HISTORY

OF

ENGLAND.

DAVID SINCLAIR, M.A.

REVISED BY

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REVISER'S PREFACE.

In revising Mr. Sinclair's History of England, I have thought it advisable to make more alterations than I originally supposed would be necessary, and it will be found that although the general scope and method of the work remain the same, many portions have been practically re-written. An important addition to the usefulness of the Book is a copious index containing at least twice as many references as the original one, for which readers are indebted to Mr. T. S. Subramania Aiyar, B. A., of the Town High School, Kumbakonam.

J. H. STONE.

KUMBAKONAM,
15*th December*, 1893.

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many tribes that were continually quarrelling with each other and fighting against each other. The Britons had no churches nor temples. They worshipped God in *oak groves*. Their priests were called **Druids**. They were the teachers of the people and were looked up to as very holy persons. They taught that the soul never dies, but passes from one body to another. Sacrifices—sometimes human sacrifices—were offered by them to the gods. Circles of huge stones now to be seen at *Stonehenge* and other places are supposed to have been set up by them as tomb-stones over their dead chiefs; but no one can say exactly whether this is so or not.

4. **The Romans Invade Britain.**—Cæsar, as he had intended, crossed the channel and landed in Britain, although the Britons tried to prevent him. But he only remained in the island three weeks. Next year however he went back again and defeated the Britons, who under their chief Cassivellaunus fought very bravely. The Britons were glad to make peace and Cæsar again withdrew his troops to Gaul.

55 B.C.

5. **Claudius.**—For the next ninety years the Romans were occupied with civil wars and in conquering parts of the modern Germany and Austro-Hungary. The Roman dominions were now governed by Emperors, who were trying to extend the empire towards the north and east. One of them, Claudius, crossed over to Britain, and soon the country south of the Thames was made a Roman province, *i. e.*, a part of the Empire. Caractacus, at the head of the Silures, a tribe in Wales, held out bravely for a time. He was at last betrayed, and sent as a prisoner to Rome. But as he was a very brave man the Emperor spared his life and even treated him kindly.

47 A.D.

6. **Suetonius Paulinus.**—In the year 61 Suetonius Paulinus was Roman governor. He attacked Mona, (Anglesea) a sacred island of the Druids, destroyed its oak groves, and cast many of the Druids into the fires that they themselves had made for the Romans. Meanwhile, in the east, the Iceni of Norfolk and Suffolk took up arms under their queen Boadicea and destroyed the Roman towns of Camulodunum (Colchester) and London. When the news reached Paulinus, he quickly led his army back, and, on his coming up with the army of Boadicea, a fierce battle was fought. The Romans gained a complete victory and Boadicea poisoned herself.

7. **Julius Agricola. 78—84.**—Julius Agricola was the next Roman governor. He was a very able and wise man, and he gradually extended the Roman authority over the greater part of Britain. But the Picts, a wild people in Caledonia (*Scotland*), used to come south and attack and plunder the Britons who had submitted to the Romans. To keep the Picts from disturbing the Britons, Agricola built a chain of forts from the Tyne to the Solway Firth, and another from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde. The Picts however were not to be kept back by these forts, so Agricola led an army into the north and defeated king Galgacus in battle among the Grampian mountains. Agricola did not care to conquer Caledonia, as the country was so hilly and so poor. But he sent his fleet as far north as the Orkney islands, and it was from what the Romans saw on the expedition that they first learnt something of the geography of Britain.

79 A.D.

84 A.D.

8. **Severus.**—The Picts continued to make raids on the Britons, and Severus, the Emperor, though

CHAPTER II.

The English.

12. **Meaning of the Name.**—The ancestors of the modern English race, lived in Denmark and that part of Germany now occupied by the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein and Hanover. They were divided into three tribes. The tribe in the north were called Jutes and their name is still preserved in Jutland, the name of the northern part of Denmark. The tribe in the south (Hanover and the adjacent land) were called Saxons. The Angles (English) of Schleswig-Holstein formed the third tribe. All three tribes were known to the Britons as Saxons. Sometime after they began to settle in Britain they adopted as a common name that of the central tribe, the modern form of which is English. It will be convenient to use this name in speaking of the three tribes generally.

13. **Political Institutions.**—The English lived by tilling the soil, and plundering expeditions. They did not engage in trade, and therefore had no towns. They lived in villages and there were groups of villages called *hundreds* because each contained about ten or twelve villages with about one hundred households. Several hundreds made up a *tribe*. In time of peace they were not ruled by kings or chiefs, but public matters were discussed and settled in assemblies. Each village had its assembly, the *township moot* consisting of all the freemen of the village, similarly there were for each hundred the *hundred-moot*, consisting of a certain number of men appointed by each township, and for the tribe the *folk-moot* which all the freemen might attend. These moots were also courts of justice and when

any complaint was made in them, the assembled freemen gave judgment as to what should be done.

