland.

23. In October 1641 an outbreak in Ireland resulted in the death of many of the English and Scottish settlers in Ulster. Strafford's withdrawal had been followed by a large reduction of the army kept in Ireland. The opportunity had been embraced by the native inhabitants to expel, if possible, the Saxon colonists; and as is too often the case in conflicts of hostile races and creeds, many acts of savage barbarity were committed.

24. England was now fast arraying itself into two hostile camps, the one supporting the King; the other, the Parliament. A number of moderate men, who had hitherto lent aid to Pym, refused to follow

him in movements which they thought dangerous to both Church and State. Among these may be mentioned Edward Hyde, author of the famous *History of the Great Rebellion*, and Lucius Carey (Lord Falkland), in whose mind there raged a painful conflict between dread of tyranny and dread of civil war. The two parties were formally styled *Royalists* and *Parliamentarians*. *Cavaliers* and *Roundheads* were the names by which they were popularly known respectively.

Roundheads and Cavaliers.

25. The existence of two well-defined parties even in Parliament was clearly shown in November 1641. Pym determined to appeal to the people against the King, and with that end in view introduced a *Remonstrance*, which was neither more nor less than a forcible arraignment of Charles for his various acts of misgovernment. Hyde and Falkland thought that this was going too far, and the "Remonstrance" was passed by only a narrow majority.

The Remonstrance.

26. In December 1641, twelve bishops who had protested against the legislation of Parliament were impeached by the House of Commons. The King retaliated by impeaching the five members who conducted the impeachment of the bishops—Pym, Holles, Hazelrig, Strode, and Hampden. Refusal to surrender the impeached members was followed by the King's forcible entry into Parliament, only to find his prey flown. Thus foiled, Charles retired deeply chagrined to his palace at Hampton Court. The next day the accused members were escorted in triumph to their accustomed seats in the House.

Impeachment of five members.

27. Everything now betokened civil war. Parliament resolutely pushed the bewildered King to extremes. It obliged him practically to surrender the Tower by nominating a commander opposed to his own interests. The great storehouses of arms were at Hull and Portsmouth. Sir John Hotham seized the former, the Earl of Essex the latter. Parliament, feeling its strength, now asked Charles to surrender his prerogative of appointing the commanders of the militia. The King refused to drink this last drop in the cup of his humiliation.

Impending Civil War.

28. In the war now about to begin the King was supported by the majority of the nobility and gentry, and by the whole body of his Catholic subjects. His military strength lay in the spirited cavalry put in the field by the nobles who fought under his banner, and which, under the gallant leadership of his nephew, Prince Rupert, son of Elizabeth of Bohemia, turned several of the earlier battles in his favor. The Parliamentarians had the almost unanimous support of the cities and the larger towns. Holding London, which was predominatingly Protestant and Puritan, they got all the benefit of the commerce of the country so far as the Thames

Opposing forces.

was concerned. At the outset the Parliamentary forces were led by the Earl of Essex, a cautious rather than a brilliant leader.

Battle of Edgehill.

29. The first battle of the Civil War was fought at Edgehill, not very far from Oxford, on October 23rd, 1642. The advantage on the whole was with the royal forces. The King quartered for the winter at Oxford.

Sundry engagements.

30. The spring and the summer of 1643 saw a number of comparatively unimportant battles, generally favorable to the Royalists. Though Reading was captured by Essex in April, the Parliamentary forces were defeated at Stratton, Lansdown, Roundway Down, and Atherton Moor. At Chalgrove Field the celebrated Hampden fell mortally wounded Bristol surrendered to Rupert. Gloucester was besieged in turn, but Essex succeeded in raising the siege. Returning to London, the Parliamentary commander gained some advantage at Newbury, where the patriotic Falkland met his death.

Ireland and Scotland.

31. During the Civil War, Charles received aid from Ireland, the Parliament from Scotland. For some time negotiations had been conducted between Parliament and the Scots, with a view to co-operation against the King. In 1643, Sir Harry Vane was sent to Scotland to make definite arrangements The Scots agreed to furnish an army of twenty thousand men, to be paid by the English Parliament. In return, Presbyterianism was to be the established religion of both kingdoms. An *Assembly of Divines* sat at Westminster to reconstruct the Church of England. The compact between the Scots and the Parliament was called the *Solemn League and Covenant:* it must not be confounded with the purely Scottish *Covenant* of 1638.

The Independents.

32. The part of the English people that supported the cause of the Parliament was divided into two ecclesiastical sections. Of these, the Presbyterians formed the one, and the Independents the other. The latter body was now for the first time coming into prominent notice. The name was derived from the peculiar theory that each local congregation or *church* was *independent* of all others. Though less numerous in Parliament, and possibly in the country too, than the Presbyterians, the Independents constituted the main strength of the army. They favored a republican form of government.

Oliver Cromwell.

33. The leader of the Independents was Oliver Cromwell, a gentleman of Huntingdonshire, who as an officer in the Parliamentary army had devoted himself to the task of raising up a force of trained cavalry capable of resisting the fiery onsets of Rupert. How far he succeeded we shall soon see. He possessed a terrible earnestness of soul, and his mind was imbued with intensely Puritanical sentiments.

34. Before tracing the military operations of the year 1644, we may notice the trial and execution of Archbishop Laud. For some time he had lain in prison almost forgotten. A Bill of Attainder was passed against him, notwithstanding a most spirited and pathetic speech in his own defence. His enemies acknowledged the Christian dignity with which he met his fate. His execution did not take place till January 1645.

Death of Laud.

35. The Parliamentary troops were reinforced at the beginning of the year 1644 by a Scottish army of forty thousand men under the command of Leslie, Earl of Leven. On the other hand, the King's forces were strengthened by a body of troops from Ireland. The campaign opened in January with the defeat of the latter at Nantwich by the Parliamentary general Fairfax. Fairfax gained a second advantage at Selby in Yorkshire. On the 2nd of July was fought the desperate Battle of Marston Moor, near York, which was being besieged by the Parliamentary troops in conjunction with the Scots. The battle was the result of an attempt to raise the siege by Prince Rupert. Despite prodigies of valor performed by the Royalists, Cromwell's Ironsides in the end carried all before them. The victory was followed by the surrender of the Royalist strongholds of York and Newcastle. The King himself had better success in the south, where on the 29th of June he gained the Battle of Cropredy Bridge, in Buckinghamshire. At Lostwithiel, in Cornwall, he compelled the surrender of a large part of Essex's army. The campaign closed with the second Battle of Newbury, in October, in which Charles suffered a repulse. He then returned to his winter quarters at Oxford.

Battles of 1644.

36. Thus far the chief successes of the Parliamentary troops had been gained by Cromwell and his Ironsides. The other generals were slow, cautious men, who seemed to have aimed not so much at conquering the King as at restoring him to his position as a constitutional ruler. Cromwell, early in 1645, secured the passage through Parliament of an Act called *The Self-denying Ordinance*, the effect of which was to exclude all members of Parliament from military command. This compelled Essex, Waller, and Lord Fairfax to resign their commissions in the army. Sir Thomas Fairfax became Commander-in-Chief, but Cromwell, who was allowed to retain his command, was in reality the directing spirit of the army.

The Self-denying Ordinance.

37. At the beginning of the year 1645, negotiations for a compromise were held between the King and the Parliament, and Charles offered to make certain concessions. These, however, he withdrew on hearing that the Royalist forces in Scotland under Montrose had gained an advantage. The war in England recommenced, and soon resulted in the King's crushing defeat at Naseby, in Northamptonshire. Charles had marched to

Battle of Naseby.

relieve Oxford, which during the war had been his headquarters and capital, and which was then besieged by Sir Thomas Fairfax. The memorable Battle of Naseby was fought on June 14th, 1645. The King's army was almost annihilated by the terrible energy of Cromwell's Ironsides. Fairfax and Cromwell pushed on the advantage thus gained, and in October, Prince Rupert was compelled to surrender the important city of Bristol. The King retired to Oxford. His eldest son, Prince Charles, fled to Paris to join his mother, Queen Henrietta Maria. Meantime the slight Royalist successes in Scotland were more than counterbalanced by the disastrous Battle of Philiphaugh, where the Covenanters completely routed the army of Montrose.

Charles surrenders to the Scots.

38. Early in 1646, Fairfax renewed the siege of Oxford. The King, fearing capture, fled in despair, and surrendered himself to the Scottish army, quartered at Newark. Negotiations were then entered into between the English Parliament and the Scots, which resulted in the delivery of the King to the former. It was agreed that the Scottish army should retire from England, and receive £400,000 for its past services. Many, however, regard this sum as really a price paid for the person of the captive King.

Quarrels between Parliament and Army.

39. Parliament, which was still under Presbyterian control, now proposed to disband the army and negotiate a treaty with the King. These purposes were successfully resisted by Cromwell and other leading Independents. Cromwell caused the King to be seized and brought to the army at Newmarket. Soon afterwards, the great Independent leader was appointed commander-in-chief, and entered London in triumph. By the expulsion of prominent Presbyterians, Parliament was made increasingly subservient to the army. The King was closely confined at Hampton Court. His elder sons, the Prince of Wales, and James, Duke of York, were with their mother in Paris. Prince Henry and the Princess Elizabeth shared their father's captivity.

Escape and recapture of the King.

40. In November 1647 the King escaped from confinement, but was soon recaptured in the Isle of Wight and imprisoned in Carisbrooke Castle. Events occurred from time to time which kept alive his hope of regaining the crown. Early in 1648, the Scots, who were not pleased with his treatment in England, began to plan movements in his favor. Royalist risings also took place in Wales, in Surrey, in Kent, and in Lancashire, but were all put down by the resistless energy of Cromwell. At Preston, in Lancashire, the Scots under the Duke of Hamilton were forced to surrender. Cromwell then marched to Edinburgh, and placed the government of Scotland in the hands of the Marquis of Argyle. The last military event of the Civil War was the capture of Colchester by Fairfax on August 28th, 1648.

41. During the absence of Cromwell, the Presbyterian leaders in Parliament opened negotiations with the captive King. The resolution authorizing this was passed by a vote of 129 against 83. Forthwith an officer named Colonel Pride entered the House of Commons, followed by two regiments, and forcibly expelled the Presbyterian members. The name *Rump* was derisively given to the remaining Independents, who constituted all that was left of the famous "Long Parliament."

Pride's Purge.

42. The Rump Parliament proceeded to impeach the King for his alleged crimes against the State. It made a new definition of treason, declaring that it was "treason for a King to levy war upon his subjects." The King's trial was committed to a tribunal called "the High Court of Justice," consisting nominally of one hundred and fifty members, of whom not more than fifty actually attended the sessions. All the peers appointed to the court absented themselves. "The High Court of Justice" met on the 20th of January 1649, and sat for seven days, under the presidency of a lawyer named Bradshaw. Throughout the trial Charles bore himself with quiet dignity, declining to acknowledge the jurisdiction of his judges. The sentence of the court was in the following terms:— "For which treasons and crimes this court doth adjudge that he, the said Charles Stuart, as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy, should be put to death by severing his head from the body." Whatever may have been the King's faults or follies, the illegality of this sentence is beyond all question. To secure its passage, it had been necessary to assume that the House of Commons had power to legislate without the concurrence either of the Peers or of the Sovereign.

Trial of Charles I.

43. Before and during Charles's trial great efforts were made to save him. Strong protests were received from Scotland. The United States of the Netherlands interceded in his behalf. The Prince of Wales offered any concessions that would save his father's life. All was in vain. Three days after its issue the dread sentence was carried out. On the 30th of January 1649, a day held sacred by many generations of loyal Englishmen, Charles Stuart was beheaded on a platform erected in front of the banqueting hall of Whitehall Palace. The fire which subsequently destroyed the palace spared the banqueting hall, which has long been used as one of the chapels royal. Every visitor to London gazes at the window through which King Charles I. stepped forth to the fatal block. The King met his fate with a composure worthy of a Christian. "His head fell at the first blow; and as the executioner lifted it to the sight of all, a groan of pity and horror burst from the silent crowd."

Execution of the King.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

THE COMMONWEALTH (1649 to 1660).—1. THE COUNCIL OF STATE (1649 to 1653).

1. The death of Charles I. was immediately followed by the formal abolition of Monarchy and of the House of Lords. The Commons decreed that they were "useless and dangerous." The government was vested in a Council of State, composed of forty-one members. Bradshaw was appointed President; the celebrated poet Milton, Foreign Secretary; Sir Harry Vane, Controller of the Navy, with Blake as chief admiral; Fairfax and Cromwell, chief military commanders. The latter was also appointed Lord-Deputy to Ireland. It was made an act of treason to acknowledge the claims of "Charles Stuart, commonly called the 'Prince of Wales.'" To intimidate the Royalists, three of their most prominent leaders, the Duke of Hamilton, Lord Holland, and Lord Capel, were executed.

The Council of State.

2. The execution of Charles I. excited great feeling throughout Europe. The Czar of Russia dismissed the English envoy. France recalled her ambassador. In Holland, the Prince of Orange, Charles's brother-in-law, warmly espoused the cause of his injured nephew, the Prince of Wales.

Foreign feeling.

3. At home everything was in confusion. The Rump Parliament was unpopular. Even in the army opposition to the Council of State manifested itself. A party called the *Levellers* broke into mutiny. A number of the councillors refused to be sworn in, and it was estimated that more than half of the judges voluntarily retired from the bench. Still more discouraging to the popular leaders was the aspect of affairs in Ireland and in Scotland.

Home affairs.

4. Under the Duke of Ormond almost the entire population of Ireland was united in support of the Royalist cause. The Prince of Wales was proclaimed as Charles II. immediately after his father's execution. Cromwell, realizing the importance of prompt action, crossed over to Ireland as soon as affairs at home would permit. He had sent, however, a body of troops in advance, by whom Ormond had been defeated before his arrival. His own attention was chiefly directed to the siege of the principal cities and towns held by the Royalists. Drogheda fell in September 1649; afterwards Wexford, Kilkenny, and Clonmel. The garrisons of the captured places were treated with remorseless severity, being butchered without mercy. The inhabitants of the country generally were treated with great harshness; thousands were transported to the West Indies, while immense numbers were driven to seek service in foreign lands. The Royalist rising in Ireland was effectually suppressed.

Cromwell in Ireland.

5. Cromwell returned from Ireland in the spring of 1650. He had been recalled in the preceding autumn to meet the dangers which were threatening the Commonwealth from Scotland. Charles, Prince of Wales, had been proclaimed by the Scots immediately after his father's death. But the offer of the crown was made conditional on his acceptance of the National Covenant. This Charles had refused, until June 1650, when, having waived his scruples, he landed in Scotland to assert his rights as King. Shortly afterwards, Cromwell marched northward to dispute his claim.

Affairs in Scotland.

6. The Scottish, or, as it was called, the *Covenanting* army, under the command of General David Leslie, took up a secure position between Edinburgh and Leith. The Scottish general, who was well versed in military affairs, saw that his true policy was to wear Cromwell out by delay. The summer had nearly gone, and the English troops, suffering severely from scarcity of supplies, withdrew to Dunbar. Leslie followed them, and took up his position on the hills that overlook the town, shutting in Cromwell on a corner of coast. For some time Leslie adhered to his wise policy of inaction, till, overborne by the entreaties of the Presbyterian preachers who were in his camp, and who were anxious for a battle, he at length moved down from the heights and attacked Cromwell. The English forces were completely victorious. Cromwell took possession of Edinburgh and Leith, and pursued the young King as far as to Perth. Charles by rapid marches escaped, and moved southward into England, hoping to rally the people generally to his standard.

Battle of Dunbar.

7. Cromwell, having established his authority in Scotland, returned to England the following summer, to hold in check any movement in favor of Charles. On the 3rd of September 1651, the anniversary of the victory at Dunbar, he encountered the Royalist forces at Worcester. Again did the terrible Ironsides utterly rout their enemies. The luckless Charles, after six weeks spent in obscure hiding-places, succeeded in escaping to France. Five brothers belonging to a Catholic family named Penderell distinguished themselves for their loyal attachment to the Prince during the time of his concealment. The ensuing nine years Charles spent as a fugitive from England, alternating his residence between France and Holland.

Battle of Worcester.

8. For years there had been growing a feeling of jealousy between England and Holland as the chief commercial nations of Europe. In 1651, the English Parliament aimed a blow at the Dutch by passing a *Navigation Act*, the effect of which was to confine the commerce of England to her own merchant vessels. This led to disputes, and finally to war. Before, however, war was actually declared, Blake forced an engagement with

The Dutch War.

the Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, in Dover Roads. The action, which resulted from Van Tromp's refusal to salute the English flag, was on the whole a victory for England. This was in May 1652. In September Blake was again successful; but in October, off the Goodwin Sands, he was decisively defeated by Van Tromp, who followed the English fleet up the Thames with a broom fastened to his mast-head, as a sign that he was sweeping all before him. The war was resumed the following summer, the naval victories being steadily on the side of the English. At length, in July 1653, the Dutch fleet was annihilated off Texel, on the coast of Holland. The gallant Van Tromp perished with his fleet. This battle ended the war. By the *Treaty of Westminster* (April 5, 1654) the Dutch engaged to lend no help to the English Royalists, to make compensation for losses inflicted on English merchants, and to salute the English flag.

End of the Long Parliament.

9. The year 1653 saw the end of the "Long Parliament," or rather of that remnant of it which since "Pride's Purge" had been contemptuously known as the "Rump." The subjugation of Ireland and the victories at Dunbar and Worcester served to give great prestige to the name of Cromwell. It was generally felt that he was the real ruler of England. The Parliament was naturally jealous of his growing influence, and to lessen it determined to reduce the army. On the other hand, there was a general impression that the interests of the country required a new Parliament fresh from the people. But the Rump had no intention of dealing a death-blow to its own existence. In this crisis Cromwell's resolution was soon formed. Taking with him a military force, he entered the House, and after listening a while to the debates, began furiously to upbraid the members, whom he called on "to give place to honester men." He suited the action to the word. The mace, which he pronounced "a bauble," was pitched out of the window, the members were expelled from their seats, and the doors of the Parliament House securely locked. England had seen great changes since the Long Parliament first assembled in 1640.

Barebone's Parliament.

10. Cromwell followed up the forcible dissolution of the Rump by summoning certain persons *by name* to form a new Parliament. The selections were made chiefly from the extreme Puritanical ranks. On July 4, 1653, one hundred and twenty-eight persons thus summoned decreed themselves to be the Parliament of England. Among the members was a London leather-seller, to whose surname of *Barbon* the Puritanical fashion of the times had given the singular prefix of *Praise-God*. This Parliament, if such it can be called, is known as *Barebone's Parliament*. In less than six months it voted itself out of existence. This was done by an enactment called *The Instrument of Government*, by which all real power was transferred to Cromwell, under the title of *Lord Protector*

of England, *Scotland*, and *Ireland*. The three countries were to be represented in Parliament by 400, 30, and 30 members respectively. What was really a military despotism had taken the place of the ancient constitutional government of England.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE COMMONWEALTH (1649 to 1660).—2. THE PROTECTORATE (1653 to 1658).

Oliver Cromwell.

1. Oliver Cromwell, who now became supreme ruler of England, was the son of a country gentleman of Huntingdon. He was educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. In 1628 he represented Huntingdon in the House of Commons; in 1640 he was returned as member for Cambridge in the Long Parliament. Until the breaking out of the Civil War, he had given no proof of remarkable ability. He was never distinguished for skill or eloquence in debate. But when he entered the army, which he did at the breaking out of the war, his decided genius for military affairs soon displayed itself. He saw that the only hope of successfully resisting Rupert's cavalry lay in rigidly training his troops, and in inspiring them with his own religious enthusiasm. Cromwell's *Ironsides* decided the fate of Charles at Marston Moor and Naseby. His character has been variously judged. All admit his ambition, and that he was capable of acts of great cruelty when the real or supposed interests of his cause seemed to demand them. The charge that he was a hypocrite, making a mask of religion to serve his personal and selfish ends, is not so clearly proved. Some modern historians, like Macaulay and Carlyle, regard him as a sincere man, of intense religious earnestness. His private life was pure, and his habits were simple.

Cromwell's first Parliament.

2. The first Parliament of the Protectorate met on September 4, 1654. This is notable as the first Parliament in English history that embraced members from Scotland and Ireland as well as from England. Many Presbyterian members of the Long Parliament were in their seats again. Great offence was given to Cromwell by the Parliament's undertaking "to revise the Constitution," instead of applying itself to practical measures, "healing and settling," as he phrased it. On his own authority he had issued a large number of "Ordinances," dealing with both home and foreign affairs. When Parliament proposed to refer these Ordinances to committees of its own, he promptly dissolved it.

Second Parliament.

3. Another Parliament was convened in September 1656. One hundred members were excluded by an oath which required them to swear allegiance to the Protectorate as established. The remaining members offered Cromwell

the crown in May 1657. Though this offer was declined, a new document, called the *Humble Petition and Advice*, was substituted for the *Instrument of Government* as the basis of Cromwell's rule. He then had himself inaugurated as Protector in Westminster Hall with a splendor almost equalling that of coronations. An attempt was made to create a new House of Peers. Some sixty persons, including a few of the old peers, were summoned. This movement excited general ridicule. The House of Commons itself refused to recognize the associate legislators. Cromwell then dismissed his last Parliament in a burst of rage.

Military districts.

4. Much discontent prevailed in England. At one time a Royalist insurrection would show itself; at another, the Republicans, smarting under the personal tyranny of Cromwell, would rise against a despot who presumed to dictate to "the saints of the earth." Cromwell determined to keep things in his own hand by dividing the country into eleven *military districts*, each under a major-general with absolute powers over life and property. Thus prevented from open mutiny, fierce zealots of both parties began to think of assassination as the only means of accomplishing their ends.

Foreign policy of Cromwell.

5. Cromwell aspired to make himself the champion of Protestantism throughout the world. He therefore entered into alliances with Holland, Denmark, and Switzerland. By his influence with France, with which he allied himself as against Spain, he obtained religious concessions for the people of Savoy. He demanded freedom of trade and worship for English merchants in South America, and supported the demand by despatching thither a powerful fleet. His great admiral, Blake, took vengeance on the pirates of Barbary in the interest of all Christian nations, and especially of English commerce. An English army aided the French in wresting Dunkirk from Spain. The captured fortress was ceded to England. In the West Indies, Admiral Penn failed to gain possession of San Domingo, but he seized Jamaica, which has ever since remained attached to the British Crown. Blake's last exploit was to burn a Spanish fleet in the Bay of Santa Cruz, Teneriffe. The great naval hero died on the homeward voyage, shortly before the Protector's own death. The foreign credit of England has seldom stood higher than during the Protectorate of Cromwell.

Death of Cromwell.

6. Oliver Cromwell died of ague on September 3rd, 1658, the anniversary of his two great victories of Dunbar and Worcester. His last days had been clouded with melancholy. The success of his foreign policy could not compensate for the murmurs and plots at home. The death of a favorite daughter was added to his other sorrows. His cup was poisoned with suspicion and distrust. Colonel Titus, a bitter Royalist, wrote a tract entitled *Killing*

no Murder, and to Cromwell's dismay this plea for his assassination was circulated far and wide. The experiment of ruling England without a free Parliament had ended in failure. Cromwell's bones lay for a little time amid royal dust in Westminster Abbey.

Richard Cromwell.

7. The late Protector was supposed to have indicated a wish that his eldest son Richard should succeed him. Richard Cromwell was a weak man, without either the ambition or the strict religious notions of his father. The nation for a little while acquiesced in his rule; but it was an attempt to keep up a system after its main prop had been removed. The army mutinied. Richard was forced to dissolve Parliament and to retire into private life. The Protectorate was at an end. Richard Cromwell, after a temporary absence on the Continent, returned to England, and died peacefully at an extreme old age in 1712, in the reign of Queen Anne.

Anarchy.

8. An interval of anarchy now occurred. The military leaders who had brought about the expulsion of Richard Cromwell were Lambert and Fleetwood, the latter being brother-in-law of Oliver Cromwell. They agreed to recall the "Rump" Parliament, which, on being convened, speedily quarrelled with the men who had summoned it. Lambert then forced it to dissolve, and an attempt was made to govern the country by a council of officers, under the name of a *Committee of Safety*.

General Monk.

9. At the death of Oliver Cromwell, Ireland was governed by his second son Henry, a man of greater ability than Richard, and Scotland by General Monk. Both acknowledged the Protectorate of Richard Cromwell. But now Monk repudiated the assumed authority of Lambert and Fleetwood, and, without any disclosure of his ultimate object, marched with his army to London. On his arrival he declared for a "free Parliament," an announcement which was received with universal joy. The Long Parliament, as it stood before "Pride's Purge," was recalled. The members resolved on a new election, and at once the Parliament was dissolved. The new House met on the 25th of April 1660, when it appeared that Monk had conducted a secret correspondence with Prince Charles. A declaration from the Prince, called, from the place where it was written, the *Declaration of Breda*, was read to Parliament. This was addressed to the Prince's "loving subjects," and promised a general amnesty, save in cases excepted by Parliament, "liberty to tender consciences," an equitable settlement of unjust confiscations, and arrears of pay to the army. The Parliament gracefully accepted the Prince's assurances, and on the 8th of May Charles II. was proclaimed King of England. A fleet was at once despatched to convey him to Dover.

CHAPTER XL.

HOUSE OF STUART (RESUMED). THE RESTORATION.—CHARLES II. (1660 to 1685 A.D.).

The Restoration.

1 Charles II. entered London on May 29, 1660, his thirtieth birthday. The restoration of the monarchy was hailed with joy by the nation at large. It was accepted as the signal for the re-establishment of law, order, and domestic tranquillity. The extreme Republicans held their peace or left the country; the great mass of the Presbyterians, like their leader General Monk, united with the Royalists in welcoming the return of constitutional government.

Character of Charles II.

2. In their first transports of loyal enthusiasm, the people gave little thought to the character of their restored King. In fact there was much to win their confidence in Charles's outward appearance and bearing. His swarthy complexion and rather coarse features were lighted up with the kindliest of smiles. No English monarch ever moved among his subjects with such easy, engaging familiarity. To his dying day, those around him found it impossible to resist the charm of his graceful manners, his ready wit, his frank and affable conversation. But his people soon discovered that this agreeable exterior concealed a selfish and lustful nature. Charles had scarcely reigned a year when he made it clear that his highest ambition was to lead a life of indolence and pleasure. To gratify this, there was scarcely any sacrifice of honor and duty which he was not prepared to make. He died a Roman Catholic, and in his few serious moments during life is supposed to have been attached to the faith of his mother; but sooner than interrupt his pleasures, he allowed the Catholics to suffer the most outrageous persecution without an effort to save them. For many years he regularly sold the honor of his country to France, enabling himself to defy his own Parliaments by accepting bribes or pensions from Louis XIV. Two years after his accession, he married a Portuguese princess, Catharine of Braganza, with whom he received as a dowry £500,000, together with the fortress of Tangier and the settlement of Bombay. He treated his Queen with little respect, surrounding himself with abandoned women, and making his Court a by-word of immorality.

The Convention-Parliament.

3. The Assembly which accepted the *Declaration of Breda* was not a regular *Parliament*, the formality of having been summoned by a King being wanting. It is sometimes known as the *Convention*, sometimes as the *Convention-Parliament*. It sat until the December following the King's accession. In accordance with the Declaration of Breda, it passed a general *Act*

of Indemnity, but excepted from its provisions the *regicides*, or members of the High Court of Justice which had tried and condemned the late King. Of these, ten were executed, nineteen were imprisoned for life, others escaped to Holland and America. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were disinterred, and buried under a gibbet at Tyburn. The ashes of Blake were transferred from Westminster Abbey to a more common receptacle. The Convention granted the King tunnage and poundage for life, together with a fixed revenue of £1,200,000. At the same time it abolished *purveyance*, or the right of taking property for the King's use, at a valuation, without the consent of the owners; and also deprived the Crown of certain feudal privileges through which much money had been exacted in former reigns.

The Corporation Act.

4. The first regular Parliament of Charles's reign met in May 1661. One of its first measures was the *Corporation Act.* By this Act, magistrates, and members of corporations, such as mayors, aldermen, etc., were required to commune according to the rites of the Established Church, and to swear that it was unlawful to take up arms against the King. This *oath of non-resistance*, as it was called, was abolished in the reign of George I.; the "Corporation Act" itself continued in force until 1828.

The Act of Uniformity.

5. At its second session in 1662, Parliament passed a statute dealing with religious affairs, known as the *Act of Uniformity.* This Act made attendance at the parish church compulsory, and to speak against the Liturgy a criminal offence. Clergymen were required to be episcopally ordained, and to assent to the Book of Common Prayer. They were further obliged to renounce the *Solemn League and Covenant*, and to take the same oath of non-resistance as magistrates. Upwards of one thousand ministers, some of them eminent for their learning and piety, refused to accept the conditions imposed by the Act of Uniformity, and were deprived of their livings on August 24th, 1662. The terms *Nonconformist* and *Dissenter* date from this period.

The "Conventicle" and "Five Mile" Acts.

6. The Act of Uniformity was followed in 1664 by the *Conventicle Act*, and in 1665 by the *Five Mile Act*, both designed to carry out its harsh provisions against Dissenters. The former made it unlawful to attend religious worship conducted by Nonconformist ministers; the latter denied such ministers the privilege of coming within five miles of a city or town sending members to Parliament, and also forbade their teaching in school. These odious restrictions were enforced by fines, imprisonment, and even transportation.

The Dutch War.

7. As belonging to two of the chief commercial nations of the age, the English and the Dutch traders came into frequent conflict. In 1664, an English company trading with the Gold Coast became involved in a quarrel with some of

the Dutch settlements in Africa. At the head of this company was the King's brother, James, Duke of York, who was also Lord High Admiral of England. Under his direction an English fleet captured the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam in America, which in honor of the Duke has since borne the name of *New York*. The following year (1665) war was formally declared. Under the Duke of York and his cousin Prince Rupert, the English fleet gained a decisive victory off Lowestoft, on the Suffolk coast. This was followed by an engagement, in which neither party got the advantage, off Goodwin Sands. Then the English were once more victorious off the North Foreland, the Dutch fleet being nearly destroyed. In 1667, the Dutch Admirals De Witt and De Ruyter turned the tables against the English. England, suffering from two terrible calamities described in the two succeeding paragraphs, had neglected her navy, while Holland had spared no pains to put hers in an efficient state. The result was that the Dutch fleet sailed almost unopposed up the Thames, causing great alarm and destroying much property. The highest point reached was Tilbury Fort, opposite Gravesend. De Witt then retired without having received a single blow in return for the loss and disgrace inflicted on the English. The war was soon brought to a close by the *Treaty of Breda*, which was effected in July 1667. Though not disadvantageous to England, to which New York, New Jersey, and Delaware in America, Gold Coast Castle in Africa, and Antigua in the West Indies were ceded, the Treaty of Breda was regarded as a national humiliation, because nothing had been done to wipe out the disgrace of the recent insult.

Great Plague of London.

8. During the Dutch War just described, London had been visited by two disasters of no ordinary kind. The first of these, which occurred in 1665, was the *Great Plague of London*. It was a repetition, on a larger scale, of the *Black Death* of the reign of Edward III. Towards autumn the death-rate reached the appalling figures of 10,000 a week, out of a population probably not exceeding half a million. The total number of deaths is supposed to have reached 100,000. The sickening details of this sad visitation need not be given here. As far as possible infected houses were marked with a red cross, with the words, "Lord, have mercy on us," inscribed under it. The Great Plague was caused by accumulations of filth, which in their turn were due to the absence of proper facilities for drainage.

Great Fire of London.

9. The year after the Great Plague, more than half of London was laid in ashes by a terrible conflagration. Starting at a point near London Bridge, still marked out by a lofty monument, designed by Sir Christopher Wren, this notable fire raged for three days and nights without intermission. It swept away ninety churches, St. Paul's among them, and nearly four-

teen thousand houses. Hundreds of thousands of people were turned homeless on the streets. The Great Fire, following the Great Plague, is supposed to have done a good service in removing impurities and burning up the dangerous dregs of infection. London owes to the Great Fire a number of handsome churches designed by Sir Christopher Wren, and some slight improvement in the general plan of her streets. Old St. Paul's was a noble Gothic edifice; the new St. Paul's, the masterpiece of Wren's genius, and still one of the chief sights of London, belongs to the modern Italian style of architecture.

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon.

10. During his exile in France and Holland, Charles had been accompanied by Edward Hyde, afterwards created Earl of Clarendon, whose name has always been associated with that of the illustrious Falkland, as representing the worthiest class of cavaliers. Hyde's "History of the Great Rebellion," though written in a heavy style, and by no means free from partisan bias, has a recognized place in English literature as an historical work of great value. Since Charles's accession Clarendon had been his chief adviser, though the King had never, whether in exile or on the throne, altogether relished his minister's austere habits and irreproachable morals. In 1662, contrary to Clarendon's advice, Charles had sold Dunkirk to the King of France for a paltry sum, much to the indignation of the people of England, who were then smarting under the humiliation, supposed rather than real, inflicted upon them by the Treaty of Breda. The popular dissatisfaction demanded a victim. The King was ready to deliver up an adviser of whom he was tired, but who in reality was innocent of both the matters complained of by the people. Clarendon was impeached and banished in 1667. He wrote the history already referred to during his exile. His daughter, Anne Hyde, was the first wife of the King's brother, James, Duke of York. Clarendon died abroad in 1674.

The Cabal.

11. We are now to see for the first time in English history something approaching the modern *Cabinet*, or the body of responsible advisers surrounding the King. Clarendon having been banished, Charles gave his confidence to five statesmen—the Earl of Clifford, Lord Arlington, the Duke of Buckingham, Lord Ashley, and the Earl of Lauderdale. By a curious coincidence, the initial letters of the names or titles of these ministers make up the word *Cabal*—the name by which the body is known in history, a name originally having pretty much the same meaning as *Cabinet*, but now generally used to designate a band of political tricksters. To the conduct of Charles's advisers must we attribute this variation of the word from the harmless meaning it originally bore.

12. The first act of the Cabal was a popular and wise one. Louis XIV., seemingly bent on the universal possession of Europe, had

claimed the Spanish Netherlands as his, by virtue of his marriage with Maria Theresa of Spain, and was preparing to sustain his claim by arms. In 1668 Sir William Temple was commissioned to conclude a treaty between Sweden, Holland, and England, with a view of checking the ambitious designs of Louis. This treaty is known as *The Triple Alliance.* The Triple Alliance produced immediate results. Before a year passed, by the *Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle* Louis resigned his claim to Flanders, or the Spanish Netherlands.

The Triple Alliance..

13. We have now to record a most singular transaction. In 1670, while the Triple Alliance was in full force, the King concluded a secret arrangement with Louis XIV., called the *Treaty of Dover.* Louis agreed to pay Charles an annual pension of £120,000. In return, the King of England agreed to abandon the Triple Alliance, to make war on Holland, and to support Louis's pretensions to the Spanish Netherlands. For the rest of his reign, Charles occupied the disgraceful position of a pensioner on the bounty of a foreign Court. Clifford and Arlington were the only members of the Cabal to whom this infamous secret was intrusted. Charles obtained a large sum of money, voted by Parliament under the impression that it was sustaining the Triple Alliance.

The Treaty of Dover.

14. In accordance with the Treaty of Dover, war was declared against Holland in 1672. No battles of much importance took place between the English and Dutch fleets. The war was chiefly memorable for the stubborn resistance made in Holland by the young Prince of Orange to the armies of Louis, aided by an English force, under the command of Charles II.'s natural son, the Duke of Monmouth. The Prince of Orange, afterwards William III. of England, was Charles's nephew, his mother being Mary, daughter of Charles I. Peace was made between England and Holland in 1674 by the *Treaty of Westminster.* Part of the funds by which this war had been maintained was raised by a disgraceful procedure known as "Shutting the Exchequer," that is, by refusing to pay the public debts.

War with Holland.

15. In 1672 the King issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, or royal proclamation suspending all penal laws against Nonconformists. He claimed the right to do this by virtue of what was called the *Dispensing Power*, by which, in certain special cases, the King had been empowered to suspend the operation of particular statutes. The Declaration would have given relief to both Catholics and Protestant Dissenters; but Parliament protested so strongly that in 1673 it was withdrawn.

Declaration of Indulgence.

16. Parliament followed up its protest against the Declaration of Indulgence by passing the *Test Act*, which excluded from all public offices whatsoever all persons

The Test Act.

who would not receive the Sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, take the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, and renounce the doctrine of transubstantiation. Oaths already existing excluded Catholics from the House of Commons; but the Test Act drove them also from the House of Peers, and from every official position. It was particularly aimed at the Duke of York, who had long been known to be a Catholic. True to his convictions, he at once resigned command of the fleet—a position in which he had rendered considerable service to the country. The Duke had recently married as his second wife a Catholic princess, Mary d'Este, daughter of the Duke of Modena. This fact had given additional intensity to the Protestant feeling of the nation. The Duke's daughters by Anne Hyde were subsequently married—Mary, the elder, to William, Prince of Orange; the younger, Anne, to Prince George of Denmark.

Cabal dissolved.

17. In 1673 the rule of the Cabal came to an end. Clifford, as a Catholic, was driven from office by the Test Act. Shaftesbury played the *rôle* of an ultra-Protestant, and became the leader of the opposition party. The control of affairs passed into the hands of the Earl of Danby, a man of good character, a strong friend of the Established Church, and an ardent upholder of the royal prerogative.

The "Popish Plot."

18. In 1678 a disgraced clergyman, named Titus Oates, pretended to have made a great discovery. Before taking orders, Oates had been a zealous Dissenter; and after his expulsion from the clerical office, had professed himself a convert to the Catholic faith. Gross misconduct had driven him from the seminary where for a while he had been studying for the priesthood, and he came over to England, announcing that he possessed the secrets of a plot to murder the King, burn London, and massacre the whole Protestant population of England. Oates told his story with shameless effrontery, and, unfortunately, found some prepared to believe him. Encouraged by Shaftesbury, for political purposes, the silly and malicious fable was the means of sending many innocent Catholics to the block. The King saw clearly enough that Oates and a wretched crowd of imitators were swearing away the lives of honest men; but he had not the courage to resist the furious outburst of fanaticism. Oates was lodged in Whitehall Palace, received a pension of £1,200, and, with something akin to blasphemy, was called "the saviour of the nation." The plot might have failed at the outset had not the magistrate before whom Oates made his first deposition been found dead in the fields the next morning. Without stopping to reason, men saw in this event "confirmation sure" of Oates's story.

19. It was fitting that the Parliament which accepted Titus Oates

as an oracle and a hero should not last much longer. In 1678 the first regular Parliament of Charles's reign came to an end, after a prolonged existence of eighteen years. Its last act was the passing of a measure entitled the *Papists' Disabling Bill*, summing up and strengthening all previous penal statutes against the Catholics. It was now made a crime for a Catholic to come into the royal presence!

Dissolution of Parliament.

20. A new Parliament met in March 1679. So strong was the Protestant feeling displayed by the members, that the Duke of York thought it best to retire to the Continent. Danby was impeached and committed to the Tower for being privy to the King's receipt of bribes from Louis XIV. Shaftesbury became the leader of the new Government. His policy was to exclude the Duke of York from the succession to which he was lawfully entitled, Catharine of Braganza being childless. He put forward, as the Protestant candidate for the throne, the Duke of Monmouth, the eldest of the King's many illegitimate sons. An *Exclusion Bill*, framed to accomplish Shaftesbury's objects, actually passed the House of Commons by a large majority. For once Charles showed proper feeling and something like decision of character. Though Monmouth was his favorite son, he thwarted Shaftesbury's plan by a prompt dissolution of Parliament.

The Exclusion Bill.

21. Before its dissolution, however, the Parliament of 1679 passed one measure for which it is gratefully remembered—the celebrated *Habeas Corpus Act*. This provides that no person charged with a criminal offence can be kept in prison indefinitely. He can demand the right of appearing before a judge, and securing either release, immediate trial, or a definite statement of the legality of his imprisonment. The Habeas Corpus Act gives effect to one of the most important principles of Magna Carta. It derives its name from the opening words (addressed to the jailer), *Habeas corpus*, "Thou art to produce the body."

The Habeas Corpus Act.

22. The dissolution of the Parliament was followed by a period of great excitement. Shaftesbury was the moving spirit. In the new Parliament (1680), the House of Commons again passed the Exclusion Bill by a large majority; but this time it was defeated in the House of Lords. This latter result was chiefly due to the eloquent opposition of the Earl of Halifax, a statesman whose political impartiality gained for him the name of "Trimmer." The Commons then impeached four Catholic peers, who had been imprisoned in the Tower since 1678—Powys, Arundel, Petre, and Stafford. Fortunately the last alone fell a victim to the excited temper of the times. The judicial murder of this venerable nobleman did much to produce a reaction in the public mind. Charles dissolved the Parliament in January 1681, and summoned

Anti-Catholic agitation.

another. The new one sat only one week. The King saw that the feeling excited by the calumnies of Oates and his successors had spent its force. Besides, he was now able to reign without a Parliament. He had just concluded a new arrangement with Louis XIV., by which he was to receive French gold to the amount of £50,000 per quarter.

"Whig" and "Tory."

23. During the agitations we have been relating, the terms *Whig* and *Tory* first came into use. The former was a name first given to the Covenanters of Scotland, and afterwards transferred to the party opposed to the Court in England. In like manner, *Tory*, the designation of a class of Irish bandits, was brought over to England and applied to the friends of the Duke of York.

Affairs in Scotland.

24. Throughout the reign of Charles II., affairs in Scotland were in a troubled state. At an early period, the Earl of Lauderdale, aided by Sharp, Archbishop of St. Andrews, who had left the Presbyterian body, strenuously exerted himself to re-establish Episcopacy in Scotland. The latter excited so much ill-feeling among the Covenanters, that a body of them attacked and murdered him in 1679. Then came a rebellion, which was speedily suppressed by the Duke of Monmouth. Throughout all, however, the great body of the people of Scotland steadily adhered to their national creed and ritual.

Flight of Shaftesbury.

25. The dissolution of Charles's last Parliament in 1681 was followed by signs of a reaction in favor of the Court party. Shaftesbury was tried for his alleged complicity in the "Popish plot." The jury refused to find a bill against him. Then the King sought successfully to obtain control of the sheriffs by whom juries were empanelled, by depriving London and other towns of their charters. New ones, which always were adapted to the royal necessities, could be obtained only by the payment of a large sum of money. In this way the Court both enriched itself and increased its power. Unwilling to trust a jury summoned under the new system, Shaftesbury effected an escape from the Tower, and died two months after his arrival on the Continent.

The Rye-House Plot.

26. The closing years of Charles's reign were marked by several plots more or less connected with one another. The so-called "Rye-House Plot" was a scheme formed by some desperate men to murder the King as he was returning from the Newmarket races. About the same time several persons of greater eminence and better character were plotting to dethrone Charles and put Monmouth in his stead as King. Concerned in the latter, besides Monmouth himself, were Lord William Russell, son of the Duke of Bedford; Algernon Sidney, a warm republican; a grandson of John Hampden; and several others. Both plots were detected; and at the trials of Russell and Sidney, the Crown lawyers

artfully confused the two transactions so as to make it appear that the accused were involved in the guilt of the Rye-House Plot. Russell and Sidney were executed. Essex, another conspirator, cut his throat in prison. Hampden was convicted of a misdemeanor. Monmouth was banished.

Death of Charles II.

27. Circumstances now enabled the King to recall his brother from exile, and, in spite of the Test Act, restore to him the command of the navy. Danby and other victims of the "exclusion frenzy" were released from imprisonment. The King was never in gayer humor. But on the 2nd of February 1685, he was suddenly smitten down with apoplexy, and on the 6th he was dead.

CHAPTER XLI.

HOUSE OF STUART.—JAMES II. 1685 to 1688 A.D.

Accession of James II.

1. All attempts to deprive the Duke of York of his right to the succession having failed, that Prince now ascended the throne under the title of James II. With his Queen, Mary of Modena, he was crowned on April 23rd, 1685.

Character and opinions of James II.

2. James II. began to reign with the nation as a whole strongly prepossessed in his favor. He was not personally popular like his brother Charles, but he had a reputation for sincerity and earnestness which commanded public confidence. As a naval officer he had displayed both skill and courage; and as a man of business he had proved himself methodical and accurate. A devoted Roman Catholic, he differed in religion from the great majority of his subjects; but he had gained respect by firmly adhering to his principles under trying circumstances. From his father and his grandfather he had inherited high notions of the royal prerogative. His own nature was somewhat arbitrary and self-willed. He had little of the tact which enabled his brother to escape difficulties greater perhaps than ever surrounded himself. All proper efforts to secure fair treatment for his proscribed co-religionists merit our approval, but even one who has no sympathy with the spirit of the penal laws which then oppressed the Catholics must see the folly of attempting to set aside summarily those laws by an exercise of the royal prerogative.

Parliament.

3. The first and only Parliament of James's reign met a few weeks after his coronation. The King had previously assured his Council that he intended to maintain the laws inviolate, and uphold the rights of the Church of England. This promise had sent a thrill of loyal enthusiasm through the country.

The members came up from the various constituencies full of ardent attachment to the King and his throne. A revenue of £1,900,000 a-year, with tunnage and poundage for life, was settled on James without an opposing voice.

4. James was scarcely seated on the throne when a two-headed movement was planned against him in Holland. The chiefs in this plot were two exiles—James's nephew the Duke of Monmouth, and the Earl of Argyle, son of the great Marquis who had been beheaded just after the Restoration. Argyle landed among his own clan, the Campbells, on the Argyleshire coast; but he was soon captured and brought to the block (June 30th, 1685). Three weeks before Argyle's execution, Monmouth, with less than a hundred followers, disembarked at Lyme Regis in Dorsetshire. The rash adventurer claimed royal honors, and issued a proclamation, in which he charged his uncle, the King, with having poisoned Charles II., set fire to London, and murdered Sir Edmondbury Godfrey. This ridiculous manifesto did not prevent the people of the west from joining his ranks in great numbers. He soon found himself at the head of an army. A royal force under the Earl of Feversham, with Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, as second in authority, was sent against him. The decisive encounter took place at Sedgemoor, three miles from Bridgewater. The crushing defeat of the rebels was due chiefly to the military genius of Churchill. Monmouth was caught a few days after the battle, hidden, half-starved, in a field of pease. On being brought to London, the captive Duke piteously besought of his uncle, whom he had tried to injure, the favor of a personal interview. The King condescended to see the prisoner, but gave him no hope of mercy. Monmouth was executed on the 15th of July 1685. He was an illegitimate son of Charles II. by Lucy Walters, a Welsh girl whom Charles met during his exile in Holland.

Argyle and Monmouth.

5. It would have been well for the reputation of James had he contented himself with the execution of his nephew. But he determined to strike such a blow in the western shires, where the rebellion had prevailed, as would effectually intimidate others from similar attempts. The work of trying and sentencing the rebels was intrusted to Judge Jeffreys, a man in whom considerable ability was joined to a most violent temper and an utter disregard of human suffering. The circuit of Jeffreys in the west is known as *the Bloody Assize*. Three hundred persons were convicted and hanged in Somerset and Dorset. Nearly a thousand were transported to endure the horrors of slavery; a nameless number were whipped and imprisoned. Two women—Mrs. Lisle, wife of one of the regicides, and Elizabeth Gaunt—were put to death for the simple act of harboring a rebel. While it would not be fair to hold

Judge Jeffreys.

James responsible for all the atrocities of the Bloody Assize, his apologists find it hard to justify the subsequent promotion of Jeffreys to the highest judicial position in the kingdom. On his return from the western circuit, Jeffreys was created Lord High Chancellor.

Relation of James to Louis XIV.

6. James II. continued the secret league with France which had been entered into by his brother Charles. Gradually the English people became aware that some such compact was in force, and that their King was in receipt of French gold. This knowledge did much to alienate the loyalty of James's subjects and to thwart his plans for the restoration of the Catholic religion in England. In 1685 Louis XIV. revoked the *Edict of Nantes*, which had allowed freedom of worship to the French Protestants. The latter were now forced to leave their country, and came in large numbers to England, where their presence excited a strong feeling against Louis.

Catholic appointments.

7. Relying on his prerogative as King to dispense with law, James proceeded to treat as null and void the statutes proscribing Catholics and Dissenters. He did this after seeking in vain from Parliament a repeal of the Test Act. He, however, obtained from a majority of the Judges a judicial decision to the effect that his prerogative was above all law. Thus armed, he appointed Catholics to important posts in the Army, in the Civil Service, and in the Universities. The Court of High Commission was revived, with Jeffreys at its head, to deal with any clergyman who should oppose the religious policy of the King. Thus far James's chief advisers had been his brothers-in-law—the Earls of Clarendon and Rochester, brothers of his first wife, Anne Hyde. Though extreme Royalists, these men were now dismissed from office, and their places were filled with Roman Catholics. It is not necessary here to discuss the abstract question whether in all this the King made a justifiable use of his prerogative or not; it is enough to know that he acted *unwisely*. So at the time thought the most sagacious Catholics, both at home and abroad. The Pope earnestly besought James to act moderately, to consider the prejudices of his Protestant subjects, and to remember that the fate of Catholicism in England might depend on his prudence. The great mass of the ancient Catholic nobility of England refused to be parties to any violation of the law. But the King was urged on by Louis XIV. of France, a prince whose ambition became so grasping and unbearable that all Europe joined at length in a coälition against him.

Declarations of Indulgence.

8. In 1687 the King issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, in express terms annulling all penal statutes against Catholics and Dissenters. A year later he caused to be published a second "Declaration," which on appointed days the clergy were commanded to read from their pulpits. This

order was generally disregarded; having, for instance, been read in only four of the London churches. Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, with six of his bishops, presented to the King a memorial or remonstrance, showing reason why, in their opinion, the Declaration should not be read. The Court of High Commission not venturing to deal with such exalted offenders, the bishops were prosecuted in the ordinary courts for *libel*, and after a most exciting trial were acquitted. Their acquittal deeply wounded James's feelings.

General disaffection.

9. By this time the King had become intensely unpopular. The Catholics and the Dissenters, whom he sought to favor, were but a small minority of the nation, and of these quite a number looked with distrust on favors whose legality might be called in question. The clergy no longer proclaimed the doctrines of *non-resistance* and *passive obedience*. James had managed, after the rebellion of Monmouth, to equip and maintain a standing army of respectable size; but signs of disaffection even in the army were not wanting. The excited Protestant feeling of the country was raised to the highest pitch by the simple announcement that the Queen had given birth to an heir to the throne.

William of Orange.

10. At this crisis a scheme was entered into by certain peers and other prominent men to dethrone James, and give the crown to his son-in-law, the Prince of Orange. Prior to the recent birth of a son to James and Mary of Modena, James's daughter, the Princess Mary of Orange, was direct heiress to the English throne. William of Orange, whose thoughts had already been turned to England, accepted the invitation addressed to him by prominent English nobles to appear with an army for the dethronement of his father-in-law. Having sent before him a *Declaration* to the people of England that he was coming, not for conquest, but for the protection of civil and religious liberty, the Prince of Orange landed at Torbay in Devonshire, on November 5th, 1688. He brought with him a force of about fourteen thousand men. For a few days after his landing, his ranks were not strengthened by the adhesion of any men of eminence, but soon the nobility and gentry flocked to his standard in great numbers.

Preparations of James.

11. Louis XIV. had conveyed to James timely notice of the intentions of his son-in-law; but the intelligence was at first disbelieved and afterwards disregarded. When at length there was no room for doubt, the King sought to gain support by abolishing the High Commission Court, by restoring dismissed magistrates, and by returning to London and other towns their confiscated charters. He strengthened his army, whose loyalty he had good reason to distrust, by large drafts of troops from Ireland. He then advanced as far as to Salisbury; but finding that his principal officer, Lord Churchill, had deserted him, and that his own daughter

the Princess Anne had also proved faithless, he returned in trembling haste to London. When tidings of Anne's desertion reached him, the hapless King exclaimed, "God help me; my own children have forsaken me!"

12. Meantime, the Prince of Orange pressed on steadily toward the capital, contriving by skilful management to avoid all conflict with the English troops, to whom the sight of a foreign invader would naturally have been hateful. James now resolved on flight. On the 10th of December 1688, he despatched his wife and her child to Gravesend, where they embarked for France. On the following day, James himself left Whitehall Palace for Sheerness; but he was arrested by some boatmen on the Thames, and was brought back to London. It was now the object of the Prince of Orange, who was at Windsor, to induce James to leave the country. A detachment of Dutch troops was sent into London, and an order issued to the King to withdraw from St. James's Palace. The hint was taken; and on the 26th of December 1688 James II. saw his capital for the last time. He repaired to France, and for the rest of his life enjoyed the princely hospitalities of Louis XIV.

Flight of the King.

13. The flight of James was followed by the creation of a Provisional Government, with the Prince of Orange at its head. The peers and the leading statesmen who were in London agreed that the Prince of Orange should summon a Convention to consider the peculiar state of the nation. This Convention met in January 1689. After much discussion, it was unanimously declared that by his abdication and flight James had forfeited his title to the throne, and that the interests of the kingdom required a Protestant successor. The crown was offered to William and Mary, the chief powers of government to be in the hands of the former. Should they die without issue, the right of succession was vested in the Princess Anne. They were required to subscribe to a *Declaration of Right*, the provisions of which we shall find embodied in the famous *Bill of Rights* passed a few months later.

The Interregnum.

CHAPTER XLII.

HOUSE OF STUART.—WILLIAM AND MARY (1689 to 1694). WILLIAM III. (1694 to 1702).

1. The political movement which led to the flight of James and the elevation of William and Mary to the throne is known in English history as the *Revolution of 1688*. The new King was the son of William, Prince of Orange, and Mary, daughter of Charles I. In 1677 he married his cousin Mary, eldest daughter of James II. Before his accession to the English throne he

William and Mary.

had long been engaged in war with Louis XIV. of France, and during his reign his attention was chiefly occupied with checking the designs of that ambitious and powerful ruler. The crown of England was valuable in his eyes simply as a means of strengthening himself against France. William was a man of spare frame, simple habits, and unostentatious manners. He was troubled throughout life with a consumptive cough, which the moist climate of England did much to aggravate. His affections were strongly fixed on his native Holland, and he never learned to love his English subjects. He possessed not only considerable skill, but a statesmanlike grasp of affairs, by which he was able to form combinations that often baffled his great antagonist the King of France. Above all, he was animated by an unconquerable will, which rose superior to every defeat.

2. In February 1689, the Convention declared itself by Bill to be a regular Parliament. It fixed the revenue at £1,200,000, half for the support of an army and navy, half for civil expenses. A *Mutiny Act* was passed, to be in force but one year, placing the army under martial law. Similar Acts passed each year are to this day the only authority under which a standing army can be legally maintained in England. The necessity of a *Mutiny Act*, providing for the legal existence and maintenance of the army, requires that Parliament shall assemble at least once a-year.

The Mutiny Act.

3. Though the doctrine of the Divine right of Kings had received a severe shock during the late events, it retained sufficient influence to induce Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, seven bishops, and a number of the higher clergy to refuse to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary. They held that Kings could not be dethroned and created by an Act of Parliament. From their refusal to *swear* they were called *Non-jurors*. Many of the clergy who reluctantly took the oath were non-jurors at heart, and gave the new Government a lukewarm support.

The Non-jurors.

4. The King urged his first Parliament to repeal the Test and Corporation Act, so far as Protestant Dissenters were concerned, thus giving that class of the population full civil privileges. This was refused, but a *Toleration Act* was passed, which gave partial satisfaction to all Nonconformists except Roman Catholics and Unitarians. These were still debarred not only from their civil rights, but also from the free exercise of their religion. Other Nonconformists, though still laboring under political disability, were allowed to meet for religious worship. It remained for a more enlightened age to declare that every man has a right to worship God according to his own conscience, and that the profession of a particular creed is unnecessary for the enjoyment of full political privileges.

The Toleration Act.

5. Another important measure, enacted in the first year of William

and Mary's reign, remains to be mentioned. This is the *Bill of Rights*, a statute which embodied, with some additions, the *Declaration of Right* passed by the same Parliament when sitting as a *Convention*, and subscribed to by the King and the Queen. The Bill of Rights completely overthrows the theory that our English Sovereigns rule by divine right. That the people, through their parliamentary representatives, can change the order of succession as the interests of the country seem to require, is fully recognized and established. To briefly summarize its nine more important provisions, the Bill of Rights declares:—(1) That the *dispensing power*, or setting aside of laws by regal authority, is illegal; (2) that the Court of High Commission is illegal and pernicious; (3) that the Crown cannot levy money without authority from Parliament; (4) that all English subjects have the right to petition; (5) that it is unlawful to maintain a standing army without the consent of Parliament; (6) that all elections to Parliament should be free; (7) that members should not be called to account elsewhere for words spoken in Parliament; (8) that the right of trial by jury should be maintained; (9) that Parliament should sit frequently. Another clause settled the succession on the Princess Anne, if Mary should die without issue. It was also provided that "whosoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this Crown shall join in communion with the Church of England as by law established."

The Bill of Rights.

6. The claim of William and Mary to the crown of Scotland was strongly resisted by the people of the Highlands. These took up arms under the command of Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee. William's troops, under General Mackay, met Dundee's forces at Killiecrankie, twenty-six miles from Perth, on July 27th, 1689. Dundee swept the field, but was killed by a chance shot in the very moment of victory. Gradually the friends of James, who became known as *Jacobites* (from the Latin *Jacobus*, "James"), were reduced to submission. About two years and a half after the Battle of Killiecrankie, in connection with the final pacification of the Highlands, a most deplorable event occurred, which has left a stain on the memory of William. This was the infamous *Massacre of Glencoe*. The Highland chiefs having been required to take the oath of allegiance before a certain date, one of them, through no fault of his own, was a few days late in making his submission. His oath, however, was accepted, and he returned home without a shadow of suspicion that all was not right. This chief, MacIan, head of the MacDonalds of Glencoe, had a bitter personal enemy in the Secretary for Scotland, Sir John Dalrymple, who falsely represented to the King that MacIan had refused to take the oath. Dalrymple then obtained from William a warrant for the extermination of the clan. In February 1692, a party of soldiers entered the village of the MacDonalds,

Affairs in Scotland.

and, representing themselves as on a peaceful errand, were most hospitably received. After a fortnight's feasting, on the night of February 13, the soldiers shot down their unsuspecting hosts in cold blood. One hundred and twenty persons, including those who escaped to the mountains and there died of cold and hunger, are said to have perished. William's precise relation to this tragic affair has never been positively known. The signing of a warrant permitting such a massacre was at best an act of criminal carelessness. It was, also, not to his credit that Dalrymple was allowed to escape with no severer punishment than deprivation of his office.

Ireland.

7. The Catholics of Ireland ardently espoused the cause of James, who, emboldened by the support of Louis XIV., determined to make a stroke for the recovery of his crown. James landed in Ireland in March 1689, with a small French force, to which was joined at once a native force raised and disciplined by Tyrconnel, who had been Lord-Lieutenant at the time of his abdication. Dublin, and indeed all the island except the extreme north, declared for James. In Ulster, Enniskillen and Londonderry were the chief strongholds of William's friends. From April to July 1689, the latter city endured a siege which has made its name famous. James's troops completely invested it for months, and a boom was stretched across Lough Foyle to prevent relief from reaching the garrison by sea. At length after an heroic resistance, in which all the horrors of famine were suffered, Londonderry was saved to William by two English store-ships succeeding in breaking the boom and bringing supplies to the famished garrison. In June 1690, William himself landed in Ireland and joined his forces to those of General Schomberg, whom he had sent over the preceding summer. The rival Kings, father-in-law and son-in-law, encountered each other on July 1st, on the banks of the river Boyne, near Drogheda. The *Battle of the Boyne* resulted in the total defeat of James. His army was terribly shattered, and he himself was forced to flee to France. William returned to England after taking Waterford and Wexford, but having failed in his attempt to capture Limerick. Then came the Battle of Aughrim, in which the Dutch general Ginkel defeated the French commander St. Ruth. In October 1691, the gallant Sarsfield, who had previously defended Limerick against all the forces of William, was compelled to surrender. By the *Pacification of Limerick*, Sarsfield's troops were given the option of following him to France. Twelve thousand men took advantage of the offer, choosing, in the words of one of our most eminent historians, himself an Englishman and a Protestant, "exile, rather than life in a land where all hope of national freedom was lost." With the "Pacification of Limerick" Irish affairs ceased to be a source of anxiety to the English Government; but, unfortunately, Ireland was ruled as a conquered country, and the seeds of future trouble were sown in mischievous abundance.

War with France.

8. William, as Stadtholder of Holland, had been engaged in war with France prior to his accession to the English throne. His title to that throne was now denied by Louis XIV., who professed to recognize James as still the rightful King of England. Parliament could not but take notice of the insult thus offered to the man called by itself to assume the sovereignty. War was declared against France. In 1690, the combined English and Dutch fleets, under Lord Torrington, were defeated by the French off Beachy Head; but two years later this defeat was more than counterbalanced by the great victory off *La Hogue*, in which a large fleet prepared by Louis for the invasion of England was almost annihilated. Russell, the English admiral, had been in traitorous correspondence with James; but the sight of the French enemy so fired his blood that all thought of treason was forgotten.

The Treaty of Ryswick.

9. The operations against Louis on land were conducted by William in person. He was defeated at Steinkirk in 1692, and at Landen in 1693. The same year a fleet of English and Dutch merchantmen, sailing up the Mediterranean under convoy, was attacked by the French, who succeeded in capturing eighty ships. In 1694 an expedition against Brest was disastrously repulsed. But in 1695 William counterbalanced these defeats by the capture of the important fortress of Namur, though all the skill of the famous French engineer Vauban had been employed in its defence. The downfall of Namur greatly discouraged Louis, and two years later he consented to the *Treaty of Ryswick*, by which William was acknowledged as the rightful King of England. This treaty was not entered into until 1697; but for some time previously war had been practically abandoned.

Events of 1694.

10. The *National Debt* of Great Britain dates from the year 1694, when, to meet the expenses of the war with France, it was found necessary to borrow money by Act of Parliament. The same year saw the founding of the *Bank of England*, an institution established to facilitate the making of loans and the management of the debt. In 1694 also was passed the *Triennial Act*, which limited the duration of Parliament to *three* years. This remained in force until the reign of George I., when, by the *Septennial Act*, the limit was extended to *seven* years. In the last month of the year, Queen Mary died of small-pox. William sincerely mourned his departed wife, who was a woman of virtuous character and amiable disposition. She, however, was intensely obnoxious to the Jacobites, who could never forgive her for taking part in the dethronement of her father.