The freemen were divided into two classes *eorls*, men of noble birth, and *ceorls*, or commoners, but the eorls, though held in great respect and generally richer than the ceorls had no power over them.

14. **Military Organization.**—The eorls seem to have been more fond of war than the ceorls. Those eorls who were most renowned for bravery had bands of young warriors attached to them known as their *gesiths*, who had sworn to be faithful to them in all things and to die fighting rather than leave the dead body of their lord on the battle field. In ordinary times these war bands were the army of the tribe. All the ceorls however were bound to come out and fight if called on to do so. The army consisting of all the freemen of the tribe was called the *fyrd*. Whenever war was in prospect one of the famous warriors of the tribe was elected to lead it.

15. **Slavery.**—The English had some slaves before they came to Britain. Captives taken in war, men who had lost their property by gambling, and sometimes criminals were made slaves. Sometimes a freeman might of his own accord become a slave because of poverty. These slaves were employed in cultivating the land. Most of this however seems to have been done by the free land-holders, the ceorls. Probably the eorls chiefly owned and used slaves.

16. **Religion.**—The English worshipped many gods but they had no priests. As in early India, every man was priest in his own family and the *chief* was priest for the *tribe*. Their gods were **Woden**, the *war-god*, the guardian of boundaries; **Thor**, the *thunderer*, the god of the air and the storm; **Tiw**, the *destroyer*; and **Frea**, the *god of peace and joy*—

names still to be recognized in our names for the days of the week. Their temples were in the woods or near the places where their moots were held. Most sacred were they held to be and in them no man dared fight or quarrel. Thither part of the spoils of war was brought to be offered to the gods, and thither the yeoman went before going to war, to take the oath on the holy ring that he would fight bravely for hearth and home and tribe. Such were the people that now came into Britain, and we must trace their progress.

CHAPTER III.

The English Conquest.

17. **Hengist and Horsa.**—We have seen that while the Picts and Scots were attacking the Britons from the north, the south and east coasts of the island were threatened by the English. There is a story that a British prince named Vortigern invited two English chieftains, Hengist and Horsa (the Horse and the Mare) to help him against the Picts and Scots. These chiefs belonged to the tribe of the Jutes and their followers "were fierce men of great size with blue eyes, ruddy complexion and yellow streaming hair." They and the neighbouring tribes, from their fondness for plundering expeditions, were the terror of the fishing villages on the North Sea and the English Channel. In their light flat-bottomed skiffs, they would suddenly appear on the coast, sail up the river mouths, rob and murder without mercy, and as quickly disappear again. Hengist and Horsa landed on the island of Thanet in Kent and easily defeated the Picts. But the English showed no intention of leaving Britain and

when they had been joined by other ship loads from their homes across the German Ocean they advanced against the Britons, and having won a great battle at *Aylesford*, set up a kingdom in Kent. Those of the Britons that were able, fled to the continent. The rest took shelter in the forests, and when driven by want they came out of their hiding places, they were mercilessly put to death. The English were heathens, and showed no mercy to the Christian Britons whom they conquered. 451 A.D.

18. **The Heptarchy.**—The news of the conquest of Kent soon brought over many more people from Germany. One band of Saxons, under Ella, landed on the South Coast west of Kent, advanced eastward till they came to the strong fortress of Anderida, and when they had starved it out, slew all that were therein, and set up a kingdom of the South Saxons in 491. In 495 another band under Cerdic forced their way up Southampton Water, and established the kingdom of the West Saxons in 519. They extended their kingdom till it included all the country between Sussex and the British Channel. These successes of the Jutes and Saxons in the south, were followed by invasions of the Angles on the east. They over-ran the country from the Humber to the Forth, and set up the kingdom of Northumbria. The eastern counties were taken possession of by other bands, the Northfolks, and the Southfolks, who founded Norfolk and Suffolk, which were afterwards united as the Kingdom of East Anglia. Meanwhile other Angles sailed up the Trent, drove the Britons before them across the Severn, and set up a kingdom which they called Mercia or Marchland because they were on *the march*, that is on the borders 547 A.D.

of the Britons. Nor were the Saxons idle. Numbers of them sailed up the Thames and established two kingdoms, those of the **East Saxons** (Essex) and the **Middle Saxons** (Middlesex). Thus there were in all seven kingdoms set up in Britain by these wild heathen tribes, and so they have been called the **Heptarchy**, a word that means 'seven kingdoms.'

19. **The British Territory.**—By following what has been said, with the aid of a map, it will be plain that in about one hundred and fifty years, the English conquered and occupied all the eastern part of Britain, and that only the hilly country of the west remained in the hands of the Britons. Moreover this British portion was in three separate parts. **West Wales**, (Devon and Cornwall) **Wales**, and **Strathclyde** (the country between the Mersey and the Clyde). The two last had formed a single powerful British kingdom the people of which called themselves Cymry (Comrades) till in 607 the Northumbrians took Chester and the country between the Dee and the Mersey.

20. **The English after the Conquest.**—You know already that the English tribes were not generally ruled by kings in Germany. In England however, we find that they established kings from the first. This is because victorious generals like Hengist and Ella could easily make themselves into Kings. This was one great change in the customs of the English which the conquest brought about: another was, that the king's gesiths became nobles under the name of *thegns*: but in most respects they lived in England as they had done in Germany, villages, hundreds and kingdoms having their hundred moots, town moots, and folk moots respectively, and the king being obliged to rule as his thegns wished.

CHAPTER IV.

Introduction of Christianity.

21. **The Barbarians and Christianity.**—As has been said, Christianity had been made the religion of the Roman Empire by Constantine, and when Hengist and Horsa landed in Britain Christianity was the religion of the country. While Britain was being attacked by the English, other parts of the Empire were also over-run by barbarians from the east and north. Most of these barbarians soon learnt Christianity. The **Franks** especially, who conquered Gaul and gave it its modern name of France, very soon became Christians. The English however remained heathen, hated Christianity, and generally in their wars with the Britons killed all the priests.

22. **Ethelbert and Augustine.**—Towards the end of the sixth century Kent was ruled by Ethelbert, who must have been a very wise king, for without fighting he induced the other English kings to recognize him as their "over-lord," that is to fight under his orders against the Britons. In his time the English began to settle down peacefully, and the trade between Britain and Gaul which had been interrupted by the English invasions began again. One result of this intercourse was that Ethelbert married a Christian princess, Bertha, the daughter of a Frankish king. Though Ethelbert was a heathen, he allowed his wife to have her own religion, and when she came to England she brought with her a Christian bishop and built a Christian church. By and by a company of monks came from Rome and at their head was one named Augustine. They were sent by the

596 A.D.

Pope Gregory I. and there is a pretty story of how they came to be sent. One day, before Gregory was made Pope, he had seen some beautiful children for sale in the market place at Rome, and being told that they were Angles he had said, "they should be angels they are so fair." And now that he was Pope he remembered them, and sent Augustine to tell the people about Christ and his teaching. Queen Bertha was glad to receive the monks from Rome. Very soon Ethelbert became a Christian, and many of his people followed his example. The kings of East Anglia and Essex not long after became Christians too.

23. **Conversion of the other Kingdoms and organisation of the Church.**—At this time the powerful kingdom of Northumbria was ruled by Ethelfrith, who, with his people, was still heathen. Ethelfrith led the Northumbrians when they took Chester, and there he put the monks to death, because they prayed to God to help them against him. Finally Ethelfrith was slain in battle and was succeeded by his kinsman Edwin. He too was a great warrior, and a wiser ruler than Ethelfrith. He built ships and sent them against the Britons in Anglesea. He went north and founded a city and called it Edinburgh after his own name. He assumed the title of *Bretwalda* or great ruler. Now he married a Kentish wife who was a Christian. When she went to Northumberland she took with her Paulines, one of the monks that had come from Rome, and soon Edwin and his people were converted to the Christian faith.

The conversion of Northumbria was the death-blow to heathenism in England. Though Mercia was not yet converted, and Penda, its savage king, was still heathen, and though the people only gra-

dually learnt the new religion, still every year it became more and more powerful. On the death of Penda, St. Chad converted the Mercians and founded his church at Lichfield. Sussex yielded to the preaching of Wilfrith, the apostle of Sussex, (670—685). At last all the seven kingdoms became Christian. Differences arose afterwards amongst the Christians themselves. The people in Mercia and Northumbria had been converted chiefly by missionaries from Ireland, which had remained Christian because it had not been invaded by the barbarians like most of the Roman Empire. The people in Wessex and elsewhere had been converted by the Roman monks. The Irish Church differed from the Roman as to the way priests ought to shave their heads and the time at which the resurrection of Christ ought to be commemorated, and the question arose as to which church the English should belong to. Thereupon, Oswy, king of Northumbria, called a great meeting at Whitby (the Synod of Whitby), and on the advice of Wilfrith, a northern man, it was resolved to follow the Roman customs. So the Pope sent over a priest named Theodore to England to put the Church in order. He set bishops in each kingdom: but all the bishops were to be under the Archbishop of Canterbury, and to derive their authority from him. And this system begun by Theodore has continued to this day. From this time also the system of parishes and parish priests dates. A parish means one or two townships in which an income was provided for a priest. Before the time of Theodore the priests had all been monks who had lived apart in monasteries teaching men to live good lives by their example. From his time you must remember there were the monasteries with their monks and in

664 A.D.

addition parish priests scattered over the country who were under the bishops, just as the bishops were under the Archbishop of Canterbury.

CHAPTER V.

England united under one King.