11. In 1695, the House of Commons refused to renew the Act for restraining unlicensed printing, and thus practically established the great principle of the *freedom of the press*. In the following year the

Treason Act was passed, giving persons accused of treason better chance of a fair trial. About the same time, a scheme originated with a Scotsman named Paterson (the founder of the Bank of England), to colonize the isthmus connecting North and South America. The failure of the colony in 1698–99, with the loss of many lives and large capital, produced much irritation in Scotland against the English Government. On the Union of England and Scotland, compensation was granted to those who had suffered by this so-called *Darien Scheme*.

Events of 1695-96.

12. In 1696 a plot against the King's life was detected and suppressed. From its leader, Sir George Barclay, it was called *Barclay's Conspiracy*. The plan was to assassinate William as he passed through Turnham Green on his way from London to Richmond Park. Eight of the conspirators were executed. Sir John Fenwick, who was charged with complicity, could not be convicted by legal process, through insufficiency of testimony. He was therefore condemned by a Bill of Attainder, and subsequently beheaded on Tower Hill.

Barclay's Conspiracy.

13. The throne of Spain was now occupied by a childless sovereign, Charles II. Various claimants to the succession presented themselves. Louis XIV. asserted the right of his son the Dauphin, as nephew of Charles II. The Elector of Bavaria put forth the claims of his son, a grand-nephew of the same monarch, but by a younger daughter. Leopold, Emperor of Germany, asserted the rights of his son the Archduke Charles, on the ground of his descent from Charles II.'s grandfather, Philip III.*

The Spanish Succession.

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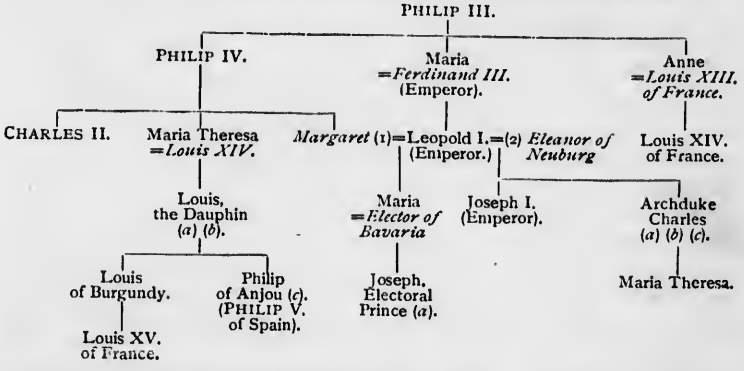
* These claims will be more easily understood from the following table:—



(*a*) The three claimants in the First Partition Treaty (1698).
(*b*) The two claimants in the Second Partition Treaty (1700).
(*c*) The two claimants for and against whom the Grand Alliance was formed (1701).

Partition Treaties.

14. In October 1698, an arrangement, known as *The First Partition Treaty*, was entered into by Louis XIV. and William. It provided for the division of the Spanish dominions among the three above-mentioned claimants. The death of the Prince of Bavaria in 1699 threw everything into confusion again. A *Second Partition Treaty* was then arranged for the division of the Spanish dominions between the two remaining claimants, the sons of Louis and the Emperor. This treaty was in its turn rendered abortive by the death of Charles II., who bequeathed the whole of his dominions to Louis XIV.'s grandson Philip, Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin. Louis XIV. at once threw the Partition Treaty to the winds, and eagerly espoused the cause of his grandson, who at once assumed the title of Philip V. Not to be outdone, the Emperor's son gave himself out as Charles III. In these rival pretensions lay the seeds of the great *War of the Spanish Succession.*

Parliament of 1698.

15. The new Parliament, which met in 1698, caused William sore mortification. It not only reduced the army to seven thousand men, but it insisted that the King should dismiss from the service all the troops which he had brought over from Holland. William was further humiliated by the Parliament declaring void the large grants of land in Ireland which he had bestowed on his favorite Dutch generals, and ordering the estates to be forfeited and sold. The Whigs, as the statesmen who had thus far guided the King's policy were called, were now driven from office. The most eminent of these, Lord Somers, ceased to be Lord Chancellor in 1700. It is said that at one time William was so annoyed at what he considered the harsh treatment he received from Parliament, that he meditated a resignation of the English crown.

The Act of Settlement.

16. In the year 1700, the Princess Anne of Denmark, next in succession to the throne, buried the last of her large family. The Parliament which met the next year (1701) proceeded by an *Act of Settlement* to provide for the succession in case, as seemed likely, both William and Anne should die without direct heirs. The Bill of Rights excluded from the throne both the family of James II. and that of Charles I.'s grand-daughter, the Duchess of Savoy, inasmuch as these families were Catholic in religion. The nearest *Protestant* heirs to the crown were the descendants of Elizabeth of Bohemia, daughter of James I. Elizabeth's daughter Sophia, Electress of Hanover, was still living, and on her the succession was settled should William and Anne both die without children. Sophia's son George, Elector of Hanover, subsequently came to the throne as George I. The Act of Settlement contained other provisions, extending and confirming the principles of the Bill of Rights. One of the most important of these is that still in force, by virtue of which Judges were made independent of the Crown

by holding office during good behavior, instead of at the mere pleasure of the King.

17. The failure of the Partition Treaties led to the formation of a grand European alliance, to resist the threatened extension of French power by the acquisition of the Spanish crown. The soul of this alliance was William III. of England. Joined with him were Holland, Austria, Denmark, and Sweden. *The Grand Alliance* was formed on September 7th, 1701. Its object was to obtain the crown of Spain for Charles, son of Leopold, Emperor of Germany.

The Grand Alliance.

18. Nine days after the Grand Alliance was formed, the ex-King of England, James Stuart, breathed his last at St. Germains, where he had lived in regal splendor, a pensioner on the bounty of Louis. In violation of the Treaty of Ryswick, the French King at once recognized James's son, James Francis Edward, then a youth of thirteen years, as James III. of England.

Death of James II.

19. The last Parliament of William's reign met on December 30, 1701. A Bill of Attainder was passed against *the Pretender*, as the son of James II. was called, and all officials were required to repudiate his claims on oath. Large subsidies were voted to carry on the great Continental war in which England was about to engage. William seemed to be becoming really popular with his English subjects. His spirits rose with the prospects of success. But an enemy that mortals can never overcome was near. On February 21st, 1702, a fall from his horse broke his collar-bone. On the 8th of March he died. The control of the great coälition which he had formed to humble the power of France passed into other hands.

Death of William III.

CHAPTER XLIII.

HOUSE OF STUART.—ANNE.
1702 to 1714 A.D.

1. According to the terms of the Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement, the Princess Anne of Denmark now ascended the throne. She was thirty-seven years of age. She had born to her husband, Prince George of Denmark, a numerous family, the last of whom had died in 1700, at the age of twelve. Prince George himself was a man of feeble powers, and utterly without influence in public affairs. Charles II. aptly described his character by saying:—"I have tried Prince George drunk and I have tried him sober, and drunk or sober there is nothing in him." Queen Anne was a rigid Protestant, and was strongly attached to the Established Church.

Accession and character of Anne.

Her general aim seems to have been to rule according to the wishes of Parliament, but her amiable disposition and yielding will gave favorites too much influence over her. For the first eight years of her reign she was completely controlled by Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough, a woman of singular beauty and of great intellectual capacity, yet fond of political intrigue and destitute of high moral principle. John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, was of course associated with his wife in directing the policy of the Queen. Anne's first *Prime Minister*, to use the phrase of the present day, was the Earl of Godolphin, a cautious, calculating man, who had served under both James II. and William III.

Whigs and Tories.

2. During this reign the distinction between the two great political parties, the *Whigs* and the *Tories*, becomes very clearly marked. In general the Whigs of that day may be described as attached to the principles of the Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement, as inclined to strengthen the powers of Parliament against the encroachments of the royal prerogatives, as favorable to Dissenters, and as anxious to assert the power of England in Continental politics. On the other hand many of the Tories clung to the doctrine of the Divine right of Kings, and therefore looked coldly on recent violations of it, though the number of Tories who were actually Jacobites became continually smaller and smaller. The Tory party zealously upheld the cause of the Church as opposed to all forms of dissent, and contended that England should interfere as little as possible with affairs on the Continent.

Marlborough.

3. William III., a few weeks before his death, but after he had arranged the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV., placed the Duke of Marlborough in command of the English army in Flanders. Marlborough had been guilty of treasonable correspondence with James II., but William overlooked this, because he recognized in Marlborough the only Englishman capable of coping successfully with the great generals of Louis. Anne was only too well pleased to continue her friend's promotion. Three days after her accession, she appointed him Captain-General of the English forces at home and abroad. With Marlborough, who was a Tory, at the head of the army, the Tories who had looked with distrust on the pending War of the Spanish Succession now heartily supported it. The world has seen few greater generals than Marlborough, but his character as a man is not one to be envied. His ruling passion was a thirst for gold, and he has been described as "perhaps the only man of real greatness who loved money for money's sake."

The War of the Spanish Succession.

4. The War of the Spanish Succession was continued according to the late King's policy. The parties on the one side were England, Germany, and Holland, joined in 1703 by Savoy and Portugal; on the other, France and Spain. The war lasted from 1702 until 1713, and had for its theatre the

Netherlands, Germany, Spain, and the ocean. The chief land conflicts took place in the two first-named countries, where the allied armies were commanded by Marlborough, ably seconded by the Imperialist general Prince Eugene of Savoy. In the first campaign (1702), Marlborough made a good beginning, and drove the French from the Netherlands. Nothing of importance occurred the following year, but in 1704 Marlborough penetrated into Germany and gained a glorious victory at *Blenheim*, a village in West Bavaria. The French commander, Marshal Tallard, and all his staff were taken prisoners. The final charge which decided the victory for the English, one of the most magnificent in modern warfare, was headed by Marlborough in person. Parliament rewarded his services by the gift of a princely estate near Oxford, on which was erected at the nation's cost, for the Duke and his descendants, that splendid pile known as *Blenheim Palace*. The three other great victories, which, with that of Blenheim, have made Marlborough's name immortal, were those at *Ramillies* in 1706, at *Oudenarde* in 1708, and at *Malplaquet* in 1709. These were all fought in Belgium. For several years after the Battle of Malplaquet, the war dragged slowly along, and in 1712, owing to political intrigues at home, Marlborough was recalled, and was superseded by the Duke of Ormond.

Naval events.

5. At the outset of the war, in several small engagements with French and Spanish fleets, the English navy suffered slight reverses; but in 1704, Sir George Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel captured the important fortress of Gibraltar, which has ever since been retained as a possession of Great Britain.

War in Spain.

6. In 1705, the eccentric Earl of Peterborough took by surprise the town of Barcelona, and obtained for the allies an advantageous foothold in Spain. Before that, the German candidate for the Spanish throne, Charles of Austria, styling himself Charles III., in whose behalf England was fighting, had entered the Peninsula, but had suffered a severe defeat from an army composed partly of Frenchmen, partly of Spaniards, under the command of the Duke of Berwick, an illegitimate son of James II. At a later period (1707) Berwick, who was a brave and capable officer, gained a still more decisive victory at Almanza over an allied army commanded by the Earl of Galway. The English partially counterbalanced these defeats by subsequent victories, but their affairs in Spain were on the whole mismanaged; and in 1710, the defeat of General Stanhope by the French, near Madrid, compelled the allies to evacuate the Peninsula. Philip V. now found his throne undisturbed so far as his own dominions were concerned.

7. The War of the Spanish Succession was virtually ended in 1711 by the election of the so-called King, Charles III. of Spain, to the imperial

throne of Germany. The recall of Marlborough in 1712 marked a further stage of its decline. It was finally ended in 1713 by the *Treaty of Utrecht.* By this treaty, Philip V. was allowed to retain the crown of Spain, on the condition that France and Spain should never be united under one sovereign. France further agreed to recognize the succession of the House of Hanover, and engaged that the Pretender should withdraw from France. Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, the island of St. Christopher, and Gibraltar were ceded to England.

The Treaty of Utrecht.

8. Ever since *the union of the crowns* of England and Scotland under James I., the subject of the *parliamentary union* of the two countries had engaged the attention of statesmen. The latter union was actually effected in 1707. The Scottish Parliament had sought to prevent this by passing an Act in 1704 providing that Anne's successor to the crown of Scotland should be a Protestant of the royal line of that country, but not also the holder of the English crown, thus expressly excluding the House of Hanover. But in July 1706, a Commission representing both England and Scotland agreed on certain articles of union. After a long debate and strong opposition, the Scottish Parliament accepted the articles by a large majority on the 16th of January 1707. They were ratified by the English Parliament on the 6th of the following March, and became law in both countries on May 1st, 1707. *The Act of Union* provides that the two kingdoms shall be united under the name of "Great Britain;" that the united monarchy shall be vested in the House of Hanover; that there shall be one Parliament for the United Kingdom, Scotland sending sixteen peers to the House of Lords and forty-five members to the House of Commons; that the Established Presbyterian Church of Scotland shall be maintained; that there shall be perfect freedom of trade and navigation between the two countries; and that Scotland shall retain unchanged her courts of law and certain specified laws and customs.

The Union of England and Scotland.

9. Gradually the Queen had become tired of the domineering manners of her favorite, the Duchess of Marlborough. The Duchess's place in Anne's affections was now taken by a Mrs. Masham, rather an insinuating person, a cousin of Harley, a prominent Tory politician. Other signs indicated that Godolphin and his Whig colleagues, Somers and Halifax, were losing their control of affairs. A London clergyman named Sacheverell had preached and published two sermons, remarkable for nothing but the extravagant language in which they asserted the theories of *non-resistance* and *passive obedience*, and denounced Dissenters as enemies of the Crown. The Government unwisely gave prominence to Sacheverell by having him impeached before the House of Lords for disloyalty and sedition. A small majority of the peers silenced him for three years, and

Sacheverell.

ordered his sermons to be burned by the common hangman. The punishment was so light as to amount to a virtual triumph for Sacheverell. A violent mob expressed its sympathy with the persecuted clergyman.

Tory supremacy.

10. The disgrace of the Duchess of Marlborough was followed by the dismissal of the Whig ministers. The Tory leaders now coming into power were Robert Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford, and Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke. The latter was an ardent and consistent Jacobite, and his intimacy with the Queen was interpreted to mean that Anne would have set aside the Act of Settlement and the Hanoverian succession if she could.

Fall of Marlborough.

11. A new Parliament met in 1710, strongly in sympathy with the Tory views now in the ascendant. Even then peace with France was talked of, and the continuance of the War of the Spanish Succession denounced. Marlborough, who thought that his splendid victories should bring some corresponding advantage to his country, strongly opposed all mention of peace. It was under these circumstances that his recall from the Continent (which we have already related) took place. On his return to England, the House of Commons passed a vote of censure on the victor of Blenheim for alleged misconduct in financial matters. He was charged with pocketing percentages on the pay of foreign troops and on the proceeds of contracts for supplies. He was dismissed from the office of Captain-General of the Army, and retired to private life in disgrace.

Death of Queen Anne.

12. A violent quarrel eventually broke out between the Queen's ministers Harley and Bolingbroke. The latter triumphed, and Harley was driven from the Council-board on the charge of having shown undue favor to the Elector George of Hanover, who on the death of his mother the Princess Sophia in June 1714, had become direct heir to the English throne. Bolingbroke was evidently shaping his plans for the restoration of the old Stuart line; but on August 1st, 1714, Queen Anne died, and all his artful schemes were baffled. The suddenness of the Queen's death completely bewildered Bolingbroke, and prompt action on the part of the friends of the Hanoverian succession secured the throne for the Elector George of Hanover without a struggle. The last of the Stuart Sovereigns died in her fiftieth year, and was buried with royal pomp in Westminster Abbey.

CHAPTER XLIV.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL PROGRESS UNDER THE STUART SOVEREIGNS.

1. The Stuart Period witnessed the almost complete triumph of parliamentary government in England. A variety of causes already

noticed had enabled the Tudor Sovereigns to rule with nearly absolute sway, though Elizabeth was wise enough on more than one occasion to yield to the wishes of Parliament. The assertion by James I. and Charles I. of the doctrine of the *Divine Right of Kings*, and the duty of *passive obedience* on the part of the subject, brought on a conflict which cost the latter prince, a man of undoubted courage and high moral character, both his crown and his life. The experiment of the Commonwealth showed that England was not prepared to submit to a despotism slightly veiled under republican forms. Charles II., by his tact and easy good nature, escaped serious conflicts with his people; but his more sincere and earnest brother, James II., precipitated a revolution by trying to carry out the principles of his father and his grandfather. The Revolution of 1688 fully established the supremacy of Parliament.

Government.

2. The Puritan party, which had been slowly growing throughout the reign of Elizabeth, reached the zenith of its power during the Commonwealth. In the course of time, the religious earnestness that characterized many of its members took the form of an unreasonable hostility to much that makes life enjoyable. One of the worst results of the warfare carried on by the extreme Puritans against the innocent amusements and recreations of society was the reaction which followed at the Restoration, when men plunged wildly into dissipation and excess, the Court, unfortunately, setting the nation a shocking example of license and depravity. Two things the student of English history may well remember: first, that when the Puritans fell as a distinct party in the State, their influence, so far as it was good, did not wholly die, for a great writer, who was himself by no means a Puritan, observes, "England remained three-fourths Puritan;" secondly, that the moral looseness that followed the Restoration was chiefly limited to the capital and the immediate surroundings of the Court, and that even there faithful preachers of righteousness were found, who fearlessly rebuked iniquity in high places.

The rise and fall of Puritanism.

3. Before the close of this period the principles of religious toleration had gained some ground in England. The *Toleration Act*, passed in the first year of William and Mary, gave to Protestant Nonconformists, except those rejecting the doctrine of the Trinity, rights of worship which were never subsequently lost, though in the last Parliament of Anne's reign Bolingbroke made an unsuccessful attempt, by means of the *Schism Act*, seriously to curtail them. The penal laws against the Catholics unhappily continued in force.

Religious toleration.

4. One effect of the Civil War, already noticed, was to increase greatly emigration from England to the American colonies. New Hampshire and Maryland were

Colonization.

founded in the reign of Charles I., and Rhode Island dates from about the same time. Maryland, which was founded as a Roman Catholic colony by Lord Baltimore, received its name from Charles's Queen, Henrietta Maria. In the reign of Charles II., English power in the West was extended by the establishment of the colonies of New Jersey and the two Carolinas, and by the cession of New York by the Dutch. In the same reign the celebrated Quaker, William Penn, founded the colony named after him, *Pennsylvania.* In the remote East, too, small settlements at different points prefigured the vast empire destined to grow up under British auspices beyond the Indian Ocean.

Literature and science.

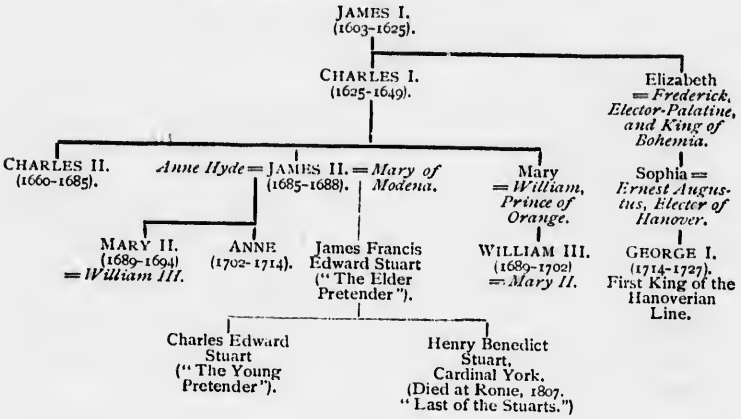
5. During the Stuart Period the English mind continued to display great literary activity. Shakespeare died a few years after the accession of James I.; but he was succeeded by the great epic and lyric poet John Milton, who was also a powerful prose writer, and who was Cromwell's Latin secretary. Milton's masterpiece, the *Paradise Lost*, was written after its author had become blind, and when he was reduced to a state of extreme poverty and distress. Other poets deserving mention are Beaumont and Fletcher, who wrote dramatic poems together; John Dryden, noted for his translation of Virgil; and Samuel Butler, author of the humorous poem entitled *Hudibras.* Of the prose writers, we have already mentioned Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, whose *History of the Great Rebellion* must be consulted by all who would profoundly study the history of those stirring times. No notice of the literature of this period, however brief, should omit the name of "the immortal dreamer," as he has been called, John Bunyan, who wrote the *Pilgrim's Progress.* Among the religious writers we may mention the eminent Church of England authors, Hall, Ussher, Barrow, and Jeremy Taylor; and Richard Baxter, an equally eminent Presbyterian divine. The illustrious authors of Anne's reign may be more conveniently named in connection with the Hanoverian Period, into which their writings extended. The Stuart Period was distinguished by several names eminent for scientific research. Among these may be mentioned those of William Harvey, discoverer of the *circulation of the blood;* and Sir Isaac Newton, who first made known to the world the great principle of *universal gravitation.* The *Royal Society*, designed to spread the knowledge of the natural sciences, was founded in 1660. King Charles II. took much interest in its work and progress. It is still a flourishing institution.

Condition of the people.

6. The historian Macaulay has drawn in his celebrated History a vivid picture of the state of English society at the close of the reign of Charles II. The population of England at that time is supposed to have been about five million and a half. The chief sea-ports in order of importance were London, Bristol, Ipswich, Newcastle, Yarmouth, and Liverpool.

The commerce which has made the last-named city one of the greatest sea-ports in the world was still in its infancy. The introduction of the manufacture of cotton was just beginning to make Manchester a place of some importance. Toward the end of the Stuart Period, stage-coaches were introduced, and a journey from London to Chester (about two hundred miles) took four days in summer and six in winter. The great mass of the people were employed in agriculture. Wages were low, and the food of the laboring class was coarse. Much ignorance prevailed among the peasantry, and even in the higher grades of society; but, through such organizations as *the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge*, the light of education was gradually extended.

THE HOUSE OF STUART.



CHAPTER XLV.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.—GEORGE I.
1714 to 1727 A.D.

Accession and character of George I.

1. On the death of Anne without surviving issue, George, Elector of Hanover, became King of England by virtue of the Act of Settlement. He was fifty-four years of age, of short stature, and of exceedingly awkward manners. He could neither write nor speak English, and had to learn, like a parrot, the few words with which he opened Parliament. As much of his time as possible after his accession was spent in Hanover. His private character was not above reproach, and he left his wife, Sophia of Brunswick, who was his own cousin, in con-

finement in Germany. On the whole, he ruled England wisely, putting the chief responsibility of government on his ministers; but his partiality for his native dominions often gave trouble both to England and to himself. He had two children;—George, who succeeded him, and who, at his father's accession, was thirty-two years of age; and Sophia-Dorothea, the wife of Frederick William of Prussia and the mother of Frederick the Great.

2. George's first ministry consisted wholly of Whigs—the party to which the House of Hanover was indebted for the throne. Lord Townshend became Prime Minister in place of Bolingbroke. Parliament met in March 1715, and at once impeached the late ministers, Bolingbroke and Oxford, together with the Duke of Ormond, commander of the forces. Bolingbroke and Ormond escaped to France. Oxford, after a two years' imprisonment in the Tower, was acquitted.

Return of the Whigs to power.

3. There still lingered a strong Jacobite feeling in some parts of the country, and tumultuous risings took place in London, Oxford, and other places. Parliament, to quell such movements, passed the *Riot Act*, a statute still in force, by which magistrates are enabled to deal promptly with disorderly assemblages.

The Riot Act.

4. Though the death of Louis XIV., in September 1715, reduced almost to nothing the chances of the Pretender, James III. (as he called himself) still continued to aspire to the throne of his fathers. It was represented to him by Bolingbroke and Ormond that public opinion in England was ripe for his landing and for asserting his right to the crown. It was also arranged by the Jacobite leaders that simultaneous movements in the Pretender's favor should be started in Scotland and in the west of England. The vigilance of the Government nipped the latter part of the project in the bud.

The Pretender.

5. In Scotland, however, a rising actually took place. On the 6th of September 1715, the Earl of Mar, at the head of ten thousand Highlanders, proclaimed the Pretender at Braemar as "James VIII. of Scotland" and "James III. of England." On the 13th of November, a battle without any decisive results was fought between Mar and a body of Royalists, under the Duke of Argyle, at Sheriffmuir. On the same day, at Preston, the Jacobites of the north of England, who had also taken up arms for the Pretender, were forced to surrender. Their leader, the Earl of Derwentwater, with the Earl of Nithsdale and other principal men, were captured and sentenced to death. Nithsdale, by the aid of his wife, managed to escape in woman's clothes; the others were executed. On the 22nd of December the Pretender himself landed in Scotland, and was immediately joined by Mar.

The Rebellion of 1715.

The latter was utterly destitute of generalship, while the cold and unattractive manners of the self-styled "King" brought few supporters to his standard. The movement was a failure from the beginning. On the approach of a body of Royalist troops, both James and Mar fled precipitately to France.

The Septennial Act.

6. The executions and confiscations following the suppression of the "Pretender's Rebellion" left the country in an excited state, and the Government party deemed it unwise to dissolve Parliament as the Triennial Act required. A measure known as *the Septennial Act* was therefore introduced and passed, extending the possible duration of Parliament to *seven* years instead of *three* as fixed by the Triennial Act. The Septennial Act is still in force.

Triple and Quadruple Alliances.

7. *The Triple Alliance*, formed in January 1717, by England, France, and Holland, was designed to obstruct what was then believed to be the policy of Philip V. of Spain—namely, to effect a union of the crowns of Spain and France, contrary to the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht. It also had in view certain intrigues which were going on between Charles XII. of Sweden and the Pretender's friends, and between the latter and the Czar of Russia, to excite a Jacobite revolution in England. The Emperor of Germany in August 1718 joined England, France, and Holland, and thus formed *the Quadruple Alliance*. The King of Spain, finding this combination too strong for him, dismissed Cardinal Alberoni, on whose advice he had pursued an aggressive policy, and in 1721 joined himself to the Powers forming *the Quadruple Alliance*. The intrigues of Sweden and Russia against the Hanoverian dynasty in England reached no practical result.

The South Sea Scheme.

8. In 1720 great excitement was caused in England by the so-called *South Sea Scheme*. The *South Sea Company* was a mercantile corporation organized in 1717, having a monopoly of trade with the coasts of South America. By this time the National Debt had become troublesome, amounting to £53,000,000. It was now proposed to reduce it by transferring the payment of certain annuities chargeable on it to the *South Sea Company* in return for an increase of trading privileges. Parliament gave the proposal its sanction, and the Company proceeded to raise the needful funds by offering its stock for sale, taking care to spread abroad the most fabulous stories as to the richness of the gold and silver mines of America and the certainty of a lucrative trade. The madness which precedes and creates financial panics now showed itself. Everybody was anxious to invest in the stock of this wonderful company. A one-hundred-pound share was eagerly purchased for one thousand pounds. Soon the fictitious nature of the whole scheme was disclosed; the inevitable panic ensued, and thousands were ruined.

Parliament ordered a searching investigation, and happily was able to make the South Sea directors refund a large part of their ill-gotten gains.

Sir Robert Walpole.

9. Only a single leading statesman had opposed the South Sea Scheme, and had pointed out the ruin it was sure to entail. This was Robert Walpole, who became Prime Minister in 1721, and *Sir* Robert Walpole in 1725. For nearly twenty years he was the real ruler of England. In maintaining his control of Parliament, he did not scruple to employ means which cannot be defended, nor to own as his motto, "Every man has his price."

Death of Marlborough.

10. In June 1722 died John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. The remains of the great general were interred in Westminster Abbey. About the same time Bolingbroke was pardoned, and allowed to return to England.

Death of George I.

11. In June 1727, King George I. left England to pay his usual summer visit to his ancestral domain in Hanover. As he was journeying thither near Osnabrück, he died in his carriage of a sudden attack of apoplexy.

CHAPTER XLVI.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.—GEORGE II. 1727 to 1760 A.D.

Accession and character of George II.

1. George I. was peaceably succeeded by his only son, who ascended the throne as George II. The new King was of the mature age of forty-four when he began to reign. Like his father, with whom, however, he had been on very bad terms, he was a German both by birth and in sympathies. He possessed a fair mastery of English, though he spoke it with a decidedly foreign accent. While diminutive in stature, he was personally brave and fond of military life. He was also characterized by excellent business habits. His wife was the Princess Caroline of Anspach, a lady of beauty and great force of character. Caroline was, indeed, one of the most important political factors of her husband's reign. Her influence over George was particularly shown in the continuance in office of Sir Robert Walpole, whose dismissal every one expected, from the previously existing enmity between him and the new King when Prince of Wales. The Queen had the sagacity to see that Walpole was the only statesman capable of guiding her husband amid the difficulties which surrounded him.

2. We have already alluded to the art by which Walpole secured

a majority in Parliament. The great aim of his policy was to keep England at peace with foreign countries. This object he was able to secure during the first ten years of his administration, or as long as the Queen lived. During that period the only serious difficulty he encountered had to do with financial matters. His endeavor to extend the *Excise duties* so as to include tobacco and wine was violently opposed by the mercantile classes. So were his further efforts to enforce a more vigorous collection of the revenue in general. Walpole's measures were wise and salutary, but his political opponents were only too glad to strengthen the outcry raised by the merchants. The *Excise Bill* was withdrawn, and Walpole retained his position as chief adviser of the Crown. The year 1737 was marked by the death of Queen Caroline, and by such a violent quarrel between the King and his eldest son the Prince of Wales that the latter was ordered to leave the country.

Walpole's policy.

3. The *Porteous Riot* at Edinburgh, which forms the historical basis of Sir Walter Scott's well-known story *The Heart of Midlothian*, occurred in 1736. A riotous mob at the hanging of a smuggler was fired on by orders of a Captain Porteous, in command of the City Guard. The death of several citizens as the result of the volley was followed by the trial and conviction of Porteous; who, however, obtained a reprieve from the sentence of death passed on him. A mob then broke into the jail, dragged out the unhappy Porteous, and hanged him without law. By imbittering the relations between Scotland and England, this event did much to encourage the rebellion in favor of the *Second Pretender*, shortly to be related.

The Porteous Riot.

4. For some time a bad feeling had been growing up between England and Spain. The former complained that the crews of Spanish revenue vessels boarded and searched English merchantmen, in violation of international law. Spain, on the other hand, asserted that English cruisers engaged in illegal trade with her South American colonies. In October 1739, much against his will, Walpole was compelled to yield to the popular feeling and declare war against Spain. This war did not bring much glory or profit to England. The capture of Porto Bello, on the Isthmus of Panama, was but a barren success. An attack on Carthagena, in South America, by a fleet under Admiral Vernon, who had taken Porto Bello, failed by reason of quarrels between the Admiral and General Wentworth, commander of the military forces. The most noteworthy incident of the war was Commodore Anson's memorable four years' voyage round the world. Anson, with six ships, sailed round Cape Horn, and after plundering the coasts of Peru, steered across the Pacific Ocean, and returned home by way of the Cape of Good Hope. He passed through many perilous adventures, and finally

War with Spain.

reached the Spithead with but a single ship. On his homeward voyage he captured a Spanish galleon laden with an immense amount of silver.

Resignation of Walpole.

5. Being at length unable to command a majority in the House of Commons, as the result of the elections of 1741, Walpole resigned his office as Prime Minister in 1742. He was elevated to the peerage under the title of Lord Orford, and died three years later (1745). His downfall as Premier was due to the ill success of the war with Spain, and also to a growing feeling of independence in Parliament, where a band of members, styling themselves *Patriots*, had acquired great influence. The "Patriots" were disaffected Whigs. Their leader was William Pitt, afterwards the famous Earl of Chatham. In 1743, Henry Pelham, brother of the Duke of Newcastle, became Prime Minister, and remained at the head of affairs for the greater part of the ensuing eleven years.