24. **Northumbria and Mercia.**—Although seven English kingdoms had been set up in Britain, they only remained independent of one another for a very short time. The three larger kingdoms, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex each in turn made itself supreme over the others. The first kingdom to establish a Supremacy was Northumbria. Two of its great kings Ethelfrith and Edwin have been already mentioned. But Mercia under Penda was also very powerful and for nearly sixty years (627-685) a great struggle for supremacy went on between the two kingdoms. The chief object of the contest was the possession of East Anglia, but at first the fighting was all the fiercer because of the hatred of the heathen Penda and his Mercians for the Christian Northumbrians. After Penda's death in battle Wulfere succeeded him.

Under Wulfere the Mercians drove the West Saxons across the Thames, occupied the territory north of that river, over-ran Essex, and took London itself. But in Northumbria also there was a powerful king, Egfrith, who overthrew Wulfere and forced him to surrender the province of Lindeswaras (Lincolnshire). Mercia might have suffered more but Egfrith was intent on carrying on war against the Britons. He

conquered Strathclyde and appointed Cuthbert over Carlisle. Collecting a considerable army he crossed the Firth of Forth, and carried war into the land of the Picts. But the Picts were no mean foes. At Nechstanmere in Fifeshire they turned upon the English, and Egfrith and his nobles lay dead on the field. Only one solitary fugitive returned to England to tell the sad tale. Cuthbert died of a broken heart. The glory of Northumbria was at an end. 685 A.D.

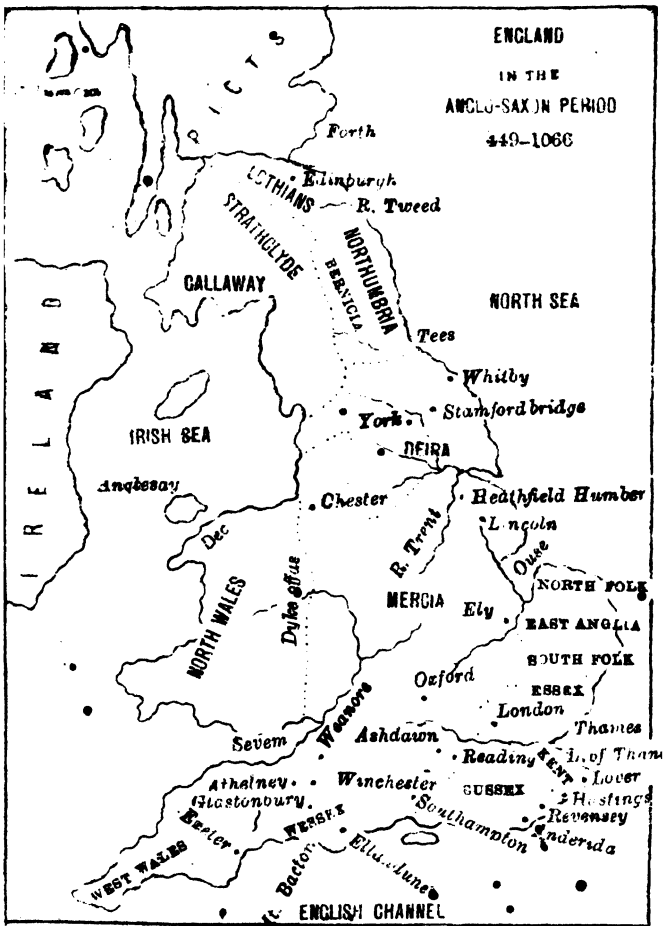
25. **Mercian Supremacy.**—On the death of Egfrith and the fall of Northumbria, Mercia at once became the chief English kingdom. Ethelred succeeded Wulfere. The Lindeswaras were soon recovered, and, by a peace with Northumbria, he became master of Middle England.

But now the third of the great English kingdoms, Wessex, was becoming powerful under its king Ini. He attacked the Britons in the west and drove them out of Somersetshire and there erected the monastery of Glastenbury which was to become famous in history. He introduced a code of laws to provide for the safety of his subjects, and these laws are the most ancient of all English laws. When Ceolred of Mercia came against him he was able to drive him back. But under the influence of his wife, who showed him how vain and passing were worldly pleasures or triumphs, he laid aside his crown and sought peace and rest in a pilgrimage to Rome.

26. **Offa. 758.—795.**—After this retirement for thirty years fighting went on without much result till Offa became King of Mercia and under him Mercia became more powerful than ever before. He directed his energies first against the Britons of Wales and drove them before him. He took Shrewsbury, the town in the scrub or bush—and after

the manner of the Romans built a wall from the Wye to the Dee to keep the Britons back. This wall, part of which is still to be seen, was named "Offa's dyke." He gave one of his daughters in marriage to the king of Wessex, and another to the king of Northumbria, and in this way he gained more power. At this time Charles the Great was king of the Franks. He gave Offa a great deal of trouble, for he was always ready to assist those that rebelled against Offa. At his court Egbert, a claimant to the throne of Wessex, had sought refuge.