War of the Austrian Succession.

6. Before the Spanish War was finished, England was drawn into a general European conflict, in which it had no concern beyond the personal interests of King George as Elector of Hanover. This was the *War of the Austrian Succession.* England and Holland had agreed to sustain a document called the *Pragmatic Sanction*, by which the Emperor Charles VI.* had settled his hereditary dominions of Hungary and Silesia on his daughter, Maria Theresa. On the Emperor's death in 1740, Frederick the Great of Prussia seized Silesia, the Elector of Bavaria claimed Hungary, while France sustained the pretensions of both against Maria Theresa, to whose aid a body of English troops was sent, under the command of Lord Stair.

Battle of Dettingen.

7. In 1743 George II. joined his army in person. The English and their allies were found in a most critical position, from which they were extricated by the victory of *Dettingen.* This was the last battle in which an English King personally took part. George is said to have fought on foot in command of the right wing, and to have displayed great courage. His favorite son, the Duke of Cumberland, was also present, and fought bravely.

Battle of Fontenoy.

8. Two years later, the Battle of Fontenoy resulted disastrously for the English and their Dutch and Austrian allies. The French were led by Marshal Saxe, a very celebrated commander. In consequence of this defeat the whole of Flanders was lost to the English.

9. The War of the Austrian Succession was concluded by the *Treaty*

* As the Archduke Charles, he had claimed the Spanish crown in 1698. See pedigree in note, p. 159.

of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. After the Battle of Fontenoy, England took little part in the war, her attention being occupied with the Scottish Rebellion to be related in the next paragraph. By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, Frederick the Great retained Silesia, while the throne of Austria was confirmed to Maria Theresa, in accordance with the Pragmatic Sanction.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

10. At an early period of the War of the Austrian Succession the King of France had planned an invasion of England in favor of Charles Edward Stuart, son of "the Old Pretender," and grandson of James II. An expedition was fitted out in 1744, but was driven back by a storm. In July 1745 the *Young Pretender*, called also the *Young Chevalier*, landed in Scotland, accompanied by a retinue of only seven persons. His landing-place was Moidart, in Inverness-shire, where began the famous *Rebellion of 'Forty-five.* The time was favorable for striking a decisive blow. Charles Edward, who was then twenty-four years old, had many qualities adapted to fire the Highland heart. He was tall, handsome, bold, and affable. The King was at his native seat in Hanover; his son, the Duke of Cumberland, with most of the troops, was in Flanders. Sir John Cope, commander of the Royalist forces in Scotland, was a man of little judgment. The Highlanders flocked to the Young Pretender's standard, and for a time the rebellion held out reasonable prospect of success.

Rebellion of 'Forty-five.

11. By bad generalship Sir John Cope allowed Charles Edward to march past him to Edinburgh, where the rebel leader comfortably established himself in Holyrood Palace. On September 21st, 1745, Cope, who had slowly followed the Pretender to Edinburgh, suffered a severe defeat at Prestonpans.

Battle of Prestonpans.

12. Six weeks after his victory at Prestonpans, Prince Charles, having received money and supplies, determined to make a bold push for the throne by marching into England. He aimed at no less a prize than London, and actually reached Derby. At this point both himself and his officers became discouraged. Notwithstanding all that he had been led to expect from the Jacobites, there was not the slightest rising in his favor. The King had returned from Hanover and the Duke of Cumberland from Flanders. Active military preparations were in progress; the suspension of the *Habeas Corpus Act* made every one anxious to appear loyal. Charles Edward hastily led his army back to Scotland. Here a transient gleam of success awaited him in the defeat of a small Royalist force under General Hawley at Falkirk, on the 17th of January 1746.

March into England.

13. Soon the Duke of Cumberland with a large army of trained soldiers entered Scotland, and encountered Charles Edward's High-

landers at Culloden Moor on the 16th of April. All that native valor could do to win the day was done by the latter, but, mowed down by the terrible artillery of the English, the brave clansmen were unable to maintain the unequal contest. The Pretender's army was completely routed. The Duke of Cumberland earned the repulsive title of *the Butcher* by the savage cruelty with which the unfortunate rebels were slain both *during* and *after* the battle. These butcheries were followed by numerous trials and executions for treason. Lords Balmerino, Lovat, and Kilmarnock bled on Tower Hill, while nearly a hundred of lesser note shared their fate.

Battle of Culloden.

14. For several months after his defeat at Culloden, Charles Edward wandered as a fugitive in the Western Highlands and the adjacent islands. Marvellous stories are told of his romantic adventures. A reward of thirty thousand pounds could not induce his faithful Highlanders to betray him. At length in a French vessel he managed to effect his escape to France, sailing from Moidart, the point at which he had landed more than a year before. His subsequent life was a wandering and unhappy one. He died in 1788, having outlived his father, the "Old Pretender," more than twenty years. His younger brother, Henry Benedict, Cardinal York, lived to the advanced age of eighty-three, dying at Rome in 1803. Cardinal York was "the last of the Stuarts."

"The last of the Stuarts."

15. *The Seven Years' War* between France and England, which began in 1756, resulted from disputes between French and English colonists both in America and in India. In the former country, the French, under the Marquis du Quesne, had taken very active measures against the English colonists. Du Quesne's design was to connect the colonies of France in Canada and Louisiana by a chain of military posts extending from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi. That great river, as well as the St. Lawrence, would thus contribute to the glory of French colonization in America, while the English settlers would be kept within the narrow strip between the Alleghanies and the sea. The war was for the possession of a continent. The first movements in America were unfavorable to the English. General Braddock in 1755 suffered a severe defeat as he marched to attack Fort Duquesne, where Pittsburg now stands. Important English forts were seized and destroyed by Montcalm, the French commander.

The Seven Years' War.

16. In the Seven Years' War, England had as her ally Frederick the Great of Prussia, while Austria was joined with France. The European conflict began with an attack on Minorca by a French fleet. Admiral Byng was sent from Gibraltar to relieve the garrison. The attempt to render aid was unsuccessful, and on his return to England Byng was tried

Death of Admiral Byng.

by a court-martial and condemned to be shot for *not having done the best he could*. The execution of this cruel sentence excited deep feeling in the country. The failure to relieve Minorca was followed by other disasters, and the outlook for England was gloomy in the extreme.

William Pitt.

17. In 1754, the Prime Minister, Henry Pelham, had died. His immediate successor was his brother, the Duke of Newcastle, an incompetent man, who was forced by public opinion to retire in 1756. Then came into power one of the greatest Englishmen that ever lived, William Pitt, known popularly as *The Great Commoner*. First the Duke of Devonshire was associated as Prime Minister with Pitt, and afterwards the Duke of Newcastle; but the real power was in Pitt's hands. His eloquence in Parliament was only equalled by his lofty patriotism and by the grandeur of his ambition. After he had been a year in office, the King dismissed him, but was glad to recall him on receipt of the tidings that the Duke of Cumberland had suffered an overwhelming defeat in Hanover. Pitt soon revived the tarnished reputation of his country.

The conquest of Canada.

18. In 1758 there began, under the directing genius of Pitt, that series of events which in the following year resulted in the conquest of Canada. The French were driven from the forts of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. The island of Cape Breton, adjoining Nova Scotia, fell into our possession by the capture of the important fortress of Louisburg. In September 1759, Quebec on the St. Lawrence, the chief stronghold of the French in Canada, was taken after a desperate battle on the neighboring Plains of Abraham, in which both the French commander, Montcalm, and the English general, Wolfe, were mortally wounded. Within the following year the complete conquest of Canada was effected.

India.

19. *The East India Company* has already been mentioned. It grew gradually in wealth and power both by the new charters granted it by successive Governments and by the extension of its trade in the East. In dealing with the native princes of India, the Company assumed the possession of almost sovereign powers. Its influence was now greatly extended by the genius of one of its servants, Robert Clive. Clive dispossessed the French of the Carnatic, and by defeating Suraj-ad-Dowla, a native ruler, added the whole of Bengal to the Company's dominions. Suraj-ad-Dowla had previously captured the small English station of Calcutta, and had confined the captives taken, to the number of 146, in the notorious *Black Hole of Calcutta*, a room only twenty feet square, with two small windows. But *twenty-three* of the unhappy prisoners survived the horrors of that awful night. The *Battle of Plassey*, in which Clive took signal and summary vengeance for this inhuman outrage, was fought on June 23rd, 1757.

20. The conquest of Canada was not the only success attending British arms in 1759. An allied force gained the *Battle of Minden*

in Prussia; Admirals Rodney and Boscawen won important naval advantages; while Sir Edward Hawke almost annihilated a French fleet in Quiberon Bay. Amid the glory of these victories George II. suddenly died on October 26th, 1760. As his son Frederick, Prince of Wales, had died in 1751 from the blow of a cricket-ball, he was succeeded by his grandson George, the eldest son of the deceased Prince.

Death of George II.

21. Among the important events of the reign not already noticed may be mentioned the reform of the calendar, by which England at length adopted the proper mode of reckoning time that we owe to Pope Gregory XIII., who promulgated it as far back as 1582. The Julian year of 365 days, 6 hours, exceeded by a few minutes the actual time taken by the Earth in its annual revolution around the Sun. In consequence, by September 1752, England was *eleven days behind the real time.* By Act of Parliament those eleven days were dropped out, September 3rd being reckoned as September 14th. The rise of *Methodism* also deserves mention in the records of this reign. That remarkable religious movement was originated by the brothers John and Charles Wesley, and George Whitfield, all clergymen of the Church of England. The real founder of Methodism, however, was John Wesley, who was not only a man of piety, but of much organizing ability. His first aim, undoubtedly, was simply to promote a more active religious life within the limits of the Established Church. Whether he himself contemplated complete separation is a matter of dispute. After his death, circumstances formed the Methodists into an independent community, and they are now the largest separate body of Dissenters in England.

Events of reign.

CHAPTER XLVII.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.—GEORGE III. 1760 to 1820 A.D.

1. George III. succeeded his grandfather at the age of twenty-two years. Unlike the two preceding Kings he was born an Englishman, and he created much enthusiasm by declaring in his first speech to Parliament that he "gloried in the name of Briton." The new King was of handsome appearance, pleasing manners, and irreproachable morals. Whatever may have been his errors of judgment, his subjects always felt that they had a Sovereign who was sincere in his views of duty, and who was truly anxious for their welfare. His mental powers were scarcely up to the average, while his education, which from the death of his father in 1751 had been chiefly directed by his mother the Princess-Dowager of Wales, and her adviser the Earl of

Accession and character of George III.

Bute, was somewhat narrow and defective. His instructors imbued him with those high notions of kingly authority which oftener than once involved both himself and the nation in trouble. To this it may be added that he inherited a temper more than usually obstinate. A year after his accession he married the Princess Charlotte Sophia of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, by whom he had a numerous family of sons and daughters.

2. The death of George II. left the Seven Years' War unfinished. In August 1761, France, Spain, and Naples, each of which was ruled by a member of the Bourbon family, entered into an arrangement called the *Family Compact*, by which each Power bound itself to regard the other's enemies as its own. As soon as knowledge of this compact reached Pitt, he urged the King to declare war against Spain, which had thus virtually made herself a party to the war already in progress between England and Prussia on the one side, and France and Austria on the other. On the rejection of this advice Pitt at once resigned. After a few months, Newcastle also resigned, and was succeeded in the office of Prime Minister by the King's tutor and favorite, the Earl of Bute.

The Family Compact.

3. The following year (1762) Spain made an open declaration of war, but only to suffer severe losses at the hands of the English. The capture of Havana, the chief seat of the Cuban trade, was followed by the loss of Manilla, the principal town of the Philippine Islands. Martinique, Grenada, St. Lucia, and other West India islands, were in succession seized by the British.

War with Spain.

4. In 1763 a general peace was negotiated among the parties to the Seven Years' War, including Spain, by the *Treaty of Paris*. By this treaty England acquired complete possession of Canada (which she has ever since retained), Nova Scotia (including Cape Breton and New Brunswick), Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, in North America; and of Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Grenada, in the West Indies. The Seven Years' War had swelled the national debt of Great Britain to upwards of £132,000,000.

Treaty of Paris.

5. The Treaty of Paris, vast as were the additions it made to the British dominions, was exceedingly unpopular in England. The Earl of Bute was compelled to bow to the storm and retire from office. He was succeeded by George Grenville, who became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer. The new Premier was a rash, self-willed man, whose policy involved the Crown in undignified quarrels.

The Grenville Administration.

6. Grenville soon gave a proof of his incapacity for government by causing the illegal arrest of a member of Parliament who had made a fierce attack upon the King's Speech, in a paper called the *North Briton*. This member

John Wilkes.

was John Wilkes, who sat in the House for Aylesbury. Wilkes was arrested on April 30th, 1763, under a *general warrant*—that is, a warrant which did not name any particular person, but directed the seizure of "the authors, printers, and publishers" of the "seditious and treasonable paper." The courts ordered his release, on the ground that he was privileged from arrest by being a member of Parliament. Then the House of Commons expelled him, and ordered that No. 45 of the *North Briton* should be burned by the common hangman. Thus stripped of his parliamentary privileges Wilkes was re-arrested; but the courts again released him, on the ground of the illegality of all general warrants, which *assume* guilt whereas it ought to be *proved*. This principle the House of Commons itself affirmed in 1766. In 1768 Wilkes was elected as member for Middlesex; but the House of Commons seated his opponent, who was far behind him at the poll. He was repeatedly elected by the voters, and repeatedly rejected by the House, until 1774, when he was finally allowed to take his seat. Wilkes was an agitator and demagogue, but the principles for which he contended were important.

The Stamp Act.

7. In 1765, by Grenville's advice, a step was taken which ultimately led to the severance of thirteen of the American colonies from the mother country. This was the passage of the *Stamp Act*, which obliged the colonists to pay a certain sum for stamps to be affixed to all legal documents. This duty was defended as a partial repayment to Great Britain of the expenses incurred in defending the colonies in question. But in America the Stamp Act excited the most violent opposition. The ground taken was, that as the colonies were without representation in the British Parliament, it was unconstitutional and unjust for that body to tax them. Within a year the Stamp Act was repealed; Grenville was forced to resign, and Lord Rockingham took his place.

Right of taxation.

8. A year later a new Ministry was formed, with the Duke of Grafton as nominal leader, but really under the direction of William Pitt, who was created Earl of Chatham. It was hoped that Chatham's hostility to the Stamp Act and to the principle on which it was based would lead to the preservation of peace between England and her colonies. But in 1767, when he was laid aside from public business by the gout, his colleagues secured the passage of an Act imposing duties in America on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colors. This measure kindled such a flame of indignation in the colonies that it was soon withdrawn, Parliament simply retaining a duty of threepence a pound on tea to show that it did not surrender the right of taxation. A more foolish policy than this can scarcely be conceived; it enraged the colonists without bringing any aid to the exhausted treasury of England.

9. In the meantime the Grafton Ministry had resigned, and Lord North, who with the King was fully bent on reducing the colonists to submission, had assumed the reins of office (1770). Everything now drifted on towards an inevitable conflict. Massachusetts was the head-quarters of dissatisfaction in America; though, in Virginia, Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson loudly declaimed against the injustice of taxation without representation. In Boston, on the 18th of December 1773, a band of men disguised as Indians boarded the tea-laden ships lying in the harbor and threw their whole cargoes into the sea. Lord North retaliated by removing the Custom-House from Boston to Salem, and by a virtual suppression of the Provincial Government. Appeals to the King and to the British Parliament, through Benjamin Franklin, the agent of Massachusetts in Europe, were vain, though these appeals were strongly supported by the illustrious Chatham in the House of Lords, and by the great orators Burke and Fox in the House of Commons.

War inevitable.

10. In September 1774, a General Congress of the Colonies was held at Philadelphia, in which all except Georgia were represented. A *Declaration of Rights* was issued, vigorously protesting against taxation without proper representation in Parliament. On the 18th of April 1775, a detachment of British troops sent by General Gage from Boston to destroy a quantity of military stores collected by the provincialists at Concord, was attacked by a body of Massachusetts militiamen, and forced to retire with considerable loss. This engagement, which was fought at Lexington, was the first battle of the *War of American Independence.* A second Congress was held at Philadelphia, in May 1775, which drew up *Articles of Union* for the thirteen colonies, and appointed Colonel George Washington of Virginia, who had seen service in the *Seven Years' War*, Commander-in-Chief of the colonial forces.

War begun.

11. On June 17th, a sharp engagement took place in the suburbs of Boston, known as the Battle of Bunker's Hill. The British forces dislodged the provincial troops from a strong position, but with such loss that the result on the whole did not discourage the Americans. During the ensuing winter a provincialist army entered Canada and made an ineffectual attempt to capture Quebec.

Battle of Bunker's Hill.

12. On the 4th of July 1776, the third Congress of the colonies, sitting at Philadelphia, issued the celebrated *Declaration of Independence*, in which allegiance to Great Britain was formally renounced, and the independence of the colonies, under the name of *The United States of America*, was declared. It must not be supposed that all the people of America approved of this final step. Many, including

Declaration of Independence.

some who had severely condemned the course of the mother country in taxing the colonies, could not bear the thought of separation. These did what they could to aid the English armies in suppressing the rebellion, but in most parts of the country they were far outnumbered by those who favored it. Those who adhered to Great Britain were called *Loyalists*, but their enemies termed them *Tories*. On the other hand, those whom the Loyalists denominated *Rebels* styled themselves *Patriots*. It should be mentioned that before independence was formally declared, Washington had compelled the British troops under General Howe to evacuate Boston, while Howe had retrieved this disaster by defeating Washington at Long Island, thus giving the British possession during the entire war of the important city of New York.

Battle of Brandywine.

13. The first important engagement after the Declaration of Independence was the Battle of Brandywine. This was fought on the 11th of September 1777, between the British troops under General Howe, in conjunction with those under Lord Cornwallis, and the American forces under George Washington. The former were completely victorious, and Philadelphia, the prize for which the battle was fought, was occupied by the English on the 27th of September.

Capitulation of Burgoyne.

14. The Battle of Brandywine was soon followed by an event which more than restored the balance in favor of the Americans. The British general Burgoyne, in command of a large body of troops, marching from Canada to take part in a combined movement against the rebels, was completely hemmed in by the enemy at Saratoga, near the Hudson river. Closed in by a large force in the rear, and unable to cut his way through the troops that blocked his advance, Burgoyne, with his army of six thousand men, was compelled to surrender to the American general Gates.

Proposals for peace.

15. Early in the year 1778, France formally recognized the independence of the United States. This event, joined to the disastrous capitulation at Saratoga, led Lord North to entertain thoughts of peace. In February 1778, a Bill passed Parliament naming commissioners to treat for peace, and definitely renouncing the right to tax the American colonies. This movement came to nothing, and war went on without interruption.

Death of Chatham.

16. The great Chatham made his last appearance in Parliament in order to denounce the proposal to obtain peace by acknowledging the independence of the colonies. On the 7th of April he went from a sick-bed to the House of Lords, where he began vehemently to protest against "the dismemberment of this ancient and noble monarchy." Before he had proceeded

far he fell in a fit, from the effects of which he died a few weeks later. To a remarkable genius for statesmanship, Lord Chatham added powers of oratory which have been seldom equalled in the British Parliament.

American reverses.

17. In America, the campaigns of 1778, 1779, and 1780 were, on the whole, favorable to the British, notwithstanding the aid rendered to the colonists by the French. English forces occupied Savannah and Charleston, the two most important southern sea-ports. In the north, Washington himself was driven to great extremities.

Surrender of Yorktown.

18. An unexpected event in 1781 brought about a complete change in the position of affairs. Lord Cornwallis, who, on the departure of Sir Henry Clinton for New York in 1780, had been left in command of the British forces in the south, had gradually advanced northward as far as to Virginia, gaining several decisive advantages over General Gates and other American commanders. The autumn of 1781 found him at Yorktown, near the mouth of the Chesapeake. Here the experience of Burgoyne at Saratoga was repeated. Washington, aided by a French fleet and French troops, under Lafayette, succeeded in blockading Yorktown, and compelling Cornwallis with his entire army to surrender. After this there was little or no fighting in America, though formal terms of peace were not arranged until 1783.

European war.

19. During the later years of the War of American Independence, England was engaged in fighting, single-handed, the chief Powers of Europe. In 1779, Spain joined with France in the war against England, and the junction of the fleets of these powerful nations threatened for a time to destroy the naval supremacy of Britain; which, however, soon re-asserted itself by the victory off Cape St. Vincent, won by Admiral Rodney in January, 1780. Towards the close of 1780, Holland joined the alliance against England, and both in European waters and in the West Indies her fleets took an active part in the war. Two events contributed to establish the fact that England was a match for all the foes arrayed against her. One of these was the successful resistance of Gibraltar against a tremendous attack by the combined land and sea forces of both France and Spain. This memorable defence lasted for three and a half years. General Eliott, who conducted it, and who, after a fierce bombardment from the enemies' fleet, from land batteries, and from huge floating batteries, saw it crowned with complete success, was raised to the peerage as Lord Heathfield of Gibraltar. The other event alluded to was a splendid naval victory in the West Indies gained by Admirals Rodney and Hood, which resulted in the retention in English hands of the important island of Jamaica.

20. The war both in Europe and America was formally closed by

the *Treaty*, or, as it is sometimes called, the *Peace of Versailles*. England agreed to recognize the independence of the United States of America, but acquired the Bahama Islands, and the islands of Grenada, Nevis, Montserrat, Dominica, and St. Vincent, in the West Indies. Florida was ceded to Spain, and Minorca was restored to the same Power. France received Pondicherry in India. The Treaty of Versailles was very unpopular in England. So great, indeed, was the discontent that Lord Shelburne, the Prime Minister, with his able colleague, William Pitt, second son of the illustrious Chatham, was forced to resign. They were succeeded by a short-lived Ministry, with the Duke of Portland as its nominal leader. It was called the *Coälition Ministry*, since it embraced leading Tories, like Lord North, and leading Whigs, like Charles James Fox. The war that was closed by the Peace of Versailles added £100,000,000 to the national debt.

Peace of Versailles.

21. In the course of time the penal laws prohibiting Roman Catholics from the exercise of religious worship had happily become, to a large extent, a dead letter. In 1778 some of the most obnoxious of these statutes were repealed by Parliament. That was followed in London by a wild outburst of fanaticism, to which the name of *the Gordon Riots* has been given, from Lord George Gordon, a weak-minded enthusiast, who persuaded many people that the action of Parliament was likely to uproot Protestantism in England. Catholic chapels were gutted and burned by the rioters; fires were raised in all directions; Newgate, the chief prison, was destroyed, and its occupants were turned loose on the streets to add to the reign of terror already prevailing there. The civic authorities proving unable to restore order, the military were called out. Before the riot was quelled several hundred persons lost their lives. While Lord George Gordon was largely responsible for this mad outbreak of popular fury, he does not seem to have had any direct connection with the deeds of violence actually perpetrated. He afterwards became a convert to the Jewish faith, and finally went mad.

The Gordon Riots.

22. The Coälition Ministry lasted but a few months. On its downfall, the King recalled to his councils the younger Pitt, then only in his twenty-fifth year. This celebrated statesman remained at the helm of State for seventeen years, though he had arrayed against him three of the greatest of Englishmen—Burke, Sheridan, and Fox. Pitt's strength lay in his financial skill, his readiness in debate, and in the reforming bent of his mind. In respect to such subjects as religious equality and parliamentary independence he was much in advance of his age, though circumstances did not allow him to carry all his progressive measures into effect. His most prominent opponent was Charles James Fox, an ardent lover of liberty, and, like Pitt himself, an able

Administration of the younger Pitt.

debater. Fox's intimacy with the Prince of Wales, who was a dissipated and extravagant young man, rendered him very obnoxious to King George III., who at different times refused to accept him as one of his advisers.

The India Bill.

23. In 1784 Pitt revolutionized the system by which India was governed. His *India Bill* modified the powers of the East India Company, by forming a Board of Control, composed of members of the Privy Council, whose duty it was to approve or annul the acts of the Company's directors. The provisions of this Bill remained in force until 1858.

Warren Hastings.

24. In 1786, and again in 1787, the Opposition leaders—Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and others—carried through the House of Commons a Bill for the impeachment of Warren Hastings, "for high crimes and misdemeanors," during his service as Governor-General of India. The trial began in 1788 and did not end until 1795, when it resulted in the acquittal of Hastings. It was conducted in Westminster Hall. The speeches of Burke and Sheridan, who had been appointed managers of the prosecution, were masterpieces of eloquence. Pitt consented to the impeachment, but did not take an active part on either side. Hastings had undoubtedly performed actions the cruelty and oppressiveness of which deserved the eloquent censures heaped on them by Burke and Sheridan. At the same time he had been cruel and oppressive, not to enrich himself, but to further, as he supposed, the interests of his country. One beneficial result of his impeachment, issuing as it did in a bare acquittal after years of mental anxiety on the part of the accused, was to secure for "the peasant of Bengal or Mysore the same rights of justice and good government as are claimed by Englishmen."

Lunacy of the King.

25. In October 1788, George III. became suddenly insane. This led to a most exciting series of debates in Parliament. Fox claimed that his friend, the Prince of Wales, had an undoubted hereditary right to the position of Regent or acting-sovereign. This Pitt strenuously denied, arguing that it was the clear prerogative of Parliament to dispose of the regency. At the same time he introduced a Bill conferring the regency on the Prince of Wales by authority of Parliament. Before the matter was finally settled the King recovered his reason.

The French Revolution.

26. During the period 1789-1793 occurred the *French Revolution*, one of the most stupendous events of modern times. The details of the French Revolution do not belong to English history; but the event itself must be noticed, from the far-reaching effects which it had on the politics and general fortunes of our country. Smarting under the oppression of their rulers, the people of France had been incited by the example of the American colonies to attempt the overthrow of monarchy and the

establishment of a republican form of government. The outbreak was one of the wildest fury. All respect for authority and religion was lost. The streets of Paris ran red with blood. The State prison, called *The Bastille*, was stormed. King Louis XVI. and his Queen, Marie Antoinette, after being detained as prisoners for several years, died on the scaffold by the guillotine in 1793. Every privilege pertaining either to the clergy or to the nobility was swept away. The feudal system fell in ruins. A republic was formally proclaimed shortly after the King's death, and its proclamation was followed by deeds of carnage that make one's blood run cold. In the excitement that prevailed no one's life was safe. A man might be a popular hero to-day, and to-morrow his head might be rolling in the gutter.

Effect on English feeling.

27. At the outset, the revolutionary movement in France excited some sympathy and approval in England. The French had undoubtedly been misgoverned, and the Whig party especially viewed with favor their efforts to obtain a better system of rule. But as the horrors of the revolution developed themselves, the feeling in England underwent a decided change. A marked proof of this was seen in the case of the celebrated Edmund Burke, who on this question deserted his friend Fox, and wrote a powerful essay, entitled, *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, in support of constitutional order. Pitt was led to abandon his projects of parliamentary and financial reform. A desperate and long-continued war with the new republic was about to engross his attention.

Canada Constitutional Act.

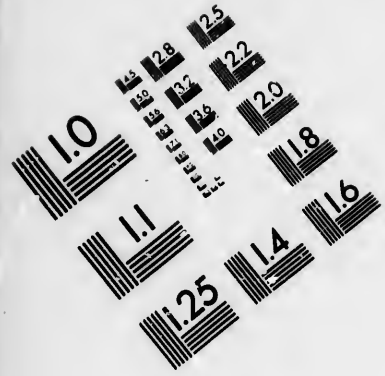
28. Before proceeding to trace the course of this great struggle, we must refer to an important measure, entitled the *Canada Constitutional Act*, passed by Parliament in 1791. By this Canada was divided into two provinces, named respectively Upper and Lower Canada, each having a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a representative Assembly.

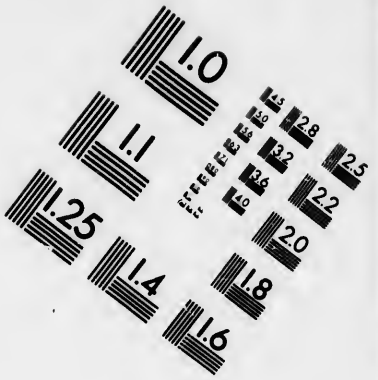
War with France.

29. The execution of Louis XVI. rendered the continuance of peace for any length of time between England and France impossible. The French Ambassador in England was dismissed; and in February 1793 France declared war against England, Holland, and Spain.

Beginning of the war.

30. Warlike operations began in Holland, where ten thousand English troops commanded by the Duke of York, the King's second son, were sent to co-operate with the Dutch forces against the armies of the French Republic. The campaign in Flanders was attended by no important results; but the same year (1793) Lord Hood, with a fleet chiefly composed of English vessels, compelled Toulon to surrender. The captured fortress, however, did not long remain in possession of the English. It was invested on the land side by a powerful French force, the well-directed fire of





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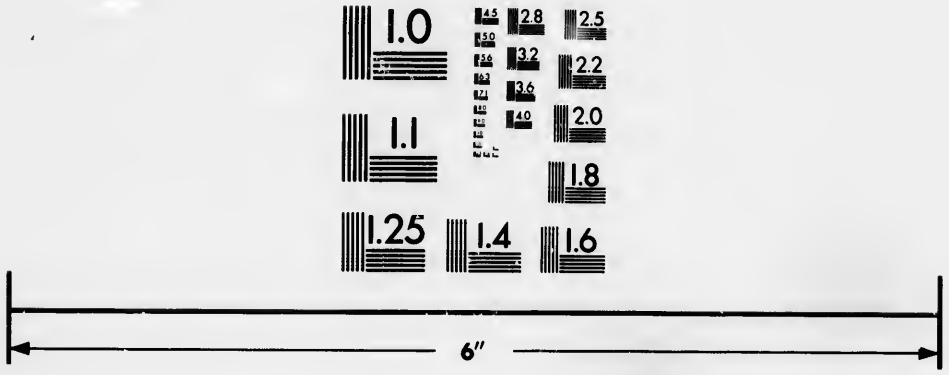

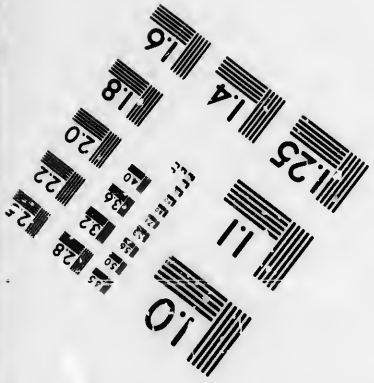

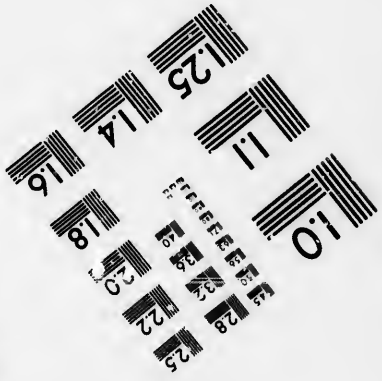

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whose artillery soon compelled the English fleet to sail away. The re-capture of Toulon was mainly due to the skill of a young colonel of artillery of whom we shall hear again—Napoleon Buonaparte. The war in Holland dragged slowly along during the year 1794, on the whole without much advantage on either side; but in March 1795 the marked numerical superiority of the French obliged our army to return to England. Holland, now overrun by French armies, changed sides, and was numbered among the enemies of England. The latter took her revenge by capturing Dutch colonies both in the East and in the West Indies, and at the Cape of Good Hope.