27. **Egbert, king of the English.**—On the death of Offa in 795, Charles sent Egbert back to England, and very soon the people south of the Thames acknowledged him as their king. Egbert drove the Welsh into Cornwall and fixed the Tamar as their boundary line. Leading his army against the King of
825 A.D. Mercia he overthrew him in the battle of Ellandune, and Mercia bowed to the rule of Wessex. Northumbria, weak, broken up by internal dissension, and unable to oppose his advance, readily acknowledged him as lord. Thus under Egbert the whole of England was brought under the rule of Wessex, and with him begins the supremacy of Wessex which lasted until people had ceased to think of the distinction between Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex, and regarded the royal house of Wessex as the royal house of England. Egbert is therefore called the first King of the English—the first of a long line of kings and ancestor of our present Sovereign.


ENGLAND
IN THE
ANGLO-SAXON PERIOD
449–1066
PICTS
Forth
Edinburgh
LOTHIANS
R. Tweed
STRATHCLYDE
BERNICIA
NORTHUMBRIA
CALLAWAY
NORTH SEA
Tees
Whitby
York
Stamford bridge
IRISH SEA
DEIRA
IRELAND
Anglesey
Chester
Heathfield Humber
Lincoln
Dee
R. Trent
Ouse
NORTH FOLK
MERCIA
Ely
EAST ANGLIA
NORTH WALES
Dyke of Offa
SOUTH FOLK
Oxford
ESSEX
London
Severn
Wessex
Ashdown
Thames
Reading
Isle of Thanet
KENT
Athelney
Winchester
SUSSEX
Lover
Glastonbury
Hastings
Southampton
Pevensey
Exeter
WESSEX
Portland
Bacton
Ellandune
WEST WALES
ENGLISH CHANNEL

EARLY ENGLISH KINGS.

827 A.D.—1017 A.D.

	A.D.		A.D.
Egbert	827	Edmund I.	940
Ethelwulf	836	Edred	946
Ethelbald	857	Edwy	955
Ethelbert	860	Edgar	959
Ethelred I.	866	Edward the Martyr	987
Alfred	871	Ethelred II.	987
Edward the Elder...	901	Edmund II, Ironside	1017
Athelstan	925		

CHAPTER VI.

Incursions of the Danes.

927 A.D.—975 A.D.

28. Egbert, 827—836.—Egbert, "Bright eye," had peace in his kingdom for a time. The later years of his reign were disturbed by the Danes and Northmen. These were the inhabitants of Denmark and Norway, but for convenience we call them simply the Danes. They were of the same race as the English, and their language was nearly the same. In fact their invasions of England were very like the series of invasion of Britain by the English which began in 449. They were still heathens and hated Christianity as the English had done, and whenever they could they killed the priests and burnt their churches. They were great seamen, and by the beginning of the ninth century had made their attacks on nearly all the countries of Europe, even entering the Mediterranean.

They would sail up the mouth of a river, build a strong earth work as a defence for their camp, scour the country round, and, carrying off all the cattle and treasure they could find, they would sail away home again. They continued their ravages on the east and south coasts until Egbert met them in battle at **Hengist's Down** in Cornwall and defeated them. The following year Egbert died. The Danes soon reappeared, and it was not an easy matter to drive them off. For though the king of Wessex was the overlord of the whole of England, still there were many smaller kings under him, and as these governed their own lands and had their own troops, it took a long time to get their forces brought together to fight. Between these petty kings, too, there was a great deal of jealousy and enmity, so that if the Bretwalda were a weak king it was difficult for him to get his vassal kings to take united action. And that is just what happened during the reigns of the four kings after Egbert. The Danes continued to come over in greater numbers and settled in the east and the north. They took **Edmund**, a prince of East Anglia, and put him to death, and the town of **Bury St. Edmund's** is so called because it was the scene of his martyrdom.

835 A.D.

29. **Alfred. 871—901.**—When at last **Alfred the Great** ascended the throne, he had very hard work to keep the Danes in check. So strong indeed had the Danes become, that, for a time, Alfred had to flee before them and take refuge in the island of **Athelney** (*Prince's Island*), amongst the marshes of Somerset. After a time things grew brighter. In a battle in Devon the Danes were defeated, and the magic banner called the Raven, that was the bringer of victory, was captured. Alfred too from his retreat

summoned his followers, and coming up with the Danes at Edington on the borders of Dorsetshire gained a complete victory. The Danish camp was besieged, and after fourteen days the leader Guthrum, who had made himself King of East Anglia, surrendered. He and all his followers agreed to become Christians and were baptized. East Anglia, and the land north of Watling Street, a Roman road that went from London to Chester, was given to Guthrum and he was to be Alfred's vassal. This is known as the Peace of Wedmore. The territory given to the Danes was called the Danelagh. For several years to come all danger from the Danes was at an end. Alfred spent them in those labours for the good of his people which entitle him to be called "the Great." To protect his kingdom from invasion he improved the military service and built a fleet. The laws of Ini and Offa were brought into force, and justice was better administered. The famous schools of the north had sunk into ruin. Alfred set himself to revive education. "Every free born youth should abide at his book," said he, "till he can well understand English writing." Scholars were summoned from abroad, and Alfred even superintended a school of his own. In literature he led the way by translating Bede's "History of the Saxon Church." Nor did he confine his attention to his own kingdom alone. He sent an expedition to explore the White Sea. He sent ambassadors several times to Rome and once to Jerusalem, and even sent alms to the Christians of India. This was the first instance of communication between England and India. Alfred died in 901 and was buried in Winchester.

30. Edward the Elder. 901—925.—Alfred had been content to limit his rule to England south of Watling Street. Not so the great kings that followed

him. Edward the Elder led his forces against the Danes and in this he was greatly aided by his sister. She was married to the Under King of Mercia and after his death as the "Lady of Mercia" governed that kingdom. She fortified and walled many towns. The Danes had secured towns also, the "Five Boroughs" of Mercia. The Lady set her heart on recovering two of these, Derby and Leicester. She succeeded in taking them, but she died before she could complete her work. Edward thereupon added Mercia to Wessex. The war with the Danes was continued. All England south of the Humber was subdued, while the princes of Strathclyde, Wales, Northumberland and Scotland, seeing what a mighty prince Edward was, chose him as "Father and Lord."

Athelstan. 925—940.—Athelstan, Edward's golden haired grandson, succeeded. The Danes allied themselves with the Scots and the Welsh, and Athelstan seemed in great danger, but in the great battle or Brunanburgh the allies were routed.

31. Edmund I. 940—946.—During the reign of Edmund, Athelstan's successor, the Danes tried to recover Northumberland; but they were defeated and an earl or governor was appointed to rule for the king. To prevent the Scots helping the Danes again, Edmund made an alliance with them and gave Cumberland, part of the old British kingdom of Strathclyde, to their king on condition of his recognising Edmund as his over-lord. In the midst of his successes he came to an untimely end. While he was at supper a robber who had been outlawed sat down at the king's table. Edmund tried to drag him out by his hair but he had a dagger hidden under his clothes and stabbed the King.

32. Edgar. 959—975.—The next great king was Edgar. He reigned in great glory. He granted the

Welsh king peace on condition that he should supply him with three hundred wolves' heads every year. Within three or four years there were no wolves left in the country, which was a very good thing, as they were a source of great trouble to farmers and shepherds. When Edgar visited Chester, it is said that he went about in very great state, and that eight vassal kings rowed his barge on the Dee.

33. Dunstan.—In those days there lived a very great man. His name was Dunstan. He was born at Glastonbury, and as a youth was fond of music and reading and handicraft work. By Edmund he was appointed Abbot of Glastonbury and it was through his advice that the alliance was made with the Scots. Edgar appointed him Archbishop of Canterbury and for sixteen years the kings followed his advice in governing the country, consequently many good laws were introduced, people were obliged to obey them, justice was rightly administered, and slavery was discouraged. The educational movement begun by Alfred had come to an end with his death. Dunstan set himself to revive it. For this purpose he established forty new monasteries and reformed those already existing. The monks were made to teach boys so that schools were set up in the monasteries. Men of learning were invited from other countries to come and teach in these schools.

CHAPTER VII.

Changes in the English Constitution.

34. The Kings.—Something has already been said about the different classes of the English and the way in which they were governed. Great changes had gradually come about in these matters

some of which must be mentioned here. A great cause of change was the reduction of the seven or eight English kingdoms to three and afterwards to one. Kings like Edwin of Northumbria and Penda of Mercia were far more powerful than kings of little countries like Kent and Essex had been, and the kings of the House of Wessex like Edgar the Peaceful were more powerful still. The introduction of Christianity also made a great difference in the way people thought of the kings. They got themselves crowned by a bishop or archbishop and they and their office came to be thought of as sacred. Their power was limited however. They could not do anything important without the consent of the Witenagemot or assembly of the wise. This consisted of the king's great officers of state, the superior clergy, members of the king's family, and thegns chosen by him.

35. **Popular Assemblies.**—While there were still small kingdoms, each had its folkmoot open to all freemen, but as the kingdoms became larger the folkmoots ceased to be held, as the distances people would have to come to attend them became greater. The town and hundred courts were still held and a new court came into existence, the **Shire Court.** When a small kingdom was conquered and became part of a large one, it was regarded as a shire or part of that kingdom and its folkmoot was the shire moot or shire court. To control these courts the king appointed **Ealdormen** to preside in them and later, when these officials did not do their duty well, **Sheriffs.** An Ealdorman generally ruled more than one shire and was often the dispossessed king of a small kingdom or his descendant. Beside the Sheriff and the Ealdorman the Bishop generally sat in the Shire Court.