31. Early in the year 1796, Spain entered the alliance against England, who now found herself compelled, single-handed, to confront the combined fleets of France, Spain, and Holland. The coälition was followed by Napoleon Buonaparte's triumphant campaign in Italy, which resulted in the utter overthrow of Austrian power in that country. Then came a project for the invasion of England by a combination of the enemies' fleets.

Coälition against England.

32. The proposed invasion came to nought. The Spanish fleet, designed to play the chief part therein, was attacked off Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west coast of Portugal, in February 1797, by fifteen sail of the line under Admiral Jervis, with Horatio Nelson as second in command. The result was a complete victory for the English, though they were surpassed by the enemy both in the size and in the number of ships engaged. Nelson here gave signal proofs of the skill and bravery which gained for him so high a place among our naval heroes.

Battle of Cape St. Vincent.

33. In 1797, two mutinies, threatening serious results, broke out among the seamen of the British fleet. The first, occurring at the Spithead, was soon amicably suppressed through the intervention of Admiral Howe, who advised prompt concessions to the disaffected sailors. The other, known as *the Mutiny at the Nore*, was more alarming in its character. Headed by a man named Parker, the mutineers seized a number of vessels and blockaded the mouth of the Thames. Prompt action on the part of the authorities convinced those directing the movement that actual resistance would be perilous. Discipline was soon restored, after which Parker and the other ringleaders were shot.

Mutinies.

34. Three months after the Mutiny at the Nore, the English fleet showed that its loyalty was undiminished, by gaining a glorious victory over a Dutch naval force off Camperdown, on the coast of Holland. The English commander was Admiral Duncan, who was raised to the peerage as Earl of Camperdown.

Battle of Camperdown.

35. The year 1798 was marked by an attempt at revolution in Ire-

land. A barrister named Theobald Wolfe Tone had some years before formed an association called *the Society of United Irishmen.* Tone's design was to secure the separation of Ireland from England, and the erection of the former into an independent republic. The movement was *national* rather than *religious*, many of its leaders being Protestants. It came to a head in the spring of 1798. For a time the rebels were successful; but as they received no aid from France, their power gradually declined, and the rising was completely suppressed by the victory gained by the royal troops at Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy, on the 21st of June.

Irish Rebellion.

36. It is now necessary to make a brief reference to a man whose history for nearly twenty years from this time was mainly the history of Europe. Napoleon Buonaparte, a native of the island of Corsica, had risen by sheer dint of military genius to the leading position in the armies of France. His marvellous abilities were equalled, if not surpassed, by his ambition. He aimed at becoming not only the supreme ruler of France, but also the conqueror of Europe, and the virtual master of the world. Napoleon revolutionized the art of war in Europe. For the slow, cautious tactics that had hitherto prevailed, he substituted a swift, sharp, decisive mode of attack, by which he concentrated his strength on the weakest point of the enemy, and thus conquered him in detail. One of his grand designs was to attack the British power in India by landing a force in Egypt, subduing that country, and then gradually proceeding eastward. He so far carried out this ambitious purpose as to reach Egypt with a French army early in the summer of 1798. On his way, he had seized Malta; and after his landing in Egypt, he defeated the famous Mameluke cavalry at the Battle of the Pyramids.

Napoleon Buonaparte.

37. Buonaparte's voyage to Egypt had been narrowly watched by Horatio Nelson with a well-equipped English fleet. The French vessels, however, had maintained a good lead up the Mediterranean, and the troops had been some time landed, when Nelson sighted the hostile fleet securely drawn up in Aboukir Bay, near Alexandria. The French admiral thought that his position near the shore, with a powerful battery to aid him on Aboukir Island, completely shielded him from attack. This was a most unsound conclusion. Nelson, with equal skill and courage, placed his ships between the French fleet and the shore, encountering as they proceeded the fire of the enemy's guns. Once inside the lines, the English vessels returned the fire with a vengeance. Nelson's own ship, the *Vanguard*, went into action with colors streaming from all parts of her rigging. The enemy made a brave but ineffectual resistance. Their largest ship, the *Orient*, caught fire, and then blew up with a tremendous explosion. The pathetic poem, beginning, "The boy stood on the burning deck," relates to the son of the commander

Battle of the Nile.

of the ill-fated *Orient*. The battle lasted till midnight, and after a lull it was renewed in the morning. Its final issue was the annihilation of the French fleet. Eight ships of the line surrendered, two went on shore, one had been blown to atoms. Two managed to make a brief escape, but were captured before they were well out on the bosom of the Mediterranean. For this great victory Nelson received well-merited rewards. He was created a peer under the title of "Baron Nelson of the Nile," and had bestowed on him an income from the public treasury of £2,000 a-year.

Siege of Acre.

38. After the destruction of his fleet at Aboukir, Buonaparte overran Syria, but encountered an unexpected repulse at Acre. His attempt to storm that important fortress was foiled by the bravery of Sir Sidney Smith, who aided the Turkish garrison with a small force of British seamen and marines. Buonaparte, after continuing his vain effort to capture Acre for sixty days, returned to France.

Buonaparte First Consul.

39. Thus far the French Republic had been under the control of a supreme council called the *Directory*. On his return from Acre, Buonaparte overthrew the Legislature and the Directory, and became himself real ruler of the country under the title of *First Consul*. During the ensuing year (1800) he pursued almost unchecked his career of European conquest, gaining himself the battles of *Montebello* and *Marengo* in Italy, while another army defeated the Germans at *Hohenlinden*. On the other hand, his troops were compelled in 1801 to evacuate Egypt by the successful efforts of the English generals Abercromby and Hutchinson.

The Armed Neutrality.

40. During this war, England had claimed and exercised the *right of search*. By this it is meant that her cruisers stopped neutral vessels, and if, after search, these were found to be conveying warlike stores to any of her enemies, both the stores and the vessels were confiscated. A combination of Northern Powers, embracing Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, was now formed to resist the *right of search*. Prussia afterwards joined the *Armed Neutrality*, as the combination was called.

Battle of the Baltic.

41. England responded to the Armed Neutrality by sending a fleet into the Baltic under the command of Sir Hyde Parker and Lord Nelson. The Danish fleet, which was drawn up in front of Copenhagen, was soon attacked, and every vessel in it was lost, either by burning, by sinking, or by capture. This victory was really gained by Lord Nelson, though he was only second in command. An armistice was at once concluded with Denmark, and the Armed Neutrality fell to pieces. The Battle of the Baltic was fought on April 2nd, 1801. Even before this the hostile combination of Northern Powers against England had come to an end

by the assassination of its chief promoter, the Czar Paul of Russia. His son and successor, Alexander, was a warm friend of England, and hastened to restore relations of peace.

42. The great European war was for a short time suspended by the *Peace of Amiens*, signed on March 25th, 1802. The parties to this arrangement were Great Britain, France, Holland, and Spain. The terms were disadvantageous to the first-named country, as she had to restore all her colonial captures except Trinidad and Ceylon. France, on the other hand, was allowed to retain a large part of Holland, and to make the Rhine her eastern boundary. It soon became clear that the Peace of Amiens was only a truce, not a permanent settlement of the difficulties which distracted Europe.

Peace of Amiens.

43. We have already alluded to the Irish Rebellion of 1798. That event was followed by the execution of some of its leaders, such as Lord Edward Fitzgerald and Robert Emmett. It was now resolved to unite the kingdoms under one Legislature as well as one Sovereign. A Bill for the *legislative union* of the countries passed the British Parliament in May 1799. A year later, this measure received the assent of the Irish Parliament, and on January 1st, 1801, the Union took effect. In the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and *Ireland* the latter country received a representation of 100 members in the House of Commons and of 32 peers in the House of Lords. While the measure of union embraced some features of substantial relief to Ireland, the great majority of whose inhabitants were Roman Catholics, Mr. Pitt, the Prime Minister, wished to go much further in that direction. He not only desired to have the penal laws completely annulled, but advocated also the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, so that Catholics might freely practise their religion, and have opened up to them seats in Parliament and in public offices generally. The King obstinately refused to assent to these fair and liberal proposals. Mr. Pitt forthwith retired from office, and was succeeded by Mr. Addington, a man by no means fitted to cope with the difficulties that surrounded England.

Union of Great Britain and Ireland.

44. The Peace of Amiens left both of the chief parties to it in an excited state. England was dissatisfied with the concessions she had made; France was eager for further conquests. The former charged Buonaparte with violating the treaty by keeping his troops in Holland, and on this ground declined to give up Malta, which had been taken from France in 1800. Then Buonaparte, now First Consul *for life*, grossly insulted the British Ambassador in public; and England declared war on May 18th, 1803. Buonaparte seized ten thousand British subjects who were living or travelling in France. These were detained in exile for eleven

War with France renewed.

years. An immense French force was assembled at Boulogne for a contemplated invasion of England, who replied to the challenge by enrolling three hundred thousand volunteers, and by placing Horatio Nelson in command of her Channel fleet.

Napoleon created Emperor.

45. In May 1804 George III. was compelled to reinstate Pitt in the office of Prime Minister; and the same month Buonaparte was created *Emperor of the French* as Napoleon I. Later in the year, Spain allied herself with France against England, and it was confidently expected that their combined fleets would successfully convey across the Channel the threatening forces gathered at Boulogne. This, however, was made impossible by the victory gained in July 1805 by an English fleet commanded by Sir Robert Calder, over the combined French and Spanish fleets, off Cape Finisterre. Calder's victory obliged Napoleon to postpone his invasion of England, and to exert his arms in other quarters.

Battle of Austerlitz.

46. Restored to power, Pitt had successfully exerted himself to form a gigantic, and, as he thought, *irresistible* coälition against Napoleon. Russia, Austria, Sweden, and England formed the alliance, on which Pitt looked as the greatest work of his life. But even this proud coälition did not prove a match for the far-seeing genius of Napoleon. Marching rapidly with the troops which had been collected for the invasion of England, the French Emperor defeated the Austrians at Ulm, entered Vienna in triumph, and meeting the combined armies of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz, gained one of the most memorable victories of his remarkable career. The Battle of Austerlitz was fought on the 2nd of December 1805. When the disastrous tidings reached Mr. Pitt, the shock was too much for the great minister's enfeebled health. He died on the 23rd of the ensuing month, and was buried beside his father, the famous Chatham, in Westminster Abbey.

Battle of Trafalgar.

47. Before the Battle of Austerlitz was fought, a great naval victory had freed England from all fear of a French invasion. This was gained off Cape Trafalgar, near Cadiz, on October 21st, 1805, by Lord Nelson, over the united fleets of France and Spain. The great Admiral hoisted his flag on board a vessel auspiciously named the *Victory*, and was ably supported by his friend Rear-Admiral Collingwood. Signalling to his fleet the animating watchword, *England expects every man to do his duty*, Nelson led into action the one division of the British ships, while Collingwood in the *Royal Sovereign* commanded the other. The conflict resulted in the capture of nineteen French and Spanish ships of the line, and of no fewer than twenty thousand prisoners. This great victory was dearly purchased by the death of the brave Nelson, who at the moment of assured triumph fell, pierced by a musket-ball fired from the rigging of the

ship with which the *Victory* was grappled. The remains of England's greatest naval hero were buried in the crypt of St. Paul's Cathedral. His faded uniform, rent by the fatal bullet, is preserved in Greenwich Hospital. The victory of Trafalgar made England completely mistress of the seas, and dissipated the last thought of a French invasion.

Ministry of all the Talents.

48. On the death of Pitt a new Cabinet was formed, which, from the fact that it embraced representatives of all sections of both political parties, received the name of *the Ministry of all the Talents*. Lord Grenville was the nominal leader, but Fox was its real head. The latter had all along opposed the war, but was now compelled by circumstances to support it.

Berlin Decrees.

49. On the Continent, Napoleon continued to pursue his victorious career. At Jena he annihilated the power of Prussia. From Berlin, the capital of the conquered country, he issued on the 21st of November 1806 a proclamation known as the *Berlin Decrees*, with the design of ruining British commerce. In pursuance of the right of belligerent Powers to blockade their enemy's ports even against neutral vessels, Great Britain had previously declared the coast of Europe from Brest to the Elbe to be *under blockade*. The Berlin Decrees, which Napoleon issued in retaliation, placed the entire British Islands in a state of blockade, and forbade the carriage of British goods to all nations over which he had control. England replied by the famous *Orders in Council*, declaring France and the countries of her allies to be under blockade, and that all vessels bound to any of their ports would be seized as lawful prizes of war, unless they had sailed from an English port. These recriminatory measures virtually destroyed the foreign trade of neutral States.

Treaty of Tilsit.

50. Though baffled by the superior power of England on the sea, Napoleon continued to sweep all before him on land, conquering whole kingdoms, and parcelling them out among his relatives and friends according to his pleasure. In July 1807 the *Treaty of Tilsit* secured for the conqueror the cooperation of Russia and Prussia in his efforts to destroy English commerce. Denmark, too, with her somewhat powerful fleet, was enlisted on the same side.

Bombardment of Copenhagen.

51. Meantime the Grenville Administration had been displaced by a new Cabinet, the real leader of which was George Canning, though the Duke of Portland was named as Premier. Becoming aware of the negotiations at Tilsit, Canning determined to strike at the enemy before he had time to mature his plans. The Danish fleet presenting the fairest object of attack, a powerful expedition was secretly despatched to Copenhagen. The Danish authorities refused to deliver up their fleet on the demand of Gambier, the English admiral in command. Copen-

hagen was then subjected to a fierce bombardment for four days by both sea and land. The attack was irresistible, and the surrender of Copenhagen was followed by the yielding up of the entire fleet, which was taken to England in October 1807. This sudden stroke completely broke up the scheme which had been arranged at Tilsit. It may be noted that it was in connection with this expedition that England obtained possession of the little island of Heligoland, opposite the mouth of the Elbe.

Portugal and Spain.

52. Portugal was the only European country that had refused to execute Napoleon's Berlin Decrees against English commerce. In revenge, Napoleon sent an army into that country, by which the King with his family and principal nobles were driven into exile. They sought refuge in the South American colony of Brazil. The French Emperor's treatment of the adjoining kingdom of Spain was still more disgraceful. First he made a treaty (October 1807) with the Spanish King, the imbecile Charles IV., for the partition of Portugal between France and Spain. In March 1808, Charles and his son, Prince Ferdinand, were treacherously lured to an interview with Napoleon at Bayonne, where they were thrown into prison. Napoleon's brother Joseph was then taken from the throne of Naples, and placed on that of Spain.

The Peninsular War.

53. Both Spain and Portugal, in their extremity, sought the aid of England, who at once despatched a force of ten thousand men under Sir Arthur Wellesley. Wellesley landed in Portugal on the 1st of August 1808. The *Peninsular War* opened with the Battle of Roliça, fought on August 17th. This engagement was but preliminary to the Battle of Vimiera, which took place four days later. At Vimiera, the French marshal Junot was defeated with great loss. Unfortunately, the day after the battle, Wellesley was superseded by a superior officer—Sir Hew Dalrymple, through whose indecision the fruits of the victory were largely lost. A disgraceful compact was made with Junot, by which the French were allowed to leave Portugal with their arms and stores, and were actually transported to France by the English fleet!

Battle of Corunna.

54. Sir Hew Dalrymple was now replaced by Sir John Moore as commanding officer in Portugal. Moore's plan of operations embraced a junction with the Spanish army; but on finding that Napoleon in person was marching against him with a large army, the English general was obliged to retreat. He fell back on Corunna, closely pursued by a French force under Marshal Soult. His object was to reach the English fleet, which was hourly expected. Detained by contrary winds, the ships did not arrive in time to enable the troops to embark before the coming up of the French troops. In the ensuing battle, the English were victorious, but the gallant Moore himself was slain. On the following

day the ships arrived, and the victory of Corunna enabled the army safely to embark.

Wellesley's Peninsular victories.

55. The command of the English forces in the Peninsula was now intrusted to Sir Arthur Wellesley. His first great victory was gained at Talavera on July 27th, 1809. As a mark of the nation's gratitude, he received a peerage as Viscount Wellington. The next year, while gaining no great battles, Wellington successfully defended both himself and the Portuguese capital by the impregnable fortress, or series of fortifications, known as the Lines of Torres Vedras. In 1811, Massena, one of the most renowned of Napoleon's marshals, was defeated at Fuentes d'Onoro (May 3rd); while a few days later General Beresford routed the French under Soult at the great Battle of Albuera. The year 1812 was marked by a forward movement on the part of the English. The formidable fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz were taken by storm. The renowned victory of Salamanca was gained over Massena's successor, Marshal Marmont, on June 22nd; and on the 12th of August, Wellington entered Madrid in triumph. The French were now in full retreat. Wellington, pursuing, overtook them at Vittoria, near Pampeluna, on June 21st, 1813. The enemy were commanded by Marshal Jourdan, though King Joseph himself was with his army. The Battle of Vittoria resulted in one of Wellesley's most glorious victories. The French were now driven step by step across the Pyrenees, Wellington steadily pursuing them into France. Our great captain ended his triumphant Peninsular campaigns by defeating Marshal Soult on French territory, at Toulouse, on the 10th of April, 1814.

Walcheren expedition.

56. We must now notice some events which happened contemporaneously with the Peninsular War. In 1809 an attempt was made by England to seize the island of Walcheren, situated on the south-west coast of Holland. The design of this expedition was to check Napoleon's efforts to create a great naval arsenal at Antwerp as a basis of operations against England. The land force was commanded by the Earl of Chatham, elder brother of the deceased Pitt, and the fleet by Admiral Strachan. It is hard to say which of these leaders was the more incompetent. The *Walcheren expedition* ended in total failure. Time wasted by the British in attacking Flushing was wisely used by the enemy in strengthening the fortifications of Antwerp. The miasma of the Dutch marshes bred a destructive fever and ague among the British troops, from which they died in thousands. Antwerp defied capture, and late in the autumn the shattered remains of the army returned to England.

Napoleon's conquests.

57. While Wellington was holding Napoleon's forces at bay in the Peninsula, the French Emperor continued in other parts of Europe to pursue a steady career of conquest. In 1809 he entered Vienna in triumph; and a few months

later utterly prostrated the power of Austria in the noted Battle of Wagram. The Austrian Emperor accepted terms of peace which involved conditions of submission, and the next year (1810) gave his daughter in marriage to his conqueror. In order to marry the Arch-Duchess Maria-Louisa, Napoleon divorced his faithful wife Josephine. To his son by Maria-Louisa he gave the high-sounding title of *King of Rome*. In 1810 he seized the States of the Church in Italy, and made a prisoner of Pope Pius VII. He also deposed his own brother Louis, whom he had made King of Holland, and annexed that country to France. In 1812 a quarrel arose between Napoleon and his ally the Czar of Russia. The Czar and the King of Sweden entered into a compact to enforce no longer Napoleon's Berlin Decrees.

Napoleon invades Russia.

58. Napoleon at once declared war against Russia, and invaded that country with an army of half a million men. The Russians opposed his entrance into their territory with great energy, and obliged him to fight many bloody battles. He reached Moscow in September 1812, but was soon obliged to retreat by the burning of that city and the consequent want of supplies. The homeward march of the once proud army of France was a constant scene of horrors. The Arctic frosts of a Russian winter, added to want of food and clothing, and fierce troops of Cossacks hovering on their rear, caused the death of hundreds of thousands of the invaders.

Battle of Leipsic.

59. Napoleon returned from Russia with a skeleton of his mighty host, only to find the whole of Europe in league against him. Russia, England, and Sweden had been joined by Austria and Prussia. Never greater than when about to fall, Napoleon put forth desperate efforts to meet this powerful coälition. New levies of troops were made, and an army of respectable size was put in the field; but genius had to yield to numbers. The great Battle of Leipsic, which began on October 16th, 1813, and lasted for three days, resulted in his total defeat. Early in November he re-entered Paris like a stag driven to bay.

Napoleon surrenders.

60. The allied army, composed of Russians, Prussians, and Austrians, then invaded France. Exhausted by repeated levies, France was unable to furnish an army capable of resisting this combined attack. Paris surrendered on March 1st, 1814. Wellington had crossed the Pyrenees, and was rapidly driving the retreating French army northward. On the 10th of April, as we have seen, he won the victory of Toulouse. On the 11th, before the tidings of Wellington's triumph reached him, Napoleon placed his imperial crown at the disposal of his enemies.

Treaty of Paris.

61. On the 30th of May 1814, the five Powers—England, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia—entered into an agreement known as the *Treaty of Paris*. The brother

of Louis XVI. became King of France under the title of Louis XVIII. Napoleon was allowed to retain the title of Emperor, and had the island of Elba assigned to him as a territory, with an income of £40,000 from the treasury of France.

War with the United States.

62. During the years 1812-14, England was engaged in an unpleasant conflict with the United States of America. The trade of America had greatly suffered from the Berlin Decrees of Napoleon and the retaliatory Orders in Council of Great Britain, particularly from the latter, because they were more generally and rigorously enforced. Great offence was also given to the Americans by the right claimed and exercised by England of searching American vessels for French goods and warlike stores, as well as for deserters from the royal navy. England revoked her Orders in Council, so far as the United States were concerned, in June 1812, but that country had already declared war. The ensuing conflict was one of alternating success. The Americans invaded Canada, but were driven back after suffering serious repulses, principally from the Canadian militia. The British forces captured Washington, but tarnished their victory by burning the most important public buildings of the American capital. New Orleans, however, was successfully defended, and the English troops under General Pakenham were repulsed with great loss. At sea, the Americans gained some decided advantages; though towards the close of the war, the capture of the United States frigate *Chesapeake* by the British man-of-war *Shannon* did something to restore our reputation for naval supremacy. The war was ended by the *Treaty of Ghent*, signed December 24th, 1814. Strange to say, the treaty made no mention of the matters in which the war had originated!

Napoleon returns from Elba.

63. In January 1815, representatives of the allied Powers met at Vienna to discuss some matters which the Treaty of Paris had left unsettled. In March their deliberations were broken up by the startling intelligence that Napoleon, on the first day of that month, had landed at Cannes on the coast of France. So warmly was the ex-Emperor welcomed by his old soldiers and the people of France generally, that on the 20th of March the Bourbon King, Louis XVIII., was obliged to flee from Paris. Napoleon soon found himself restored to his capital, and at the head of a splendid though not a very large army.

Battle of Waterloo.

64. Wellington, who in return for his services in the Peninsular War had been created a Duke, and received a grant of £400,000, was in attendance at the Congress of Vienna when Napoleon landed from Elba. He at once hastened to Belgium, and placed himself at the head of the British and allied troops in that country. His army numbered about 80,000 men, while

near him was the Prussian Marshal Blücher, with a force probably somewhat larger. Napoleon, who never displayed greater fertility of resource than during the memorable *Hundred Days* between his return from Elba and his second downfall, crossed the frontier into Belgium with a force variously estimated at from 100,000 to 130,000 men. His aim was to prevent the junction of Wellington and Blücher, and to conquer them in detail. On the 16th of June, Wellington defeated a superior French force under Marshal Ney at *Quatre Bras*, twenty miles south of Brussels, situate, as the name indicates, at the meeting of four roads. On the same day, Napoleon gained an advantage over Blücher at Ligny. The next day, Wellington fell back on Waterloo, a small village about ten miles south-east of Brussels. Here, on the next day, June 18th, 1815, was fought the greatest battle of modern times, between two of the greatest generals that ever lived. The army of Wellington consisted of 72,700 men, of whom only 36,000 were British, the remainder being Belgians, Hanoverians, and Brunswickers. Napoleon led into the fight 78,000 men, the most of them being trained veterans. Wellington's Continental troops did him little service, the Belgians particularly taking flight early in the day. The battle consisted of a series of furious charges by the French on the English lines, which were formed into squares as the gleaming squadrons of cavalry rode down on them. During the long June day, the British squares stood firm against the tremendous assaults of the French cuirassiers, which were at last dispersed by a tremendous counter-charge of British cavalry. Napoleon made his final effort when he ordered his Imperial Guard, the flower of his army, to charge the British lines. The attack, like all its predecessors, failed to shake the steady columns. A withering fire was followed by the uplifting of row upon row of glittering steel, against which the veterans of France dashed themselves in vain. At this juncture, the Prussians under Blücher appeared on the right, and, joining in the pursuit, drove the French before them in utter rout. Thus was fought and won the great Battle of Waterloo. The English and their allies lost upwards of 20,000 men; and the French, if we include those who were slain in the pursuit, not less than 40,000. Napoleon narrowly escaped the Prussians, and reached Paris on the 20th of June.

65. After vainly endeavoring to escape to America, Napoleon gave himself up to the captain of the English war-ship *Bellerophon*. The decision finally taken concerning him was, that he should be confined for life on the lonely island of St. Helena. This was carried out; and on that distant rock in the South Atlantic, the conqueror of Europe died on the 5th of May 1821.

End of Napoleon's career.

66. Louis XVIII. now resumed the crown of France, and peace was formally concluded by a second *Treaty of Paris*. This treaty made

provision for a renewal of the *Congress of Vienna* for the general settlement of the affairs of Europe. Holland and Belgium were united into one kingdom. Norway was added to Sweden. Switzerland was declared independent. Hanover was made a kingdom.

Second Treaty of Paris.

67. The long period of war had greatly increased the national debt, which had grown from less than £300,000,000 in 1793 to nearly £900,000,000 in 1815. The burden of heavy taxation was aggravated by bad harvests, and the stagnation of trade consequent on the impoverishment of all the European countries. This state of things gave rise to much popular discontent, occasionally manifesting itself in acts of violence. The return of peace also revived the desire for parliamentary reform, which Pitt at the beginning of his career had sought to gratify. The Government, instead of seeking to redress the real grievances of the nation, sought to stifle criticism by the adoption of arbitrary measures. During the year 1817 the *Habeas Corpus Act* was suspended, and Englishmen were liable to be arrested and imprisoned without any opportunity for remonstrance.

Public distress.

68. In November 1817, the nation suffered a grievous loss in the death of the Princess Charlotte, only child of the King's eldest son and heir. This amiable Princess had been married the year before to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, afterwards King of Belgium. Her untimely death cast a gloom over the entire nation.

Death of Princess Charlotte.

69. The aged King himself died on the 29th of January 1820, in the sixtieth year of his reign. Since the year 1810 he had been permanently insane, and his son George, Prince of Wales, had performed the duties of sovereign with the title of *Prince Regent*.

Death of George III.

70. The protracted wars of this long reign have left but little space for the record of domestic events not of a strictly political character. The reign of George III. was pre-eminently a period of social improvement and scientific progress. Gas came into use in 1807. The steam-engine, the spinning-frame, and the safety-lamp, have made immortal the names of James Watt, Sir Richard Arkwright, and Sir Humphrey Davy. In the region of humanitarian reform, we find John Howard freeing our prison system from the grossest abuses; Thomas Clarkson and William Wilberforce abolishing the slave-trade, and preparing the way for the future extinction of slavery itself; Sir Samuel Romilly and other distinguished jurists removing from our penal laws extremo and cruel punishments worthy only of a barbarous age. It was in this reign, too, that Josiah Wedgwood gave to pottery its important place among the manufactures of England, and that Dr. Jenner stayed the ravages of

Events of reign.

small-pox by the discovery of *vaccination*. Captain Cook in the Pacific, and Captains Ross and Parry in the Arctic Ocean, kept up the credit of England for maritime exploration.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.—GEORGE IV.
1820–1830 A.D.

Accession and character of George IV.

1. As the new King had already acted for ten years as Prince Regent, it was not to be expected that his accession to the throne, as King in *fact* as well as in *name*, would produce any marked change in the condition of affairs. George IV. was at the time of his coronation fifty-eight years of age. Scarcely any of our English Kings have presented in their characters fewer points to attract the admiration of their subjects. In youth his appearance was prepossessing. This, added to his graceful manners, earned for him from flatterers the designation of "the first gentleman in Europe." But, alas! that which was pleasing in George was all on the outside; and even this faded away as years passed on. His early life was spent in a constant whirl of dissipation and sensual excitement. He contracted enormous debts, by which he was kept in a state of perpetual annoyance, and which oftener than once the nation had to disgrace itself by paying. George III., though not a brilliant King, had by his personal virtues secured for the throne the general respect of the public: his son and successor, by the flagrant immoralities of his life, turned from him the love and confidence of all the better elements of the nation.

Cato Street Conspiracy.

2. Within a month of the accession of George IV. a conspiracy was formed to murder the Cabinet Ministers while dining together, and to excite a general insurrection during the consequent confusion. The conspirators held their meetings in a house in Cato Street, London, and the scheme is therefore known as the *Cato Street Conspiracy*. The movement was confined to a few ignorant men of humble station, under the guidance of a desperate, designing agitator named Arthur Thistlewood. Thistlewood was betrayed by one of his subordinates, and with four others was summarily executed on the first of May 1820.

Trial of Queen Caroline.

3. While George IV. was Prince of Wales, he had married the Princess Caroline of Brunswick. This union proved to be a most unhappy one. Even if it be admitted that the Princess was sometimes imprudent, we must bear in mind that no wife, however faithful and devoted, could live happily with such a husband as George. They separated as early

as 1797, and since 1814 Caroline had resided abroad. On her husband's accession, the Queen returned to England and claimed her rights. Instead of these being accorded her, a *Bill of Pains and Penalties* was introduced in the House of Lords in July 1820, with a view to deprive her of all rights as Queen-Consort, and at the same time to divorce her from the King. Henry Brougham, afterwards Lord-Chancellor, defended her at the bar of the House of Lords with remarkable eloquence and at least equal boldness. A small majority of nine was secured for her conviction, but the ministers felt it prudent to let the matter drop. During and after the trial the current of popular feeling ran strongly in favor of the Queen, who was regarded as a persecuted woman. In July 1821, she made an unwise attempt to enter Westminster Abbey, on the occasion of the King's coronation, but was denied admission. In less than a month afterwards she died.

Mr. Canning.

4. Though no favorite of George IV., the celebrated Mr. Canning became virtual leader of affairs in 1822. In calling this able man to his Cabinet, the King was forced to waive his personal scruples. Mr. Canning distinguished himself by the sympathy he displayed for the cause of constitutional freedom in other countries, and for the earnest support given to the cause of *Catholic Emancipation*,—that is, the removal of the obstacles which prevented Catholics from sitting in Parliament and filling public offices generally. He did not become Prime Minister until 1827, and he died the same year. Previously, however, while acting as Foreign Secretary, he had recognized the independence of the South American Republics, and had sent an army into Portugal to prevent the Spaniards from interfering with the government of that country. Austria, Russia, and Prussia, who were all in alliance with England, had entered into an *Holy Alliance*, by which they bound themselves to interfere in the affairs of all countries in which a revolutionary spirit might be displayed. Mr. Canning, in the name of England, protested against this, and asserted the principle of *non-interference* in the internal government of foreign states.

Catholic Emancipation.

5. We have already seen that during the reign of George III. some of the restrictions imposed on Roman Catholics by the penal laws of Elizabeth had been removed. The laws making it illegal to attend Catholic worship had been first *winked at*, and then formally *repealed*. Provision was also made by which Catholics could serve in the army and navy; but they were still debarred from entering Parliament and from filling any office of State. At the beginning of the century, Pitt had earnestly endeavored to sweep away all these restrictions, and to place Catholic and Protestant on a common basis of political equality. The opposition of George III., who alleged that the passage of such a measure would involve a violation of his coronation oath, held in check Pitt's

wise and comprehensive policy. The question of *Catholic Emancipation* now pressed itself for solution on the statesmen of George IV.'s reign.

6. In Ireland naturally the existing restrictions on Catholics were felt to be an intolerable grievance. There Daniel O'Connell, a man of intrepid spirit, and possessing remarkable gifts of oratory, organized the *Catholic Association* for the purpose of conducting such an agitation as would result in the removal of all disabilities from his countrymen and co-religionists. O'Connell received subscriptions to aid his objects from Irishmen in all parts of the world, and at home had such influence that he was elected Member of Parliament for the County of Clare while as yet it was not lawful for him to take his seat in the House of Commons. We have seen that Canning, who favored emancipation, died in 1827. In 1827 a Ministry came into power under the leadership of the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel, on the express policy of maintaining the existing restrictions on Catholics. But soon the Duke, who was a statesman of a practical cast of mind, saw that it was useless to oppose the inevitable. Early in 1828, Lord John Russell carried through Parliament a Bill repealing the *Test* and *Corporation Acts*. Then for the first time were Catholics and Protestant Dissenters permitted to hold offices in corporations; but the former were still excluded from Parliament by the *Papists Disabling Act* of 1678, which required every peer and every member of the House of Commons to abjure the leading doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church.

Daniel O'Connell.

7. In 1829, Sir Robert Peel, the Home Secretary, introduced the celebrated *Catholic Emancipation Act*, by which Roman Catholics became qualified to sit in Parliament and to hold any civil office except the regency, the chancellorships of England and Ireland, and the lord-lieutenantship of the latter country. The last-named office was removed from the list of exceptions in 1867, and has since been filled by a Catholic. Catholic emancipation was vehemently opposed by many zealous Protestants, but there are few now of any creed who do not recognize it as a wise and righteous measure.

Catholic Emancipation Act.

8. During the reign of George IV. occurred the memorable struggle of the Greeks to free themselves from the Turkish yoke. As early as 1824, the great poet Byron threw himself into this contest, and died at Missolonghi a victim to his own ardor. In 1827 the Turks captured Athens, and the cause of Greek independence seemed lost. At this juncture, England, France, and Russia, Powers which sympathized with Greece each for reasons of its own, sent a combined fleet into the Levant for the protection of the endangered country. Through some misunderstanding, before the actual declaration of war, a conflict ensued between the allied fleet

Battle of Navarino.

and that of Turkey, in October 1827. This battle, which was fought in the harbor of Navarino, on the south-west coast of the Morea, resulted in the total destruction of the Turkish fleet, and the subsequent acknowledgment of the independence of Greece.

Death of George IV.

9. George IV. died on the 26th of June 1830, in his sixty-eighth year. His influence on public affairs was not very marked. During his reign he visited both Ireland and Scotland, where he was received with outward demonstrations of loyalty, but his character prevented the public from attaching very much weight to his professions of interest in their welfare.

Events of reign.

10. This reign was marked by continued improvement in the laws, especially in those relating to crime. Forgery ceased to be a capital offence. The *Metropolitan Police Act* of Sir Robert Peel led to the formation of police forces in all the cities and chief towns of the kingdom. Commercial matters excited great interest, and trade was freed from some of the shackles which had previously hampered it. Mr. Huskisson, President of the Board of Trade, ardently devoted himself to the securing of important changes in the Navigation Laws. It was no longer unlawful for artisans to emigrate, and for machinery to be exported from the kingdom. In 1824 a great rage for speculation in stocks seized on the nation. This resulted in a disastrous financial panic the following year, in which a great number of banks closed their doors, and hundreds of merchants became insolvent.

CHAPTER XLIX.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.—WILLIAM IV. 1830–1837 A.D.

Accession and character of William IV.

1. The death of the Princess Charlotte, the only child of George IV., in 1817, and of Frederick Duke of York, the second son of George III., without issue, in 1827, left the succession to the throne to William, Duke of Clarence, third son of George III. As William IV. had served in the navy, he became popularly known as the *Sailor King*. He began to reign at the advanced age of sixty-four. In 1818 he had married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, by whom he had two daughters, both of whom died in infancy. William was plain in person, undignified in his bearing, and exceedingly blunt in his manners. At the same time his sincerity and frankness made him a very popular King.

2. The great question attracting public attention at the time of William IV.'s accession was *parliamentary reform*. Large towns and

cities had grown up within the preceding century which were yet without any representatives in Parliament to look after their interests, while many old decayed boroughs almost without inhabitants retained their ancient right of sending members to Parliament. The latter were generally under the control of neighboring landed proprietors, who used them like any other description of property. Hence they were called *pocket boroughs*. The *right of franchise*, a privilege of voting at elections, was limited to a small number of persons in most places. It was felt that a uniform system should be adopted, and that the right to vote should be extended to a much greater number of persons. The Duke of Wellington, who was Prime Minister when William IV. came to the throne, was strongly opposed to any change in the constitution of Parliament; but the House of Commons elected in 1830 was on the whole favorable to a moderate reform. In 1831 the Ministry was obliged to resign, and a new Cabinet was formed under the leadership of Earl Grey, with Lord John Russell as second in command. A Bill essentially altering the system of parliamentary representation was at once introduced by the latter; but as some of its details encountered unlooked-for opposition, Earl Grey obtained the King's consent to a dissolution, and appealed again to the constituencies.

Parliamentary reform.

3. The watchword of the reformers at the elections of 1831 was, *the Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill.* The elections resulted in a decisive victory for Earl Grey and his party; and when Lord John Russell re-introduced his Reform Bill, it passed the House of Commons by a majority of 111. It was, however, rejected by the House of Lords, and this was a signal for disturbances and riots in various parts of the country, especially at Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol. On the reassembling of Parliament, the House again passed the Bill; but anticipating renewed difficulty with the Lords, the Cabinet resigned. It soon appeared that the Duke of Wellington was unable to form a Ministry, on which the King recalled Earl Grey and his colleagues, when it transpired that the restored Premier had obtained the King's consent to the creation of such a number of new peers as would secure the passage of the Reform Bill. The Duke of Wellington, in dread of that event, caused a sufficient number of his supporters to absent themselves from the division to enable the measure to pass the House of Lords. *The Reform Bill of 1832* became law on the 7th of June 1832.

The Reform Bill of 1832.

4. By the Reform Bill, 56 boroughs, each having less than 2,000 inhabitants, and formerly returning 111 members, were totally disfranchised. Thirty boroughs, having less than 4,000 inhabitants, had each its representation reduced from 2 to 1; while two united boroughs, Weymouth and Melcombe-Regis, previously returning 4 members, were now to send but

Details of the Reform Bill.

two. Thus 143 borough members were set free for distribution. Of these, 65 were added to the county representation, many counties being subdivided for electoral purposes; 22 absolutely new boroughs were created, while some of the larger towns had their representation increased to 2, 3, and even 4 members. Scotland received 53 representatives instead of 45, and Ireland 105 instead of 100. The right of voting in the boroughs was extended to all householders paying a yearly rental of £10, or occupying property rated at that sum; in the counties, freeholds worth 40 shillings a year, copyholds of £10 per annum, and leaseholds of the annual value of £50, conferred the same privilege. The Reform Bill much increased the power of the great middle class of traders, small farmers, and professional men.

Abolition of slavery.

5. The first Act of the reformed Parliament, which met in February 1833, was to abolish slavery throughout the British dominions. A measure to that effect had for many years been introduced almost annually by the celebrated William Wilberforce, member for Yorkshire; but the influence of wealthy planters, interested in the sugar trade of the West Indies, had prevented its passage. Wilberforce died just as his favorite Bill was at length passing through Parliament. The measure appropriated £20,000,000 to the owners of the slaves thus set free. The enfranchised blacks numbered nearly seven hundred thousand.

Death of William IV.

6. William IV. died on the 20th of June 1837, in the seventy-third year of his age. His children having died in infancy, he left the succession to the throne to his niece, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, only child of his deceased brother, Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.

Chief events.

7. William IV.'s reign is memorable for the opening of the first railway for passenger traffic. This was the line between Liverpool and Manchester. The celebration was saddened by the accidental killing by the locomotive-engine of Mr. Huskisson, the celebrated financier. Besides the great measure freeing the slaves, much useful domestic legislation was effected by the reformed Parliament. The Poor Laws were amended in important particulars. By the *Municipal Reform Act*, the rights of self-government were conferred on the ratepayers of towns and cities. The *Marriage Act* swept away another relic of religious intolerance by permitting Catholics and Dissenters "to marry and to be given in marriage" in their own chapels according to their own rites. A system of national education was provided for Ireland, and an attempt, only partially successful, was made to institute reforms in the same direction in England. The reign of William IV. is also noted for an unsuccessful agitation carried on by Daniel O'Connell with a view to obtain a *repeal of the Union* between England and Ireland. The chief foreign events in which our country was interested were the separation

of Holland and Belgium, and the *Second French Revolution*, which resulted in the dethronement of Charles X. and the accession of Louis Philippe.

CHAPTER L.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.—VICTORIA.
1837 A.D.

1. Queen Victoria had just completed her eighteenth year when she began her long and glorious reign. Her excellent natural abilities had received a careful training under the direction of her mother, the Dowager-Duchess of Kent. From her twelfth year, her education had had special reference to the regal responsibilities to which it was seen that she was destined. Whether she be regarded as a woman or as a ruler, the character of Queen Victoria has worthily won the esteem and admiration not only of her own subjects, but of the whole civilized world. She has proved herself a queen, a wife, and a mother, of whom any nation might well be proud.

Accession and character of Queen Victoria.

2. As King of Hanover, William IV. was succeeded by his eldest surviving brother Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, fifth son of George III. This was because the law of Hanover did not allow the succession of females to the throne. The principle of excluding women from the crown is known in Europe as the *Salic Law*, a term derived from the *Salian* Franks, who incorporated it in their tribal statutes as early as the fifth century. The separation of the two countries was very acceptable to the people of England. Hanover no longer exists as an independent kingdom, having been absorbed by Prussia in 1866.

Separation of the Crowns of England and Hanover.

3. During the later part of William the Fourth's reign Canada had been in a very unsettled state, owing partly to the conflict of races, but chiefly to disagreements between the executive and legislative departments of the Government. In Lower Canada an insurrection broke out under the leadership of Papineau; while about the same time (December 1837) William Lyon M'Kenzie, a disaffected Scotsman, excited a rebellion at Toronto, in the Upper Province. Both movements were easily put down by loyal colonists, aided by regular troops. Some real grievances were at the bottom of these outbreaks, and to these the Home Government proceeded to give attention. The Earl of Durham was sent out as High Commissioner, and his report did much to enlighten the British authorities as to the true state of affairs in Canada. By the *Canada Union Act* of 1840 the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were re-united.

Rebellion in Canada.

4. In England much discontent prevailed throughout the years 1837 and 1838, as the result of dull trade and bad harvests. Soon the popular dissatisfaction took shape in an organized band of agitators called the *Chartists*. The name is derived from the *People's Charter*, a document in which a number of constitutional changes were formally demanded. The six *points* of the People's Charter were:—(1.) Universal suffrage; (2.) Vote by ballot; (3.) Annual Parliaments; (4.) Payment of members of Parliament; (5.) Abolition of the property qualification for members of the House of Commons; (6.) Equal electoral districts, instead of greatly varying constituencies as heretofore. Serious rioting followed the refusal of Parliament to consider the People's Charter. It is worthy of note that two of the *points* have been since conceded. Voting by ballot is now legally established in Great Britain, while the property qualification of members is no longer insisted on. There is a tendency also towards the equalization of electoral districts.

The Chartists.

5. For some time the principles of *Free Trade* had been making progress in England. By Free Trade is meant the doing away with duties on imported goods, and thus reducing their cost, and consequently that of home products. In 1838, at Manchester, was formed the celebrated *Anti-Corn-Law League*, with Richard Cobden and John Bright as its leaders. The special object of this organization was to agitate against the *Corn Laws*, which imposed heavy duties on foreign corn, and thus made bread dear to the working classes.

Anti-Corn-Law League.

6. On the 10th of February 1840, Queen Victoria was married to her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg Gotha. Never did female sovereign contract a marriage more worthy of herself and of her people. The Prince Consort, to use a title bestowed at a later period, was a young gentleman of unblemished morals, excellent talents, and highly-finished education. Above all, Prince Albert proved to be a man of rare discretion, capable of giving his royal wife the sagest advice in trying circumstances. Neither should it be forgotten that he was a most enthusiastic promoter of science, art, and every form of social improvement.

Marriage of Queen Victoria.

7. The earlier years of Victoria's reign were disturbed by several wars of some importance. These included the *First Chinese* or *Opium War*, the *War in Syria*, and the *First Afghan War*. The Chinese War grew out of the determination of British merchants to force the opium trade on China. It ended in 1840 by the *Peace of Nanking*, through which England acquired Hong-Kong, and an indemnity of £4,000,000. Five Chinese ports were also opened to the trade of foreign nations. The *War in Syria* had for its object the expulsion of rebellious Egyptians from Syria in the interest

Wars.

of Turkey. The *First Afghan War* raged from 1839 to 1842. This war brought little glory to England. It was undertaken to prevent a prince favorable to Russia from ruling over Afghanistan. An expedition under Sir John Keane gained some successes, but these were followed by the treacherous murder of a large number of British officers, and by a retreat in which untold sufferings were endured and many lives lost. At length Generals Pollock, Sale, and Nott retrieved these disasters by some splendid victories. The British abandoned Afghanistan, after the capture of Cabul and the demolition of its fortifications, in September 1842.

8. In Ireland, Daniel O'Connell continued his agitation for a *repeal of the Union* between England and Ireland. Large sums of money were collected to further this object, and the fund thus raised was called *Repeal Rent*. Monster meetings, accompanied by considerable disturbance, were held at Tara, Clontarf, and other places. The "Great Agitator," as O'Connell was called, was arrested, tried on a charge of conspiracy and sedition, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment. The House of Lords set aside this conviction, and O'Connell was released. He died at Genoa in 1847.

Daniel O'Connell.

9. In 1843, a memorable ecclesiastical event occurred in Scotland. A conflict of long standing between the General Assembly of the Established Church and the civil tribunals terminated in the secession of several hundred ministers and a large number of people from the Church, and the formation of an independent religious body called the *Free Church of Scotland*. At the head of this movement was Dr. Thomas Chalmers, one of the greatest of religious orators.

Free Church of Scotland.

10. The year 1845 was marked by the total destruction of the potato crop in Ireland by a new and deadly disease affecting both the vines and the tubers of that useful vegetable. As the potato formed the staple food of the great mass of the people, much suffering resulted from this visitation. The evil culminated in a terrible famine in 1847, which led to the depopulation of wide districts. A deadly pestilence followed in the track of the famine, slaying the people by thousands. Public sympathy was excited by this sad occurrence both in England and in America. Parliament voted large sums of money for relief, while private benefactions were also generously contributed. Grain-laden ships from America showed in a practical way the kindly feeling of the Western world. In two years the population of Ireland is supposed to have been diminished by nearly two millions.

Famine in Ireland.

11. In 1841, the Whig Ministry, which, under different leaders, had been in power since 1832, was defeated. Sir Robert Peel, the leader of the Tories, or *Conservatives*, as they now called themselves, became

Prime Minister, with a majority of eighty in the House of Commons.

Repeal of the Corn Laws.

The Anti-Corn-Law League still continued its agitation, notwithstanding the overthrow its principles had sustained at the elections of 1841. Gradually the arguments of Cobden produced an influence on the views of Sir Robert Peel, an influence which was greatly strengthened by the famine in Ireland and a very bad harvest in England. Sir Robert tried first to shift the responsibility of overturning the Corn Laws on his former political opponents; but having failed in this, he resolved in 1846 to deal with the question himself by a Bill for the *Repeal of the Corn Laws*, which passed Parliament by large majorities. This memorable event led to the breaking up in a short time of the Conservative Government, a large section of the party, under the leadership of Benjamin Disraeli, adhering to the old policy of protecting native industries and products. This section of Conservatives took the name of *Protectionists*.

The Sikh War.

12. In 1843, Scinde, a district in the north-west of India, around the mouths of the Indus, was occupied by British troops under Sir Charles Napier, and after several severe contests was permanently annexed to the Empire. Then followed a war, or rather a series of wars, with the Sikhs, a warlike people inhabiting the Punjab, a large country lying between Scinde and the sources of the Indus. The chief battles were fought at Ferozeshah on December 21st, 1845, and at Sobraon on February 10th, 1846. In both our troops were victorious, though the Sikhs fought with great bravery. Lahore, the capital of the Punjab, was soon occupied, while the remnant of the Sikh army surrendered to Sir Hugh Gough, the British commander. A few years later, the Sikhs revolted, but were effectually subdued by the brilliant and decisive victory of Goojerat, gained by Lord Gough on the 21st of February 1847. The Punjab was then permanently annexed to the British Empire in India.

Third French Revolution.

13. In 1848, France was thrown into confusion by a third Revolution. This movement was occasioned by the unwise resistance of the Government to proposals of reform. Louis Philippe, the King, fled as a refugee to England. A short-lived Republic was founded on the ruins of the Monarchy. Louis Napoleon, son of the ex-King of Holland, and nephew of the great Napoleon, was elected President by an immense majority over General Cavaignac, his chief competitor.

End of Chartism.

14. The same year (1848) is noted for the last attempt at public demonstration by the English Chartists. It was intended to overawe Parliament by a monster procession in the streets of London; but through the excellent military arrangements of the Duke of Wellington, seconded by the efforts of

loyal citizens, the movement, instead of exciting terror, excited only ridicule.

15. The Irish movement for repeal of the Union did not end with the death of the celebrated O'Connell. The leading agitators now were Smith O'Brien and John Mitchell. The latter edited, in a violent but clever manner, a paper called the *United Irishman*, devoted to the cause of repeal. A rising was planned for the 19th of July 1847. It was, however, anticipated by the Government, which sent a *posse* of constables to arrest O'Brien and his associates. This they effected after a brief show of resistance from the small force surrounding the Irish leaders. O'Brien, who was a man of high character but weak judgment, was, with three others, convicted of high treason and condemned to death; but the sentence was afterwards commuted to transportation.

Young Ireland Party.

16. The year 1849 was marked by a further movement in freeing the trade of the country from artificial restrictions. The *Navigation Laws*, which put a premium on carrying goods in British vessels, had in some shape been in force since 1672, when they were enacted through jealousy of Dutch commerce. They had been altered in 1822, and were now completely repealed.

Repeal of the Navigation Laws.

17. Shortly after carrying his Bill for the Repeal of the Corn Laws, Sir Robert Peel, the great Conservative leader, had been driven from office by a union of those members of his own party who favored Protection, and his Whig, or Liberal, opponents. He was succeeded in the office of Prime Minister by Lord John Russell, the champion of the Reform Bill of 1832. On the 29th of June 1850, Sir Robert was thrown from his horse while taking an airing in Hyde Park, and received so severe an injury that he died four days afterwards.

Death of Sir Robert Peel.

18. In the year 1851 was held, in Hyde Park, London, the first of those *Great Exhibitions of the works of art and industry of all nations*, which have so creditably distinguished modern times, and which have done so much to promote good feeling among the different nations of the world. This grand event, the success of which surpassed all expectations, was due to the sagacious mind of Prince Albert. The Exhibition was held in an immense building of glass and iron, designed by Sir Joseph Paxton. The *Crystal Palace*, as it was called, covered twenty acres, and sheltered beneath its roof some of the largest trees in Hyde Park.

Great Exhibition of 1851.

19. The chief events of the year 1852 were the defeat of the Russell Ministry and the accession to office of a Conservative Government, led by the Earl of Derby and Mr. Disraeli; a war with the Burmese, which resulted in annexing Pegu to the British possessions in the East; and particu-

Events of the year 1852.

larly the death of the Duke of Wellington, who died at Walmer Castle, on the 14th of September, at the advanced age of eighty-three. No expense was spared to make the interment of the "Victor of Waterloo" worthy of the nation which owed so much to the genius and courage of Arthur Wellesley. Before the year ended, the Conservative Administration retired from office, and was succeeded by a Liberal Cabinet, led by the Earl of Aberdeen, but including several followers of the late Sir Robert Peel, conspicuous among whom was Mr. Gladstone, himself destined at different times to direct the destinies of the Empire.

The Russian War.

20. The year 1854 was noted for the breaking out of the first European war of importance after the general pacification in 1815. The Czar of Russia, as Head of the Greek Church, demanded full control over all members of that Church residing in Turkey. When this was refused, he prepared for war, and actually invaded Turkish territory in July 1853. England and France—which latter state had exchanged a republican for an imperial form of government, with Louis Napoleon as Emperor, under the title of Napoleon III.—looked with great suspicion on this movement of Russia. They remonstrated, and entered into negotiations; but while these were in progress, Russia actually bombarded Sinope, a Turkish port on the Black Sea. This led to the declaration of war against Russia by both England and France in the spring of 1854.

Campaign in the Crimea.

21. In the autumn of 1854 an allied English and French force of fifty thousand reached the Russian peninsula known as the Crimea. The English were under the command of Lord Raglan, who had fought at Waterloo, and had also served as Wellington's private secretary. The French leader was Marshal St. Arnaud, a general of experience. The grand object of attack was the renowned Russian fortress of Sebastopol.

Battle of the Alma.

22. A powerful Russian army had taken possession of the heights overlooking a small stream called the Alma, to block the passage of the Allied army as it marched southward towards Sebastopol. The Battle of the Alma was fought on the 26th of September 1854. Both the French and the British gallantly attacked the enemy in his superior position, and each succeeded in carrying the heights before them. The British had the more difficult place to scale, and owed their victory largely to the steadfast courage of the Highland Brigade, under Sir Colin Campbell. The Russian general, Prince Menschikoff, retreated towards Sebastopol. The Allies, after a few days' rest, marched forward in the same direction.

Sebastopol.

23. Sebastopol was the chief naval arsenal of Russia, and was strongly fortified by the skill of the great engineer Todleben. It was the design of the Allies to invest the fortress both by land and by sea; but unfortunately their ships could

not approach near enough to do much execution, owing to obstructions placed in the harbor. It was also found that the Russian outfit of artillery was far superior to that of the Allies. The base of operations for the English was Balaklava harbor, seven miles south of Sebastopol, while the French head-quarters were at Kamiesch Bay, three and a half miles distant from the fortress, in a south-westerly direction.

Battle of Balaklava.

24. The Battle of Balaklava, fought on October 25th, 1854, was due to a Russian attempt to raise the siege of Sebastopol by an attack on the English position. The attempt was successful so far as to carry three redoubts manned by Turkish troops; but a fourth was firmly held by the English soldiers who defended it. The Russians then pressed on Balaklava in almost overwhelming numbers; but after a desperate struggle they were forced back to their old positions. Sir Colin Campbell's Highlanders again distinguished themselves, but were nobly supported by the Enniskillen Dragoons and the Light Horse Brigade of lancers and hussars. The most notable incident was that celebrated by Tennyson in his famous ode, "Charge of the Light Brigade." Through some mistake in connection with an order of Lord Raglan, the brigade of cavalry, under Lord Cardigan, numbering only six hundred, rode full on the Russian guns and the main body of the Russian army. With incredible bravery the "Six Hundred" cut their way through the serried ranks, sabring the artillerymen at the guns, and then hewed their way back again, "stormed at by shot and shell;"—"but not the six hundred," for two-thirds of their number had succumbed in the unequal fight.

Battle of Inkermann.

25. Another desperate encounter took place on the 5th of November. This is known as the Battle of Inkermann, fought on the extreme right of the British position. The Russians came on with great secrecy and in immense numbers. Nothing but the determined courage of the few soldiers who first took the alarm saved our army from destruction. The front was held safe till the troops generally were called into action. French reinforcements poured in, and before nightfall a glorious victory was won.

The winter of 1854-55.

26. During the ensuing winter the Allied troops endured great suffering. Through wretched mismanagement the English soldiers particularly were half-clothed and half-starved. All through the dreary months they had to keep their positions in the damp trenches, and guard against surprises from the sly and crafty Russians. It was during this winter that Florence Nightingale made her name immortal by tending the sick and wounded in the hospital at Scutari.

27. In January 1855, Parliament passed a vote of censure on Lord

Aberdeen's Ministry for its negligent and inefficient conduct of the war. The Premier resigned, and was succeeded by Lord Palmerston, who at once infused new vigor into the management of the contest. About the same time the cause of the Allies was strengthened by the accession of Sardinia, which sent six thousand men into the field, under General La Marmora. **Change.**

28. In the spring of 1855 active operations were re-commenced in the Crimea. General Canrobert was now the French leader. The second bombardment of Sebastopol lasted from April 9th to 12th. Like the first, it failed in its object, though it enabled the siege-works to be moved nearer the doomed fortress. The third bombardment began on June 6th, and was continued the following day. This resulted in the capture of some important outlying positions. On the 17th and 18th, the fourth bombardment took place, the French attacking the *Malakoff*, and the English the *Redan*, the two main towers or forts. Both assaults were unsuccessful. Ten days later, Lord Raglan died of cholera, and was succeeded by General Simpson. The enemy now made desperate efforts to raise the siege, but were successfully held in check. The fifth bombardment, on the 17th of August, showed that the end was approaching. On the 5th of September the sixth and final bombardment began. Such a terrific fire was kept up for several days that immense damage was done to the Russian works, while the daily loss in the garrison and town is estimated to have been two thousand five hundred men. On the 8th a grand assault was made both on the Malakoff and on the Redan. The French took and held the former, Marshal Pelissier (who had superseded General Canrobert) supporting the assault with no less than thirty thousand men. The English assault on the Redan failed through bad management, General Simpson having attempted a heavier task than that of Pelissier with only one-tenth the number of men. The same evening, the Russians, seeing that further defence was hopeless, abandoned Sebastopol, after blowing up the forts and sinking their ships. The Crimean War was now virtually at an end, though peace was not concluded till the following March. **Capture of Sebastopol.**

29. The events of the Russian War outside of the Crimea must be briefly noticed. In 1854, an English fleet commanded by Sir Charles Napier (cousin of his namesake, the hero of Scinde) entered the Baltic, but found itself unable to attack the impregnable fortress of Cronstadt. The next year the same fleet, under Admiral Dundas, bombarded Sveaborg successfully. The same year the fleet which afterwards operated at Sebastopol made an unsuccessful attack on Odessa. In 1855, an expedition into the Sea of Azof captured Kertch. Military operations were also carried on in Armenia, among which the gallant defence of Kars by General Sir Fenwick Williams deserves honorable mention. **Other events of the war.**

30. Peace was concluded by the Treaty of Paris, signed March 30th, 1856. The Russian protectorate over Moldavia and Wallachia was abolished; the free navigation of the Danube was secured; and the Christian subjects of the Sultan of Turkey were placed under the protection of the five contracting parties—England, France, Russia, Austria, and Sardinia.

Treaty of Paris.

31. A quarrel between the Chinese police and the crew of a small native ship flying the British flag originated the *Second Chinese War* in 1856. An apology for the conduct of the police was demanded of the Chinese Government by Sir John Bowring, British Minister at Hong-Kong, but was refused. Canton was shelled by our fleet under Admiral Seymour in October 1856, and was finally captured in December 1857. Peace was restored by the *Treaty of Tien-tsin* in June 1858, between England, France, and China. Five new ports, including Formosa and Hainan, were opened for trade, and British subjects were to be admitted by means of passports to any part of China. Christians also were to be protected in the exercise of their religion.

Second Chinese War.

32. In 1857, the memorable *Indian Mutiny* broke out. At that time, of an army in India of 300,000 men, only 43,000 were British, the rest being natives, either Hindoos or Mahometans. The real causes of the Mutiny had been slowly operating for many years, but its immediate occasion was the introduction of a new rifle with greased cartridges. A report was circulated among the native soldiers that the grease used in the cartridges was a mixture of cow's fat and hog's lard. The cow was held sacred by the Hindoos, and the hog was religiously repulsive to the Mahometans. It was given out that the cartridge in question had been specially prepared to cause a loss of caste to the native troops. The rebellion began on May 10th, 1857, at Meerut, near Delhi. The native or "Sepoy" soldiers composing the 3rd Bengal Cavalry and the 11th and 20th regiments of the line murdered their officers, and committed most brutal outrages on helpless women and children. The mutineers seized Lucknow and Delhi, and were followed in their revolt by most of the Bengal regiments. At Delhi, a descendant of the Great Mogul was proclaimed Emperor of India. The armies in the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay in general remained obedient to orders, while Sir John Lawrence promptly suppressed an attempted rising in the Punjab. By June 1857, fifty thousand native soldiers in the Bengal Presidency were in revolt.

Indian Mutiny.

33. At Cawnpore about nine hundred Europeans, of whom two-thirds were women and children, were besieged by Sepoys under Nana Sahib, Rajah of Bithoor. On June 27th, 1857, General Wheeler, the officer in command, surrendered on condition that the Europeans should be allowed to retire

Massacres of Cawnpore.

peacefully to Allahabad. As the English were leaving Cawnpore, in accordance with this arrangement, they were treacherously attacked by the Sepoys, and the men, with few exceptions, were foully massacred. The survivors, including most of the women and children, were taken back and flung into prison. General Havelock with a small force marched from Allahabad for the purpose of rescuing Cawnpore and the unfortunate prisoners. Gallantly cutting his way through opposing forces, Havelock reached the doomed city only to find that the villanous Nana Sahib had perpetrated a second massacre, if possible worse than the first. Forced to abandon Cawnpore, the miscreant gave orders that all the European prisoners should be murdered. This hideous command was literally executed, and on entering Cawnpore Havelock found a huge well filled to the top with the yet quivering corpses. It is little wonder that in future battles the English soldiers showed little mercy to the rebellious Sepoys. Unfortunately Nana Sahib was never captured, and his subsequent career has defied all attempts to trace it out.

Siege of Lucknow.

34. Havelock hastened from Cawnpore to relieve Lucknow, where a small European force was holding out against a powerful body of Sepoy besiegers. After protracted delays and much terrible fighting against fearful odds, he succeeded in reaching Lucknow. Forcing his way through the town into the Residency, he joined his beleaguered countrymen. He could do nothing, however, but share their fate. A second expedition for the relief of Lucknow under Sir Colin Campbell, who had been appointed Commander-in-chief, reached the place on the 14th of November, and fought its way in on the 17th. The garrison, with the non-combatants, women, and children, were now brought out in safety, leaving Lucknow, however, in possession of the rebels. Sir Henry Havelock died of disease a few days after the rescue.

Suppression of the Mutiny.

35. Delhi, the chief centre of revolt, was stormed shortly before the relief of Lucknow, and its King summarily shot. Lucknow was taken and its fortifications were destroyed by Campbell in March 1858. The capture of Bareilly in May of the same year was the last important event of the rebellion. The operations accompanying the final suppression of the Mutiny were carried on with great vigor by Sir Colin Campbell, who was rewarded with a peerage and the title of Lord Clyde.

Conspiracy Bill.

36. In 1858, the Palmerston Government introduced a *Conspiracy Bill* with the design of denying the right of asylum in England to persons conspiring to commit the crime of murder in foreign countries. This was done to please the Emperor of the French, whose life had been assailed by an Italian named Orsini, who had subsequently sought refuge in England. The Bill was defeated, and the Ministry was thus compelled to resign.

37. A Conservative Ministry, led by Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli, now came into power. Though it remained in office little more than a year, being defeated in 1859 on a measure affecting Parliamentary representation, considerable useful legislation was effected under the auspices of this Administration. We may note (1) the *India Bill*, by which the famous *East India Company* was abolished, and the government of the great Empire of India was transferred directly to the Crown; and (2) the removal of *Jewish disabilities*, by omitting from the oath taken by members of Parliament the words "on the true faith of a Christian." The latter measure allowed the wealthy Baron de Rothschild, who had been repeatedly elected by the city of London, to take his seat in Parliament. On the defeat of his Reform Bill in June 1859, Lord Derby again gave way to Lord Palmerston, who selected Mr. Gladstone as Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The Derby Administration.