36. The Ceorls and Slaves.—We have seen that the English had slaves in Germany, but that most of the nation were freemen. Now it is known that about six hundred years after the coming of Hengist and Horsa, the class of freemen, ceorls, had almost disappeared and had been replaced by a class of **Serfs**, called later **Villeins**, who were almost in a position of slavery. How this came about is not certainly known, but sometimes freemen made themselves the serf of some thegn, so as to be protected against the Danes. There were still slaves but their number was constantly diminishing. This was due to the influence of Christianity. The bishops often freed slaves who came into their possession, the clergy preached against slavery, and the Church excommunicated people who sold children as slaves.

CHAPTER VIII.

Early English Kings.—(*Continued.*)

975 A.D.—1066 A.D.

37. Edward the Martyr. 975—978.—On the death of Edgar, his son Edward, through the influence of Dunstan, succeeded. But there was much trouble about it; for while the people in the north wished Edward for their king, those in the south were in favour of his step-brother Ethelred. At last an evil deed was done. One day when Edward was out hunting he was treacherously murdered. As he was a very good man he was regarded as a martyr, and so he is always known as **Edward the Martyr.**

38. Ethelred II. 978—1017.—Ethelred II., his

step-brother, was then made king. He is known as Ethelred 'The Unready'—the man without *rede* or council. He was a very foolish king and was not loved by his people. During his reign the Danes began to attack England again. First came Olaf, a Northman. But Ethelred, instead of fighting, gave him money to go away home again. Of course this only brought the Danes back again the oftener. And Ethelred, instead of getting ships ready while they were away to prevent them landing when they came back, went to war with Malcolm, king of Scotland, who had refused to give him any money, but who had told him he would help him to fight the Danes if he wished. Ethelred also went to war with Normandy, but nothing came of it, except that in the end he married Emma, a sister of William, Duke of Normandy.

39. **Massacre of the Danes.**—The Danes came again and again under their king Sweyn, and each time they got more money than before. Ethelred had to tax the people to obtain this money, and the tax was called Danegeld or Dane Money. At last the king tried to get rid of the Danes by treachery. On St. Brice's Day an order was secretly given to murder those who had recently settled in the country, and Gunhild, sister of the king of Sweden, was one of those who fell.

40. **The Danes conquer England.**—When the news reached Sweyn, he was very angry. He took an oath that he would drive out Ethelred, and he came over to England with a mighty army. Soon he over-ran the south of England; but a certain Northman, the Ealdorman of East Anglia, fought so bravely against Sweyn that he had to go away to Denmark again. In 1013 Sweyn and his son Canute returned with a large army. The north of England

took him for their king. Leaving Canute in the north, Sweyn marched south, plundering and laying waste the country, and burning the churches as he went. London fell into his hands, and Ethelred fled with his wife Emma to Normandy. Sweyn died shortly afterwards. The Witan recalled Ethelred from Normandy. But the country was now divided into two parties—those in the north who were in favour of a Danish king, those in the south who clung to the family of Alfred. Ethelred's brave son Edmund Ironside was successful at first and Canute, who had been chosen king by the Danish host, had to leave the country. But he was not long in returning. Many battles were fought between him and Edmund Ironside and many good men fell. At last, after a great battle at Assandun in which Canute was victorious, they came to an agreement, by which Edmund was to be king of Wessex and Canute king of Mercia and Northumbria. But in a very short time Edmund died and Canute became king of all England.

CHAPTER IX.

Danish Rule.

1017 A.D.—1041 A.D.

41. Canute. 1017—1036.—Canute began his reign by killing or banishing those that were likely to give him trouble, then he sent to Normandy for Emma, Ethelred's widow. She came over to England and Canute married her, but she left her children Alfred and Edward in Normandy. Although Canute had been unscrupulous in his means of obtaining the kingdom, he ruled as well as any of the great Eng-

lish kings before him. Under him, the Danish title of Earl replaced that of Ealdorman. There were three principal Earls. Godwin of Wessex, Leofric of Mercia, and Siward of Northumbria. The first two were Englishmen. He sent away all his Danish army, except a small company which he kept as his own guard, and governed England, not as a foreign conqueror, but as an English king. The English were of great service to him too, for they helped him to dethrone the king of Norway. Canute, besides being king of England and Denmark, thus became king of Norway; also Malcolm of Scotland acknowledged himself his vassal. So Canute was a very mighty king. Twice he visited Rome, and secured from the Pope that the English pilgrims should be exempted from the taxes levied on travellers. He made strict laws against evil-doers. He was fond of the clergy and gave large sums of money to the church. At Assandun he built a church in memory of the victory he had gained over Edmund Ironside. A pleasant story is told of him. He ordered his chair to be placed on the sea shore. When the tide began to rise, he ordered the waves to stop, but on they came till he was surrounded with the water. This he did to show that though a king might be a mighty man the sea would not obey him, and that, therefore, we ought to give all honor to God who rules the sea and the wind. Canute was a good and wise king, and in his days there was peace in the land.