38. Lord Palmerston retained the office of Premier until his death in 1865. During this period many domestic events of great importance occurred. Among these may be mentioned the commencement of the practice of enrolling *volunteer corps* for the defence of the country; the so-called *Cotton Famine*, or distress among the operatives in the cotton factories of Lancashire, consequent on the cutting off of the supply of cotton by the Civil War in America; the lamented death of the Prince-Consort in 1861; the marriage of the Prince of Wales in 1863 to the Princess Alexandra, daughter of the King of Denmark; and a *commercial treaty* with France, negotiated by the celebrated Richard Cobden.

Last Palmerston Administration.

39. Among the foreign events of this period was the *Third Chinese War*, in which England punished China for violating the terms of the Treaty of Tien-tsin. This was brought to an end by the *Treaty of Pekin* (October 24, 1859), in which the conditions of the previous treaty were ratified and further concessions were made to England. From 1861 to 1865 raged the famous *Civil War in the United States of America*, in respect to which our country endeavored to maintain a neutral attitude. An event occurred, however, which threatened for a time to disturb friendly relations between England and the Government at Washington. Messrs. Mason and Slidell, and two other gentlemen, agents of the Confederate or seceding States, were forcibly taken from an English mail steamer—the *Trent*—by a United States cruiser. England complained of this as a violation of international law, and when America hesitated to surrender the captured envoys, our Government prepared to enforce their liberation by arms. On reflection, the United States acknowledged the justice of our claim, and Messrs. Slidell and Mason were conveyed to Europe by a British man-of-war.

Foreign events.

40. In 1865 Lord Palmerston closed his long and distinguished career, dying at the age of eighty-one. He had commenced his official career as one of the Lords of the Admiralty in the Ministry of the Duke of Portland, formed in 1807. As a public man Lord Palmerston was noted for his patriotism, and for his eagerness to maintain untarnished the honor of England. He was succeeded in the premiership by Lord John Russell, whose Ministry was overthrown in June 1866, from its inability to carry a Reform Bill which it had introduced.

Third Administration of Lord Derby.

41. Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli now succeeded to office. Their third Administration was marked by two leading events—(1) the passage of the *Second Reform Bill* (1867), and (2) the *Abyssinian War*. By the second Reform Bill changes were introduced almost as sweeping as those effected by the celebrated measure of 1832. In *boroughs* the right of voting was extended to all householders rated for the relief of the poor, and to all lodgers whose premises, unfurnished, were worth £10 a year. In *counties* the franchise was given to all tenants paying £12 a year, instead of £50 as previously. Eleven English boroughs were totally disfranchised, while twenty-three others, with a population under 10,000, lost one member each. Twenty-two seats were created in new boroughs, while two members were given to the Scottish Universities, and one to London University. The counties were so redivided as to obtain twenty-eight new members. England, on the whole, *lost*, and Scotland *gained*, seven members.—The *Abyssinian War* (1868) was undertaken and successfully carried out for the purpose of liberating certain British subjects unlawfully seized and detained by Theodore, King of Abyssinia. In 1868 Lord Derby transferred the leadership of his Government to Mr. Disraeli, who soon dissolved Parliament in consequence of the adoption by the House of Commons of a resolution favoring the disestablishment of the Irish Church. The elections resulted in the defeat of the Government. Mr. Disraeli resigned, and Mr. Gladstone was recalled to office.

Mr. Gladstone's Administration, 1868-1874.

42. The new Prime Minister proceeded to carry out the policy outlined in the resolution above referred to. In 1869 an Act was passed for the *Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Irish Church*. By this measure the Protestant (Episcopal) Church of Ireland was cut off from all connection with the State and was put on a level with other religious bodies, though allowed to retain a portion of its endowed revenues. Irish archbishops and bishops ceased to sit in the House of Lords, while the grant long paid to the Catholic ecclesiastical college of Maynooth was withdrawn. In 1870 two important measures were enacted. One was the *Tenure of Land Act*, designed to put the relations between landlords and tenants in Ireland on a better footing. The other was that important piece of legislation generally known as

the *Elementary Education Act of 1870*. This Act, while to a certain extent recognizing voluntary effort in behalf of education, provided for the establishment of "public School Boards" in all parts of the country, while attendance at school, with reasonable limitations, was made compulsory. In 1872 *voting by ballot* was made the law for all parliamentary elections.

Alabama Claims.

43. In 1871 various matters of dispute between England and the United States were adjusted by the *Treaty of Washington*. Among the subjects thus disposed of were claims from the United States for compensation for damages done to American shipping by a Southern cruiser called the *Alabama*, which had been allowed to refit and obtain supplies in British ports. This point of dispute was referred to a *Board of Arbitration*, to sit at Geneva. When the Board met in 1872, it decided that a large sum was equitably due by the English Government, which, without allowing the justice of the award, promptly paid it.

Ashantee War.

44. In 1874, England was engaged in war with the King of Ashantee, in Western Africa, by whom our settlements on the coast of that continent were threatened. Under Sir Garnet Wolseley, our troops penetrated to Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, and destroyed it by fire. The object of the expedition was accomplished, and British power on the West Coast of Africa was placed on a firm basis.

Beaconsfield Administration, 1874-1880.

45. The general election held in 1874 resulted in the defeat of the Gladstone Administration. Mr. Disraeli, shortly afterwards created Earl of Beaconsfield, became Prime Minister for the second time. The chief measures passed by this Government were the *Licensing Act* and the *Public Worship Regulation Act*. During this period Great Britain was engaged in two wars, which, though of no great magnitude, were very vexatious. These were (1) the *Afghan War* (1878), originating in renewed jealousy of Russian influence in Afghanistan; and (2) the *Zulu War* (1878-9), fought for the purpose of compelling Cetewayo King of Zululand, in South Africa, to disarm and disband his army. Nothing occurred in the Afghan War which particularly needs recital; but in the war with the Zulus a great disaster befell the English at *Isandlana*, where about one thousand men were surprised and almost entirely cut off. Cetewayo was defeated in the Battle of Ulundi, and shortly afterwards captured. A melancholy incident of the Zulu War was the death of Prince Louis Napoleon, only son of Napoleon III. At his own request, he was allowed to join the campaign as a volunteer. He, with a small company, was surprised by the Zulus, and fell pierced by their assegais. Lord Beaconsfield signalized his administration by having conferred on the Queen the title of *Empress of India*.

46. Public opinion was much excited in England during the Beacons-

field Administration by the war which broke out in 1877 between Russia and Turkey, consequent on the revolt from the latter country of Bosnia and other provinces. When Constantinople was about to fall into the hands of Russia, England interfered by sending a powerful fleet through the Dardanelles. It was then agreed that the chief Powers of Europe should, through their representatives, meet at Berlin and settle the questions at issue between Russia and Turkey, affecting, as these did, the general peace and welfare of the Continent. The *Treaty of Berlin* (1878) is generally regarded by his friends as the great achievement of Lord Beaconsfield's life. England retained possession of Cyprus, previously ceded to her by Turkey, while a number of the Danubian provinces became altogether independent of the latter country. Russia received some important grants of territory in Asia Minor. Lord Beaconsfield's term of office was also marked by the purchase by England of a controlling influence in the Suez Canal, and the assumption of a protectorate over Egypt, which has since given the country much trouble.

Treaty of Berlin.

47. The general election of 1880 displaced the Beaconsfield Ministry and restored Mr. Gladstone to office. For some time much uneasiness had existed in Ireland, where a *Land League*, designed to secure for the Irish people possession of the soil, now owned by landlords generally residing in England, had acquired great influence under the leadership of Mr. Parnell and other Irish members of Parliament. As a measure of justice to Ireland, and with the view of counteracting the operations of the League, Mr. Gladstone introduced in 1881 a *Land Act for Ireland*, a measure intended to grant substantial relief to tenants, by making them to a large extent independent of their landlords. What the ultimate results of this Act may be cannot now be predicted. Unfortunately, instead of quieting the uneasiness which prevailed in Ireland, it had to be followed by a *Coercion Act*, under the operation of which Mr. Parnell and other Irish leaders were temporarily imprisoned. A sad event connected with the Irish troubles was the assassination, in May 1882, of Lord Frederick Cavendish, the Chief Secretary for Ireland. Lord Beaconsfield did not long survive his retirement from office in 1880. After one of the most remarkable careers in English history, in which, by sheer dint of genius and industry, he advanced himself step by step to the highest post attainable by a subject, he died on the 19th of April 1881.

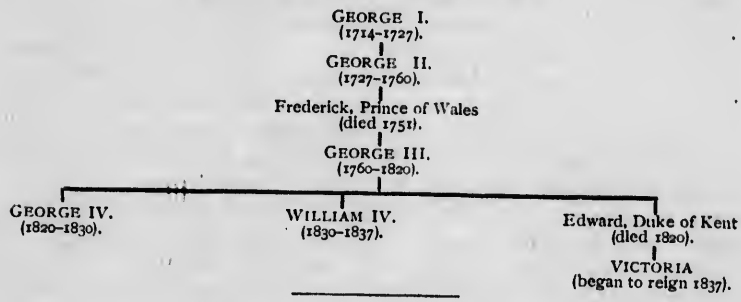
Gladstone Administration.

48. Great Britain has never made greater progress than during the long reign which happily is not yet closed. In manufactures and commerce our country maintains her proud position as the leading nation of the world. Long famed for her universities and her great endowed schools, England has at last determined to be surpassed by no other

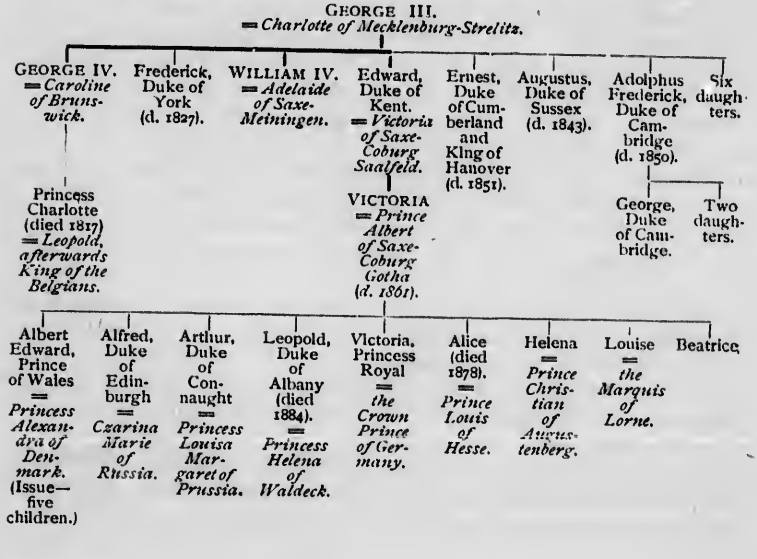
General progress under Victoria.

land in provision for the education of the masses. Nowhere else have the discoveries and inventions of science been so fully taken advantage of in every matter that pertains to the public safety or to the public health. Nor are the British Islands alone to be taken into account when we consider the greatness of our country. The Sovereign of Great Britain and Ireland rules over the mightiest empire the world has ever seen. The colonies under her sway are estimated to cover one-seventh of the surface of the globe, and to contain at least one-fourth of its population.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.



DESCENDANTS OF GEORGE III.



CHAPTER LI.

THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

1. The *Witenagemôt* of the Anglo-Saxons and the *Curia Regis* of the Early Norman Kings grew into the English Parliament, chiefly by the separation of the minor from the greater nobles, and the reinforcement of the former by representatives from the boroughs. This change, from which originated the House of Commons, began to be apparent in the reign of John. At the Revolution of 1688 the organization of the British Parliament was distinctly defined. **Origin of Parliament.**

2. The Three Estates of the Realm, or constituent parts of the Parliament, are the Sovereign, the Lords, and the Commons. Thus the Constitution is not pure monarchy, pure aristocracy, or pure democracy, but a compound of all three; and in this chiefly lies its strength. **The Three Estates.**

3. The office of Sovereign is hereditary, a woman being permitted to reign; for we have not, as they had in France, a Salic Law. The checks on the power of our Sovereign lie in the laws of the land, and the advice of Ministers, who are responsible to Parliament. The chief branches of the royal prerogative are, that the Sovereign alone can make war or peace; can pardon a convicted criminal; can summon, prorogue, or dissolve the Parliament; can coin money; can confer nobility. The assent of the Sovereign is necessary to the passing of a Bill. He or she must be a Protestant of the Church of England; and must maintain Presbyterianism in Scotland. **The Sovereign.**

4. The Lords are of two kinds, Lords Spiritual and Lords Temporal: classified as follows:—

SPIRITUAL.

English Archbishops	2	
English Bishops	24	
	——	26

TEMPORAL.

English Peers	438	
Scottish Peers	16	
Irish Peers	28	
	——	482
Total		508

The Temporal Peers are of six ranks:—Royal Princes, Dukes, Marquises, Earls, Viscounts, and Barons. Any number of new Peers may be created by the Sovereign. The Scottish Representative Peers are elected by their own body for every new Parliament; the Irish Peers hold their seats for life. Upwards of 45 **The Lords.**

Scottish Peers and about 80 Irish Peers sit in the House of Lords as Peers of England or of Great Britain. The Lord Chancellor sitting on the *woolsack* acts as Speaker or Chairman of the Lords. The Upper House forms the highest Court of Justice, to decide appeals from the Courts of Chancery and Queen's Bench in England, and from the Court of Session in Scotland. Any Bill, except a Money Bill, may originate in the Upper House.

The Commons.

5. The House of Commons possesses the sole right of levying taxes, and of voting money for the public service. Commanding all the sources of supply, they can thus effectually control the Sovereign. In the reign of Edward I. the House of Commons contained 275 members: there were 300 under Henry VI. In 1801 there were 658, including 27 for Wales, 45 for Scotland, and 100 for Ireland. The Reform Acts of 1832 retained this number, but redistributed the seats thus :—

England and Wales	500	Members.
Scotland	53	"
Ireland	105	"
Total	658	

The Reform Acts of 1867–8 arranged the numbers thus :—

England and Wales	493	Members.
Scotland	60	"
Ireland	105	"
Total	658	

Calling a Parliament.

6. The Parliament is dissolved—(1) by the will of the Sovereign; (2) after seven years of existence. The necessity of voting supplies to carry on the Government secures its meeting annually. When a new Parliament must be summoned, the Lord Chancellor, acting under orders from the Crown, directs the Clerk of the Crown to issue *Writs*. These are despatched to the Sheriffs of counties, who fix a day for the nomination of candidates. The election, in case of a contest, is decided by ballot.

The Chiltern Hundreds.

7. According to the theory of the Constitution no member of Parliament can resign his seat. But a law of Queen Anne provided that a member who took office under the Crown vacated his seat. This law is still in force, with the exception that it does not apply to a member who is transferred from one office to another in the same Ministry. The custom, therefore, is for a member wishing to resign to apply to the Chancellor of the Exchequer for the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds, whose beech-woods *now* need no custodian. This office, accepted one day, is resigned the next: and so the member is free.

8. When a new Parliament meets, the first thing the Commons do is to elect a Speaker. The members of both Houses take an oath against conspiracy, treason, etc., according to the provisions of the Act of Settlement. **The Speaker.**

9. Members of Parliament have many important privileges, one of which is freedom from arrest or imprisonment on civil matters. But some of their old privileges—such as the non-publication of their debates and the non-admission of strangers—have been waived in order to suit the spirit of modern times. **Privileges.**

10. *Three* Lords form a quorum; that is, a number sufficient for the transaction of business. It takes *forty* members of the Commons to form a working assembly. The Lords say *Content* or *Non-Content* in voting; *Ay* and *No* are the decisive words of the Commons. The Speaker of the Commons does not vote except in cases of equality, when he has a casting vote; the Lord Chancellor can both join in the debates and give his vote. In the Lords, when a case of equal voting occurs, the Non-Contents gain the victory. **Procedure.**

11. The introduction of Bills by the Commons originated in the reign of Henry VI. The Crown can originate no act but one of grace or of pardon. Most public Bills originate with the Commons, because they alone can deal with matters relating to the public purse. **Bills.**

12. The process by which a Bill becomes an Act of Parliament is as follows:—After notice of motion is duly given and seconded, leave is given to bring in the Bill. It is then read for the first time; but no voting takes place, since this reading merely makes the members acquainted with the details of the measure. A day is then fixed for the second reading; before the arrival of which the Bill is printed and circulated. The first debate and voting usually take place after the second reading, which establishes the principle of the Bill. The members vote by going into different lobbies; and they are counted by *tellers*, who hand the division lists to the Speaker. The House then forms itself into a *Committee* to discuss and amend the details of the measure. After a third reading the Bill is sent up to the Lords. In the Upper House it undergoes a similar procedure. But if amended or altered there, it is sent back to the Commons, who either agree to its provisions or demand a conference with the Lords. An endorsement in Norman-French—a relic of the olden days when all statutes were written in that language—marks the successful passage of the measure through either of the Houses. **Law making.**

13. The royal assent is then required before the Bill becomes an Act. This is given by the Sovereign either personally or by commission. The Sovereign, though constitutionally possessed of a *veto* on every measure passed by the Houses, never exercises the prerogative now. The last instance of **The royal assent.**

refusal occurred when Queen Anne in 1707 declined to sanction a Scottish Militia Bill.

The Privy Council.

14. The maxim that "the King can do no wrong" implies that he acts by the advice of Ministers, who are responsible to Parliament. The Privy Council, the members of which are dignified with the title of Right Honorable, have been from very early times the advisers of the Sovereign. But this assembly being too numerous and scattered for the regular transaction of public affairs, the Government is conducted by a committee of the Privy Council, known as the Cabinet.

The Cabinet.

15. When the Ministry is overthrown by a defeat on any important Bill which they have brought in, or by a vote of want of confidence, the Sovereign sends for the principal statesman of the opposite party, and intrusts him with the task of forming a new Government. For the various posts, mentioned below, he selects his leading political supporters.

The Cabinet consists necessarily of:—

1. The First Lord of the Treasury; otherwise called the Prime Minister.
2. The Lord Chancellor.
3. The Chancellor of the Exchequer.
4. The Home Secretary.
5. The Foreign Secretary.
6. The Colonial Secretary.
7. The Indian Secretary.
8. The Secretary at War.
9. The President of the Privy Council.

The following Ministers have also at different times been included in the Cabinet; but that body does not usually consist of more than fourteen or fifteen members:—

10. The First Lord of the Admiralty.
11. The President of the Board of Trade.
12. The Postmaster-General.
13. The President of the Local Government Board.
14. The Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.
15. The Lord Privy Seal.
16. The Chief Secretary for Ireland.
17. The Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education.

The Budget.

16. When the House of Commons resolves itself into a Committee of Ways and Means, the Chancellor of the Exchequer presents his Budget, containing the financial arrangements he proposes for the coming year (ending April 12th), and the estimates of the Revenue he expects to derive from the various sources of the national income.

17. Each House of Parliament may *adjourn* its meetings from day to day. The Sovereign, advised by the Ministry, *prorogues* Parliament from session to session; and *dissolves* it when a new Parliament is to be elected. The duration of a Parliament is limited by law to seven years; but no Parliament since that law was passed (1716) has exceeded six years in duration. During the present reign, the average length of the Parliaments has been under five years. **Duration of Parliament.**

18. The administration of British law is founded on three great principles—the Jury, the Habeas Corpus Act, and the independence of the Judges. In England and Ireland a Grand Jury sit to judge whether a case is fit to go to trial; then a second Jury of twelve decide upon the case, and must be unanimous in their verdict of "Guilty" or "Not Guilty." In Scotland there is no Grand Jury—a Jury of fifteen try the case, and return a verdict of "Guilty," "Not Guilty," or "Not Proven," by a majority of votes. **Law.**

19. There are various Courts, in which the Statute-law, the Common-law, and the law of Equity are administered. Statute-law is that embodied in Acts of Parliament. Common-law is the law of old custom, and depends on the decision of former cases. The law of Equity applies to those cases in which the Sovereign interferes, through the Lord Chancellor, to prevent injustice arising from the Common-law. The principal English and Irish Courts are those of Chancery, Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. In Scotland, the Court of Session and the High Court of Justiciary are the chief tribunals. In the country, justice is administered at Assizes, held generally twice a year by Judges who go on circuit. **Courts of Justice.**

20. The Colonies and Dependencies have their internal affairs administered by resident Governors and Councils, appointed by the Crown, and controlled in London by a Secretary of State, who is a member of the Cabinet. The more populous and older colonies have been placed as much as possible on the footing of self-government; that is to say, there is in each a legislative assembly elected by the people. **Colonies.**

21. The Dominion of Canada may be taken as an example of a self-governed colony. The Executive power is vested in the Governor-General, aided by a Privy Council, all the members of which are appointed by the Crown. The Legislature consists of two Houses: the Senate, or Upper House, consisting of 77 members appointed by the Governor-General in Council; and the House of Commons, consisting of 200 members elected by the people for the term of five years. The Executive Council, or Ministry, is responsible to the House of Commons; that is to say, when it ceases to command a majority there it resigns. For local purposes, each **Dominion of Canada.**

province has a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislature of its own—the latter generally consisting of two Houses.

Australasian colonies.

22. The governments of the Australasian Colonies are very similar to those of the provinces of Canada, with the exception that the legislative council, or Upper House, is generally appointed by the Crown. In New Zealand, New South Wales, and Queensland, there is in each a Governor and a Cabinet, or executive council, of four or five members, appointed by the Crown; a legislative council of from fifteen to thirty members, also appointed by the Crown; and a legislative assembly, or Lower House, elected by the people. In South Australia, the legislative council is elected by the whole colony voting as one province; in Tasmania and Victoria, it is elected by the upper and moneyed classes, but in other respects the arrangements are the same as in the neighboring colonies.

India.

23. India is an example of a dependency still directly under imperial control. Since 1858 the affairs of India have been regulated by the Secretary of State for India and the Indian Council, sitting in London, of which the Secretary is president. The Council consists of fifteen members—seven appointed by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, and eight by the Crown. The executive authority in India is vested in the Viceroy, appointed by the Crown, and responsible to the Secretary of State for India. He is assisted in his administrative duties by a Supreme Council sitting at Calcutta, consisting of five ordinary members nominated by himself and the Commander-in-chief, with six additional members appointed for the purpose of framing laws and regulations. There are also seven chief Secretaries of State in India, to superintend the different departments of the government. For administrative purposes, India is divided into eight provinces under Governors or Commissioners, four smaller provinces directly under the Government of India, and 154 feudatory states administered by Hindu and Mohammedan chiefs, with the aid of English political agents. Madras and Bombay (with Scinde) have each a Governor; Bengal, the North-West Provinces (with Oude), and the Punjab, each a Lieutenant-Governor; the Central Provinces, Assam, and British Burma, each a Chief Commissioner.

Ceylon.

24. Ceylon, which in government is independent of India, is an example of a government in which the local and the imperial elements are combined. But the influence of the latter greatly preponderates. The Governor and the executive council of five members are appointed by the Crown. The legislative council contains fifteen members—five of them are the executive council, other four are also officials, and six only are unofficial.

CHAPTER LII.

PRINCIPAL AUTHORS OF THE HANOVERIAN PERIOD.

JOSEPH ADDISON, 1672–1719—essayist and poet—chief poem, *Cato*, a tragedy—chief prose writings, essays in *The Spectator*.

RICHARD STEELE, 1675–1729—essayist and dramatist—started the well-known periodicals *The Tatler* and *Spectator*.

DANIEL DEFOE, 1661–1731—journalist and novelist—chief works, *Robinson Crusoe* and *Great Plague of London*.

ALEXANDER POPE, 1688–1744—poet—chief works, translation of *Homer*, *Essay on Criticism*, *The Dunciad*, *The Rape of the Lock*, and *Essay on Man*.

JONATHAN SWIFT, 1667–1745—clergyman—chief works, *Gulliver's Travels*, *Tale of a Tub*, and the *Drapier Letters*.

JAMES THOMSON, 1709–1748—poet—chief work, *The Seasons*.

HENRY FIELDING, 1707–1754—novelist.

SAMUEL RICHARDSON, 1689–1761—novelist—chief work, *Sir Charles Grandison*.

LAURENCE STERNE, 1713–1768—novelist—chief works, *Tristram Shandy* and *The Sentimental Journey*.

THOMAS CHATTERTON, 1752–1770—poet—wrote under the name of "Rowley" several poetical essays when a mere boy—died by his own hand when eighteen years old.

TOBIAS SMOLLETT, 1721–1771—novelist and historian.

THOMAS GRAY, 1716–1771—poet—chief poem, *Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard*.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH, 1728–1774—poet—chief works, *The Traveller*, *The Deserted Village*, and *The Vicar of Wakefield*, a novel.

DAVID HUME, 1711–1776—historian and philosopher—chief work, *History of England*.

JUNIUS—the anonymous author of a series of famous Political Letters, the publication of which began in 1769. No positive clue to the real authorship of these Letters has ever been discovered.

SAMUEL JOHNSON, 1709–1784—essayist—wrote in *The Rambler* and other periodicals—author of the first great English Dictionary.

ADAM SMITH, 1723–1790—writer on political economy—chief work, *The Wealth of Nations*.

WILLIAM ROBERTSON, 1721–1793—historian—chief work, *History of Scotland*.

EDWARD GIBBON, 1737–1794—historian—wrote *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.

ROBERT BURNS, 1759–1796—poet—"the bard of Scotland"—chief poems, *Tam o' Shanter*, *Cottar's Saturday Night*, etc.

WILLIAM COWPER, 1731-1800—poet—chief works, *The Task*, translation of *Homer*, and *John Gilpin*.

JOHN KEATS, 1795-1820—poet—chief works, *Hyperion*, *Endymion*, and *Eve of St. Agnes*.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY, 1792-1822—poet—chief works, *Queen Mab*, *The Cloud*, and *The Revolt of Islam*.

LORD BYRON, 1788-1824—poet—chief works, *Don Juan*, *Childe Harold*, *Prisoner of Chillon*.

GEORGE CRABBE, 1754-1832—clergyman and poet—chief works, *The Village* and *The Parish Register*.

SIR WALTER SCOTT, 1771-1832—novelist and poet—chief works, *The Waverley Novels*, *The Lady of the Lake*, and *Marmion*.

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE, 1772-1834—poet and philosopher—chief works, *The Ancient Mariner*, *Genevieve*, *Essays*.

JAMES HOGG (commonly called *the Ettrick Shepherd*), 1770-1835—poet—chief works, *The Skylark* and *The Queen's Wake*.

FELICIA HEMANS, 1793-1835—poetess—chief poems, *Forest Sanctuary* and *Graves of a Household*.

CHARLES LAMB, 1775-1835—clerk and essayist—chief work, *Essays of Elia*.

ROBERT SOUTHEY, 1774-1843—poet and biographer—chief works, *Thalaba*, *The Curse of Kehama*, biographies of Wesley and Nelson.

THOMAS CAMPBELL, 1777-1844—poet—chief works, *Pleasures of Hope* and *Gertrude of Wyoming*.

THOMAS HOOD, 1798-1845—poet—chief work, *The Song of the Shirt*.

MARIA EDGEWORTH, 1809-1849—novelist—chief work, *Tales of Fashionable Life*.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH, 1770-1850—poet—chief works, *The Excursion*, *White Doe of Rylstone*, and *Tintern Abbey*.

THOMAS MOORE, 1799-1852—poet—chief works, *Lalla Rookh* and *Paradise and the Peri*.

SAMUEL ROGERS, 1763-1855—banker and poet—chief work, *The Pleasures of Memory*.

CHARLOTTE BRONTÉ ("Currer Bell"), 1816-1855—novelist—chief work, *Jane Eyre*.

HENRY HALLAM, 1778-1859—historian—chief works, *Middle Ages* and *Constitutional History of Europe*.

LORD MACAULAY, 1800-1859—historian and poet—chief works, *Essays*, *History of England*, and *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

MRS. BROWNING, 1809-1861—poetess—chief works, *Aurora Leigh* and *The Vision of Poets*.

WILLIAM MAKEPEACE THACKERAY, 1811-1863—novelist—chief works, *Vanity Fair* and *Pendennis;* also *The Four Georges*, historical lectures.

SIR ARCHIBALD ALISON, 1792-1867—historian—chief work, *History of Europe*.

CHARLES DICKENS, 1812-1870—novelist—chief works, *The Pickwick Papers*, *Little Dorrit*, *David Copperfield*, and *Martin Chuzzlewit*.

GEORGE GROTE, 1794-1871—historian—chief work, *History of Greece*.

LORD LYTTON, 1805-1872—novelist—chief works, *The Last of the Barons*, *Eugene Aram*, and *The Last Days of Pompeii*.

CHARLES KINGSLEY, 1819-1875—novelist—chief works, *Westward Ho!* and *Yeast*.

GEORGE ELIOT (Marian Evans), 1820-1880—novelist and poetess—chief works, *Adam Bede*, *The Mill on the Floss*, and *Middlemarch*.

THOMAS CARLYLE, 1795-1881—historian and biographer—chief works, *French Revolution*, *Sartor Resartus*, and *History of Frederick the Great*.

EARL OF BEACONSFIELD (Benjamin Disraeli), 1804-1881—statesman and novelist—chief works, *Coningsby*, *The Sybil*, *Lothair*, and *Endymion*.

CHARLES ROBERT DARWIN, 1809-1882—scientific writer—chief work, *The Origin of Species*.

ANTHONY TROLLOPE, 1815-1883—novelist—chief works, *Barchester Towers* and *Doctor Thorne*.

LORD TENNYSON, 1809—poet laureate—chief works, *Idylls of the King*, *Palace of Art*, and *In Memoriam*.

ROBERT BROWNING, 1812—poet—chief works—*Paracelsus*, *Men and Women*, *The Ring and the Book*, and *Dramatic Lyrics*.

JOHN RUSKIN, 1819—writer on art—chief work, *Modern Painters*.

LIST OF DATES.

I. ROMAN PERIOD.

British Islands first mentioned by name	B.C.	350
First invasion by Julius Cæsar		55
Cæsar's second invasion		54
Invasion under Claudius		43
Revolt of Boadicea	A.D.	62
Agricola Governor of Britain		78–85
Defeat of Galgacus at Mons Graupius (Grampius)		85
Wall of Hadrian		120
Wall of Antoninus		140
Repair of Hadrian's Wall by Severus		211
First martyrdom for Christianity in Britain		304
London sacked by Picts and Scots		368
Departure of the Romans		410
Return of a small Roman force		418
Further Roman assistance refused to the Britons		446

II. OLD ENGLISH PERIOD.

The English settlement: Kingdom of Kent begun	449
Kingdom of Sussex begun	477
Kingdom of Wessex begun	519
Kingdom of Essex begun	527
Landing of Augustine	597
Edwin of Northumbria slain	633
Oswald, his successor, slain	642
Penda overthrown by Oswy	655
Ina King of Wessex	688–725
Offa, King of Mercia, died	796
Egbert King of all England	827
Defeat of the Danes by Egbert	836
Edmund of East Anglia defeated by the Danes	871

Reign of Alfred the Great **871-901**
Alfred hides in the marshes of Sedgemoor 878
Battle of Ethandune 878
The Danes again repulsed by Alfred 893

Reign of Edward (Alfred's son) **901-925**

King Edmund assassinated 946
Massacre of the Danes by King Ethelred 1002
Sweyn avenges the massacre 1013

Reign of Canute **1017-1035**

Reign of Harold Harefoot **1035-1040**

Reign of Hardicanute **1040-1042**
The English Restoration 1042

Reign of Edward the Confessor **1042-1066**
Death of Godwin 1053
Edward the Ætheling, son of Edmund Ironside, recalled 1056
Death of Edward the Ætheling 1057

Reign of Harold II. **1066**
Battle of Stamford Bridge 1066
Battle of Senlac or Hastings 1066

III. NORMAN PERIOD.

Reign of William I. **1066-1087**
William revisits Normandy 1067
Rising in the north 1068
Capture of York by Danes—recapture by William 1069
Desolation of the northern shires by William 1070
William's power firmly established 1071
Plot called "The Bridal of Norwich" suppressed 1075
Revolt in Normandy by William's son Robert 1078
Odo imprisoned by William 1082
Danegeld revived 1084
Domesday Book compiled 1085

Reign of Rufus **1087-1100**
Death of Lanfranc 1089
Normandy invaded by Rufus 1090
Invasion of Scotland 1091
Anselm made Archbishop of Canterbury 1093
The First Crusade 1096
Anselm driven into exile 1097
Rufus shot in the New Forest 1100

Reign of Henry I. (son of William I.); born 1068 ..... **1100-1135**
Henry marries Matilda of Scotland 1100
Appearance of Robert in England 1101
Henry invades Normandy 1105
Defeat of Robert at Tenchebrai 1106
Prince William drowned 1120
Henry marries Adelais of Louvain 1121
Stephen of Blois marries Matilda of Boulogne 1124
The Empress Maud marries Geoffrey Plantagenet 1127

Reign of Stephen (grandson of William I.); born 1094 ..... **1135-1154**
Battle of the Standard 1138
Battle of Lincoln: Stephen made prisoner 1141
Stephen exchanged for Robert 1141
Death of Robert, Earl of Douglas 1145
Maud retires to Normandy 1148
Henry of Anjou marries Eleanor of Guienne 1152
Henry invades England 1153

IV. PLANTAGENET PERIOD.—HOUSE OF ANJOU.

Reign of Henry II. (grandson of Henry I.); born 1133 ..... **1154-1189**
Becket made Chancellor 1155
Becket Archbishop of Canterbury 1162
Constitutions of Clarendon framed 1164
Dispute between the King and Becket 1164
Murder of Becket 1170
Conquest of Ireland 1171
Henry's sons rise in revolt 1173
Henry does penance at Becket's tomb 1174
Capture of William the Lion, King of Scotland 1174

Reign of Richard I. (son of Henry II.); born 1157 ..... **1189-1199**
Massacre of Jews 1189
Muster of armies for the Third Crusade 1190
Richard marries Berengaria of Navarre 1191
Siege of Acre 1191
Richard a prisoner 1192
Richard returns to England 1194

Reign of John (son of Henry II.); born 1167 ..... **1199-1216**
John marries Isabella of Angoulême 1200
Disappearance of Arthur 1203
Loss of Norman possessions 1204
John quarrels with the Pope 1207
England laid under an Interdict 1208

John excommunicated 1209
John's submission to the Pope 1213
Futile attempt to recover Normandy 1214
Magna Carta signed 1215
The French, under Louis, invade England 1216
John's disaster at the Wash 1216

Reign of Henry III. (son of John); born 1207 ..... **1216–1272**
Louis defeated at Lincoln 1217
De Burgh and Des Roches chief favorites 1219
War with France 1230
Henry marries Eleanor of Provence 1236
Magna Carta ratified 1253
Prince Edward marries Eleanor of Castile 1254
The Mad Parliament meets: the Provisions of Oxford enacted ... 1258
Battle of Lewes—the Mise of Lewes 1264
Leicester's Parliament: origin of the House of Commons 1265
Battle of Evesham 1265

Reign of Edward I. (son of Henry III.); born 1239 ..... **1272–1307**
Edward conquers Wales 1283
Contest for the Scottish throne 1290
Edward decides in favor of John Baliol 1292
John Baliol swears fealty to Edward 1292
Loss of Guienne 1293
John Baliol dethroned: Scotland placed under English officers ... 1296
Wallace's rebellion 1297
Edward marries Margaret of France 1299
Treaty of Montreuil with France 1303
Execution of Wallace 1305
Robert Bruce crowned King of Scots 1306
Death of Edward at Burgh-on-Sands 1307

Reign of Edward II. (son of Edward I.); born 1284 ..... **1307–1327**
Edward marries Isabella of France 1308
Execution of Piers Gaveston 1312
Battle of Bannockburn 1314
Banishment of the Spensers 1321
Execution of Lancaster 1322
Isabella invades England 1326
Deposition of the King—murdered at Berkeley Castle 1327

Reign of Edward III. (son of Edward II.); born 1312 ..... **1327–1377**
Independence of Scotland acknowledged 1328
Edward marries Philippa of Hainault 1328
Execution of Mortimer 1330
The Scots defeated at Halidon Hill 1333

Edward goes to war for the French crown 1337
French fleet defeated off Sluys 1340
Order of the Garter founded 1344
Edward's victory at Creçy 1346
David of Scotland captured at Nevil's Cross 1346
Capture of Calais 1347
The Black Death 1349
Statute of Provisors 1351
Statute of Treasons 1352
War with France renewed 1355
Battle of Poitiers 1356
Treaty of Bretigny 1360
The Black Prince in Spain 1367
Death of the Black Prince 1376
Preaching of Wyclif 1377–1384

Reign of Richard II. (grandson of Edward III.); born 1366...1377–1399
Henry, Earl of Hereford, marries Mary de Bohun 1380
Richard marries Anne of Bohemia 1381
Poll-tax levied—Wat Tyler's rebellion 1381
Richard's invasion of Scotland 1385
Gloucester's attack on the throne 1387
Battle of Otterburn 1388
Statute of Præmunire 1393
Richard marries Isabella of France 1395
Banishment of Hereford and Norfolk 1398
Death of John of Gaunt—Hereford's invasion 1398
Richard is dethroned 1399

V. PLANTAGENET PERIOD.—HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Reign of Henry IV. (grandson of Edward III.); born 1366...1399–1413
Death of Richard 1400
First Statute of Heretics 1401
Execution of Sawtré 1401
Battle of Homildon Hill 1402
Battle of Hately Bridge: Hotspur killed 1403
Henry marries Joan of Navarre 1403

Reign of Henry V. (son of Henry IV.); born 1388 1413–1422
Battle of Agincourt 1415
Second invasion of France 1417
Execution of Lord Cobham 1417
Treaty of Troyes—Henry marries Catharine of France 1420
Renewal of the French war 1421
Henry dies at Paris 1422

Reign of Henry VI. (son of Henry V.); born 1421 ..... **1422-1461**
Charles VI. proclaimed King of France in opposition to Henry.... 1422
James I. of Scotland released..... 1424
Siege of Orleans..... 1428
Orleans relieved by Joan of Arc..... 1429
Death of Bedford—Charles enters Paris..... 1435
Henry marries Margaret of Anjou..... 1446
Jack Cade's insurrection..... 1450
Charles acquires Normandy..... 1451
England loses all possessions in France, except Calais..... 1453
Duke of York made Protector..... 1454
York dismissed—beginning of the War of the Roses..... 1455
First Battle of St. Albans: Yorkists victorious..... 1455
Battle of Bloreheath: Yorkists victorious..... 1459
Battle of Northampton: capture of Henry by the Yorkists..... 1460
Parliament decides in York's favor..... 1460
Battle of Wakefield: Duke of York slain..... 1460
Battle of Mortimer's Cross: Edward of York victorious..... 1461
Second Battle of St. Albans: Warwick defeated..... 1461

VI. PLANTAGENET PERIOD.—HOUSE OF YORK.

Reign of Edward IV. (great-grandson of Edward III.); born 1441..... **1461-1483**
Battle of Towton: Yorkists victorious..... 1461
Battle of Hexham: disastrous to the Lancastrians..... 1464
Edward declares his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville..... 1464
Warwick and Clarence drive Edward into flight..... 1470
Henry again King for six months..... 1470-1471
Battle of Barnet: Warwick slain..... 1471
Battle of Tewkesbury: Prince Edward slain..... 1471
Death of Henry VI..... 1471
Richard, Duke of Gloucester, marries Anne Neville..... 1473
Invasion of France by Edward—Treaty of Pecquigny..... 1475
Murder of the Duke of Clarence..... 1478

Reign of Edward V. (son of Edward IV.); born 1470..... **1483**
Richard, Duke of Gloucester, Protector of the Kingdom...May 4, 1483
Execution of Hastings, Rivers, and Grey..... 1483
The crown is offered to the Duke of Gloucester.....June 25, 1483

Reign of Richard III. (brother of Edward IV.); born 1450....**1483-1485**
Supposed murder of the Princes in the Tower..... 1483
Death of Richard's son Edward..... 1484
Landing of Richmond at Milford Haven..... 1485
Battle of Bosworth Field: Richard is slain..... 1485

VII. HOUSE OF TUDOR.

Reign of Henry VII. (fifth in descent from Edward III.); born 1456.....**1485-1509**

Henry marries Elizabeth of York..... 1486
Lambert Simnel appears in Ireland..... 1487
Star Chamber Court (first form) 1487
Appearance of Perkin Warbeck..... 1492
Warbeck goes to Scotland..... 1495
Death of Warbeck..... 1499
Marriage of Prince Arthur with Catharine of Aragon..... 1501
Death of Prince Arthur—Catharine contracted to Prince Henry 1502
Marriage of Princess Margaret with James IV. of Scotland..... 1503

Reign of Henry VIII. (son of Henry VII.); born 1491.....**1509-1547**

Henry marries Catharine of Aragon 1509
Henry declares war against France..... 1511
Battle of Guinegate..... 1513
Battle of Flodden: James IV. killed..... 1513
Louis of France marries Henry's sister Mary..... 1514
Cardinal Wolsey Lord Chancellor 1515
Death of Ferdinand of Spain..... 1516
Death of Maximilian, Emperor of Germany..... 1519
Charles V. visits England..... 1520
Field of the Cloth of Gold..... 1520
The title *Fidei Defensor* conferred on Henry by the Pope..... 1522
Battle of Pavia: King of France defeated by Charles V..... 1525
Treaty of Madrid..... 1526
Henry renounces all claim to the French crown 1527
The divorce question..... 1527
The Papal Commission—downfall of Wolsey..... 1529
Henry acknowledged Head of the Church..... 1531
Henry marries Anna Boleyn..... 1532
Cranmer's decision on the divorce question..... 1533
Act of Supremacy..... 1534
Act of Succession 1534
Fisher and More beheaded..... 1535
Death of Catharine, and of Anna Boleyn 1536
Henry marries Jane Seymour..... 1536
Suppression of the lesser monasteries..... 1536
Birth of Prince Edward.....October 12, 1537
Death of Jane Seymour.....October 24, 1537
The Pope issues a bull against Henry..... 1538
Enactment of The Statute of the Six Articles..... 1539
Suppression of the greater monasteries..... 1539

Henry marries Anne of Cleves ..... January 6, 1540
Henry's marriage abrogated by Parliament ..... July 24, 1540
Thomas Cromwell beheaded ..... July 28, 1540
Henry marries Catharine Howard ..... July 28, 1540
Catharine Howard executed 1542
Rout of Scottish army at Solway Moss—death of James V. 1542
Henry marries Catharine Parr 1543
Henry and Charles V. make war against Francis I. 1544

Reign of Edward VI. (son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour); born 1537 ..... **1547–1553**
Hertford made Protector and Duke of Somerset 1547
Battle of Pinkie 1547
Thomas Seymour, brother of the Protector, beheaded 1549
Somerset beheaded 1552
Lady Jane Grey proclaimed Queen 1553

Reign of Mary I. (daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon); born 1516 ..... **1553–1558**
Insurrection of Wyatt 1554
Executions of Lord Guilford Dudley, Lady Jane Grey, and the Duke of Suffolk 1554
Mary marries Philip of Spain 1554
Reconciliation with Rome 1554
Beginning of the persecution 1555
The French capture Calais 1558

Reign of Elizabeth (daughter of Henry VIII. and Anna Boleyn); born 1533 ..... **1558–1603**
Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity passed 1559
John Knox labors to reform the Church of Scotland 1559–1572
The Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England ratified 1562
Mary Stuart flees to England 1568
Norfolk and Northumberland executed 1572
Sir Francis Drake sails round the world 1577–1580
Severe measures adopted against Catholics 1581
Elizabeth interferes in behalf of Holland 1585
Babington's Plot discovered 1586
Execution of Mary Queen of Scots 1587
Defeat of the Invincible Armada 1588
Drake and Essex burn several Spanish ships 1589
James VI. of Scotland marries Anne of Denmark 1589
Earl of Tyrone rises in rebellion 1594
Lord Howard storms Cadiz 1596
Death of Philip of Spain 1598
Execution of Essex 1601
The Irish rebellion crushed by Mountjoy 1602

VIII. HOUSE OF STUART.

Reign of James I. (great-great-grandson of Henry VII.); born 1566 ..... **1603–1625**
The Main and the Bye Plots 1603
The Hampton Court Conference 1604
The Gunpowder Plot 1605
Attempt to found a colony in Virginia 1607
Colonization of Ulster 1609
Charter for colonization of New Zealand 1610
Authorized edition of the Bible published 1611
First English settlement made at Surat 1612
The Princess Elizabeth marries Frederick, the Elector Palatine .. 1613
James's second Parliament meets 1614
Death of Sir Walter Ralegh 1618
The Pilgrim Fathers emigrate to America 1620
James's third Parliament meets 1621
Prince Charles visits Spain in disguise 1623
James's last Parliament meets 1624

Reign of Charles I. (son of James I.); born 1600 ..... **1625–1649**
Charles's first Parliament meets 1625
Expedition against Cadiz 1625
Charles's second Parliament meets 1626
Buckingham tries to relieve Rochelle 1627
Petition of Right accepted by Charles 1628
Laud appointed Archbishop of London 1628
Wentworth (afterwards Strafford) chief adviser to the King 1628
Buckingham is assassinated 1628
Parliament is re-assembled and dissolved 1629
The colony of Maryland founded 1633
Ship-money revived 1634
Connecticut and Rhode Island founded 1635, 1638
Trial of John Hampden: judgment against him 1637
The National Covenant of Scotland 1638
The "Short Parliament" meets 1640
The "Long Parliament" summoned 1640
The Triennial Act is passed 1641
Execution of Strafford 1641
The Grand Remonstrance issued 1641
Outbreak in Ireland 1641
Impeachment of the five members 1642
Battle of Edgehill: indecisive 1642
Death of Hampden at Chalgrove Field 1643
First Battle of Newbury: indecisive 1643

Solemn League and Covenant 1643
Battle of Cropredy Bridge: Royalists victorious 1644
Battle of Marston Moor: Royalists defeated 1644
Second Battle of Newbury: indecisive 1644
Execution of Laud 1645
Self-denying Ordinance 1645
Battle of Naseby: Royalists totally defeated 1645
Charles surrenders to the Scots at Newark 1646
He is given up to the English Parliament 1647
Escape and re-capture of the King 1647
Pride's Purge 1648
Trial and execution of Charles I. 1649

The Commonwealth **1649-1660**
Appointment of a Council of State 1649
Cromwell invades Ireland 1649
Battle of Dunbar: Cromwell victorious ..... Sept. 3, 1650
Battle of Worcester: Cromwell victorious ..... Sept. 3, 1651
War with the Dutch 1652
Blake defeats Van Tromp 1652
Expulsion of the Long Parliament 1653
Battle off the Texel 1653
Barebone's Parliament ..... July 4-Dec. 12, 1653
The Instrument of Government 1653

Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector; born 1599 ..... **1653-1658**
Treaty of Westminster, with Holland 1654
Cromwell's first Parliament meets 1654
Blake is victorious at Teneriffe 1657
The Humble Petition and Advice accepted by Cromwell 1657
Death of Oliver Cromwell ..... Sept. 3, 1658

Richard Cromwell, Lord Protector (son of Oliver); born 1626 ..... **1658**
The Protector resigns ..... May 6, 1659
Monk declares for the restoration of the kingdom 1660
Declaration of Breda 1660
The Restoration 1660
The Convention-Parliament 1660-1661

Reign of Charles II. (son of Charles I.); born 1630 ..... **1660-1685**
Corporation Act 1661
James, Duke of York, marries Anne Hyde 1661
Charles marries Catharine of Portugal 1662
Act of Uniformity 1662
Conventicle Act 1664
Five Mile Act 1665
The Dutch war begins 1665

Reign of William III. (alone)..... **1694–1702**
Capture of Namur..... 1695
Treason Act passed..... 1696
Barclay's Conspiracy..... 1696
Treaty of Ryswick..... 1697
A new Parliament meets..... 1698
Montagu (afterwards Earl of Halifax) *Prime Minister**..... 1698
First Partition Treaty: Spanish dominions..... 1698
Darien expedition fails..... 1699
Second Partition Treaty: Spanish dominions..... 1700
The Whigs driven from office..... 1700
The Act of Settlement..... 1701
The Grand Alliance..... 1701
Death of James II..... 1701
William's last Parliament..... 1701

Reign of Anne (daughter of James II.); born 1665..... **1702–1714**
Marlborough appointed Captain-General..... 1702
The French driven from the Netherlands..... 1702
Gibraltar taken..... 1704
Battle of Blenheim..... 1704
Act of Security passed in Scotland..... 1704
Barcelona taken..... 1705
Battle of Ramillies..... 1706
The Act of Union with Scotland..... May 1, 1707
Battle of Almanza..... 1708
Battle of Oudenarde..... 1708
Battle of Malplaquet..... 1709
Trial of Sacheverell..... 1710
A new Parliament meets..... 1710
Charles of Spain elected Emperor of Germany..... 1711
Marlborough recalled..... 1712
Treaty of Utrecht..... 1713

IX. HOUSE OF HANOVER.

Reign of George I. (great-grandson of James I.); born 1660...**1714–1727**
Impeachment of Oxford, Bolingbroke, and Ormond..... 1715
Riot Act passed..... 1715
Battle of Sheriffmuir..... 1715
English Jacobites surrender at Preston..... 1715
The Pretender escapes to France..... 1716

* The names of successive Prime Ministers are in *italics* from this point onwards.

Septennial Act 1716
The Triple Alliance (England, France, and Holland) 1717
The Quadruple Alliance (England, France, Austria, and Holland) 1718
The South Sea Bubble 1720
Robert Walpole Prime Minister ..... March 1721
Death of Marlborough 1722

Reign of George II. (son of George I.); born 1683 ..... **1727–1760**
Walpole's excise scheme 1733
The Porteous Riot in Edinburgh 1736
War declared against Spain 1739
Resignation of Walpole—*Wilmington Prime Minister* 1742
Pelham Prime Minister 1743
Battle of Dettingen 1743
Death of Walpole 1745
Battle of Fontenoy 1745
The Young Pretender lands at Moidart 1745
Battle of Prestonpans 1745
Battle of Culloden 1746
Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle 1748
Adoption of the Gregorian Calendar 1752
Death of Henry Pelham—*Duke of Newcastle Prime Minister* 1754
War with France declared 1756
Duke of Devonshire (with Pitt) *Prime Minister* 1756
Battle of Plassey 1757
Newcastle (with Pitt) *Prime Minister* 1757
Battle of Minden 1759
Conquest of Canada 1759

Reign of George III. (grandson of George II.); born 1738 ..... **1760–1820**
The Bourbon Family Compact 1761
George marries Charlotte-Sophia of Mecklenburg-Strelitz 1761
Pitt resigns 1761
Lord Bute Prime Minister 1762
War with Spain 1762
Treaty of Paris 1763
George Grenville Prime Minister 1763
Arrest of John Wilkes 1763
American Stamp Act is passed 1765
Lord Rockingham Prime Minister 1765
Lord Grafton (with Chatham) *Prime Minister* 1766
Lord North Prime Minister 1770
First American Congress 1774
Battle of Lexington 1775
Battle of Bunker's Hill 1775
Declaration of Independence ..... July 4, 1776

Battle of Wagram 1809
Battle of Talavera 1809
Perceval Prime Minister 1809
Battle of Fuentes d'Onoro 1811
Battle of Albuera 1811
Prince of Wales becomes Regent 1811
Capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz 1812
Lord Liverpool Prime Minister 1812
Battle of Salamanca 1812
Napoleon invades Russia 1812
Battle of Vittoria 1813
Battle of Leipsic 1813
Battle of Toulouse 1814
Treaty of Paris 1814
Treaty of Ghent 1814
Napoleon returns from Elba 1815
Battle of Quatre Bras 1815
Battle of Waterloo 1815
Second Treaty of Paris 1815
Death of Princess Charlotte 1817
William, Duke of Clarence, marries Adelaide of Saxe-Meinengen 1818

Reign of George IV. (son of George III.); born 1762 ..... **1820-1830**
Cato Street Conspiracy 1820
Trial of Queen Caroline 1820
Death of Napoleon 1821
Canning Prime Minister 1827
Death of Canning—*Lord Goderich Prime Minister* 1827
Battle of Navarino 1827
Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts 1828
Duke of Wellington Prime Minister 1828
Catholic Emancipation Act 1829

Reign of William IV. (son of George III.); born 1765 ..... **1830-1837**
Lord Grey Prime Minister 1830
First Reform Act 1832
Abolition of slavery 1833
Lord Melbourne Prime Minister 1834
Sir R. Peel Prime Minister 1834
Lord Melbourne Prime Minister 1835
Municipal Reform Act passed 1835

Reign of Victoria (grand-daughter of George III.); born 1819 .... **1837**
Hanover separated from the British Crown 1837
Rebellion in Canada 1837
The Chartists become prominent 1838
Formation of the Anti-Corn-Law League 1838

Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister	1868
Disestablishment of the Irish Church	1869
First Irish Land Act	1870
English Elementary Education Act	1870
Treaty of Washington	1871
Voting by Ballot introduced in parliamentary elections	1872
Mr. Disraeli (afterwards Earl of Beaconsfield) *Prime Minister*	1874
Ashantee War	1874
Russo-Turkish War	1877
Treaty of Berlin	1878
Afghan War	1878
Zulu War	1878-1879
Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister	1880
Death of Lord Beaconsfield	1881
Second Irish Land Act	1881
Assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish	1882
Third Reform Act—Household Franchise in Counties	1884

ACCENTED LIST OF PROPER NAMES.

ABBEVILLE′.
Ab′ercromby.
Aboukir′.
Ade′la.
Adela′is.
A′drian.
Æth′eling.
Aë′tius.
Afghanistan′.
Agincourt′ (*azhincoor′*).
Agric′ola.
Aix-la-Chapelle′.
Alabam′a.
Albi′nus.
Al′bion.
Albuë′ra.
Al′derney.
Alen′çon.
Allahabad′.
Alphon′so.
Amiens′ (*amcong′*).
An′gevin.
Añ′glesey.
Añjou′ (*angzhoo′*).
Antoinette′ (*antwanet′*).
Antoni′nus.
Aquitaine′. (*akwetain′*).
Ar′agon.
Archān′gel.
Ar′istotle.
Ar′undel.
Ath′elstan.
At′tila.
Augh′rim (*awg′rim*).
Augus′tine.
Aus′terlitz.

BADAJOS′ (*badahōs′*).
Bahâ′ma.
Balaklâ′va.
Bal′iol (*bayl′yol*).
Balmeri′no.
Barthol′omew.
Bastille′ (*basteel′*).
Bayeux′ (*bayū′*).
Bayonne′.
Beau′clerc (*bō′clair*).
Beau′fort.
Beau′mont.
Beller′ophon.
Berenga′ria.
Berke′ley.
Berniç′ia.
Blen′heim.
Blü′cher.
Boadiçe′a.
Boleyn′.
Bol′ingbroke.
Bologn′a (*bolon′ya*).
Bordeaux′ (*bordō′*)
Boulogne′ (*boolon′*).
Bour′bon.
Bouvines′ (*booveen′*).
Bragan′za.
Bram′ham.
Bre′da (*bray′da*).
Brest.
Bretign′y (*bretɛen′ye*).
Bretwal′da.
Brough′am (*bro′am* or *broom*).
Burgoyne′.
Bur′leigh.

CABAL′.
Ca′diz.
Cal′ais (*kal′ay*).
Campeg′gio (*kamped′jio*).
Cam′pion.
Cannes (*can*).
Carac′tacus.
Carad′oc.
Car′isbrooke.
Carthage′na.
Ca′ry.
Cassivelau′nus.
Castile′ (*kasteel′*).
Castil′lon (*kasteel′yong*).
Cavaignac′ (*kavenyak′*).
Ceteway′o (*ketchwā′o*).
Charle′magne (*sharl′man*).
Chartres (*shartr*).
Ciudad′ Rodri′go (*seoodad′rodree′go*).
Clau′dius.
Clonmel′.
Cloudes′ley.
Coomas′sie.
Cornwal′lis.
Corun′na.
Creç′y.
Cron′stadt.
Cullo′den.
Cym′ry (*kim′re*).

DA′CIA.
Dane′lagh (*-law*).
Da′rien.
De Bohun (*boon*).
De Burgh (*boorg*).
D'Esto.
De Mont′fort.
De Ruy′ter (*roi′ter*).
De Spen′ser.
Des Roches (*rōsh*).
Du Guesclin′ (*gāklang′*).
Du Quesne (*kain*).
Dei′ra.
Del′hi (*del′e*).
Drogh′eda (*droh′heda*).

ED′WINESBURH.
Ef′fingham.
Elfred′a.
Elgi′va.
Enniscor′thy.
Estâ′ples.
Eugene′ (*yoojeen′*).
Eves′ham (*eevz′am*).

FE′VERSHAM.
Finisterre′.
Fitzger′ald.
Fitz-Os′bern.
Fontenoy′.
Foth′eringay.
Frey′a.
Fro′bisher.
Fuen′tes d'Ono′ro.
GAL′GACUS.
Gave′ston.
Gene′va.
Geof′frey (*jef′rey*).
Ger′beroi (*zher′b′rwa*).
Ghent.
Glencoe′.
Glendow′er.
Glouces′ter (*glos′ter*).
Gooj′erat.
Grau′pius.
Grenâ′da.
Guiâ′na.
Guï′do.
Guienne′ (*ge-en′*).
Guine′gate (*geen′gate*).
Guise (*geez*).

HA′DRIAN.
Hai′nault (*hay′no*).
Hal′idon.
Har′dicanute (*-noot′*).
Hardrad′a.
Harfleur′.
Hel′igoland.
Heñ′gest.
Her′eward.
Hert′ford (*har′ford*).
Hex′ham.
Hiber′nia.
Hohenlin′den (*hoen-*).
Hom′ildon.
Honō′rius.
Hora′tio.
Hu′guenot (*hew′genō*).

ICE′NI.
Ier′ne.
Iñ′kermann.
Isandlah′na.

JE′NA (*yā′na*).

KEN′ILWORTH.
Killiecrañ′kie.

LAFAYETTE'.
La Hogue (*hoag*).
Laf'caster.
Lanfranc'.
Leices'ter (*les'ter*).
Lein'ster (*leen'ster*).
Leip'sic (*līp'sik*).
Leof'win (*lef'win*).
Lew'es.
Lign'y (*leen'ye*).
Limoges' (*leemoazh'*).
Lisle (*leel*).
Llewel'yn.
Loire (*l'war*).
Lorraine'.
Lou'don.
Louisiâ'na.
Louvain'.
Luck'now.
Lut'terworth.
Lyme Re'gis.

MACI'AN (*ee'an*).
Malplaquet' (*malplakay'*).
Mam'elon.
Mantes (*mangt*).
Mareñ'go.
Martinique'.
Maximil'ian.
Meck'lenburg Strel'itz.
Medi'na Sido'nia (*medee'na*).
Meerut'.
Melcombe-Re'gis.
Men'schikoff.
Meth'ven.
Mississip'pi.
Missoloñ'ghi.
Mo'dena.
Moi'dart.
Molda'via.
Montcalm'.
Montebel'lo.
Montreuil' (*mongtruee'*).
Montserrat'.
Mor'car.
More'a.
Mountea'gle.
NAMUR' (*namoor'*).
Nanking'.
Nantes (*nangt*).
Navarī'no.
Navarre'.
Nev'il's Cross.
Northal'lerton.
Northum'bria.
No'va Zem'bla.

OR'LEANS.
Orsi'ni (*orsee'nee*).
Os'nabrück.
Osto'rius.
Ot'terburn.
Oudenar'de (*oodenar'day*).

PA'KENHAM.
Pampelu'na.
Pan'dulph.
Pauli'nus.
Pa'via.
Pecquign'y (*pekeen'ye*).
Pe'dro (*pā'dro*).
Peliss'ier (*pālis'iā*).
Pe'tre.
Pev'ensey.
Phil'iphaugh.
Philip'pa.
Phœnī'cians.
Piers (*peers*).
Plantag'enet (*-taj'enet*).
Plas'sey.
Plau'tius.
Poitiers' (*poiteerz'*, *pwatyea'*).
Poitou' (*pwatoo'*).
Pondicher'ry (*pondesher'ree*).
Ponte'fract (*pom'fret*).
Provence' (*provangs'*).
Pun'jab (*pun'job*).

QUATRE BRAS' (*katr brah'*).

RA'LEGH (*raw'lay*).
Ramil'lies (*rameel'ye*).
Ra'venspur.
Rheims (*reemz*).
Riz'zio (*rit'seo*).
Rochelle'.
Rol'iça.
Rom'illy.
Rouen' (*roo-ong'*).
Run'nymede.
Rys'wick (*rise'ik*).

SACHEV'ERELL (*sashev'-*).
Sal'adin.
Salamañ'ca.
Salis'bury (*sdlz'bury*).
San'croft.
San Domiñ'go.
Sans'terre.
San'ta Cruz' (*crooz*).
Sarato'ga.
Saw'tré (*so'tray*).
Saxe-Co'burg-Go'tha (*go'ta*).
Saxe-Mein'ingen.
Scandina'via.
Scheldt.
Scinde (*sind*).
Scone (*skoon*).
Sebas'tian.
Sebas'topol (*sevas'-*).
Se'bert.
Seine (*sain*).
Ser'gius.
Sheerness'.
Sheriffmuir'.
Sino'pe.
Sluys (*slooz*).
Sobrâ'on.
Soult (*soolt*).
South'wark (*suth'erk*).
Staines.
St. Ar'naud (*ar'no*).
St. Ed'mundsburh
St. Ger'main.
Stein'kirk.
Stig'and.
Stone'henge.
Strachan (*strawn*).
Su'raj-ad-Dow'la.
Surat'.
Swartz (*shvartz*).

TAC'ITUS.
Talave'ra.
Tav'istock.
Tenche'brai (*tensh'bray*).
Teneriffe' (*reef'*).
Tewkes'bury.
The'obald.
There'sa (*teree'sa*).
Tien-tsin'.
Tod'leben (*tot'lābeu*).
Tor'res Ve'dras.
Touloñ'.
Touraine'
Tournay'.
Trafal'gar.
Troyes (*trwah*).
Tyr'rel.
Tyrone'.

ULUN'DI.
U'trecht (*oo'trekt*).

VALOIS' (*valwā'*).
Versailles' (*versālz'*, *versī'*).
Verulam'ium.
Vespas'ian.
Vez'elay.
Vimie'ra (*vimeay'ra*).
Vincennes' (*vangsen'*).
Vitto'ria.
Vor'tigern.

WAG'RAM
Wal'cheren
Walhal'la.
We'ser (*vā'ser*).
Witenagemôt'.
Worces'ter (*woos'ter*).
Wyc'lif.
Wyke'ham.

ZUT'PHEN (*zoot'fen*).

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