42. Harold I. 1036—1039.—Canute left three sons, but only one of these, Hardicanute, was the son of Emma. To Hardicanute he left Denmark. To Harold, another son, he left England. And again there was a dispute. The north wished Harold for their king; the south, Hardicanute. The Witenagemot settled the matter by dividing the kingdom

into two parts. But Hardicanute stayed in Denmark. So in the end, Harold became king of the south also. He was a very wicked man, and "never was a bloodier deed done in the land since the Danes came" than when Harold seized Ethelred's son Alfred, who had come over to England, put his eyes out, slew every tenth man that came with him, and sold the rest as slaves. Harold died in 1040, and then Hardicanute came over and was crowned king.

43. Hardicanute 1039—1041.—Hardicanute was even more cruel than Harold, and showed his hatred for his dead step-brother by having his body dug up and cast into a common sewer. When the people of Worcester did not pay their taxes he sent and burned the town and pillaged the shire. His reign fortunately was but a short one. He was attending a feast and while drinking fell down dead. Wearied out with such kings as these, it was with no ordinary joy that the Witenagemote looked to the old line of Alfred for a successor, and Edward the surviving son of Ethelred II, and Emma, was called to the throne.

CHAPTER X.

The English line restored.

1041 A. D.—1066 A. D.

44. Edward the Confesser. 1041—1066.—We now come to the reign of the last king of the House of Cedric. Edward was not a great ruler or lawgiver, but he was the last king of the House of Cedric that ruled in England, and in him that house was restored after Danish rule. He was beloved for these things while living and his memory was cherished after he was dead. Edward was forty years of age when he

was chosen king. He had spent the greater part of his life in Normandy with his mother's friends, so that he had learned the Norman manners and customs and language. When he was made king he brought over many of his friends from Normandy, and appointed them to high offices in the state. One, Robert, was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he had so much influence over Edward, that there was a saying amongst the people, that if he were to say a black crow was white, the king would believe him rather than his own eyes. Now this introduction of Norman ways and the Norman language, and this filling up of the chief offices in the state with foreigners was not pleasing to the English, and especially to the great English noble, Earl Godwin. By and bye it led to an open quarrel. Fitz Eustace, a Norman, had been on a visit to the king, who was his brother-in-law. On leaving he went with his followers to Dover, to pass over from there to his own land at Boulogne. But, on arriving at Dover, he and his followers behaved very lawlessly. So the men of Dover rose against them and killed several of them, and drove the rest of them out of the town. Eustace returned to the king, and told his story. The king was very angry and ordered Earl Godwin to punish the people of Dover. But Earl Godwin would not do so. He said that the king must hear also what the people of Dover had to say, and that instead of their being punished Eustace should be punished. Then the king summoned the earls Leofric of East Anglia and Siward of Northumbria, and there was likely to be a great battle between Edward's followers and Earl Godwin's men. But it was agreed to let the Witenagemote settle the matter, and as Earl Godwin did not appear when he was summoned to do so, he

and his sons were outlawed, and his daughter Edith who had become Edward's wife, was placed in a Nunnery. Godwin went to Flanders and his son Harold to Ireland.

45. **Return of Godwin.**—Godwin had been outlawed. After a year he returned with a mighty force, and the king gathered his men against him, but as before it was thought better to summon the Witan. They resolved that Godwin and his family should be inlawed, and restored to their estates, and that the king should take back Edith, his wife. The result was that Edward's Norman friends fled in terror to Normandy for they knew that Godwin would not tolerate them in England. Stigand, an Englishman and a friend of Godwin, was made Archbishop of Canterbury in place of Robert. But Godwin though he did not like foreigners to come and get power in England was very greedy of power himself. As Earl of Wessex he ruled all the country south of the Thames. His son Harold was made Earl of East Anglia: Tostig, Earl of Northumberland; while another son Sweyn was a very bad man, and his bad conduct turned the people somewhat against the family of Godwin. Nevertheless when Godwin died in 1053, the people mourned his death, for he upheld their rights and ruled well.

46. **Death of Edward the Confessor.**—Edward died in 1066. He was not a great king, but he was a very good and pious man. Men looked upon him as a Saint and called him the Confessor. Westminster Abbey was built by him and he was buried there.

47. **The Normans.**—The Normans have been mentioned more than once already, and it is time to say who they were. We have seen how the Northmen of Denmark and Norway first plundered and then settled in England. They did just the

same in the country now called France. One of the descendants of Charlemagne gave them the country on the banks of the river Seine with Rouen as its capital. This territory came to be called Normandy, the land of the Northmen. The Normans were ruled by Dukes who were nominally subject to the Frankish kings but really were independent. They learnt the French language and customs however, and became much more civilized than the English or than the Danes who had settled in England. But it must not be forgotten that they were not Frenchmen but men of really the same race as the English and Danes.

The connection between England and Normandy began with the marriage of Ethelred II. with Emma, sister of Richard Duke of the Normans. One result of this was that Ethelred's son Edward was brought up in Normandy and came to have a great liking for the Normans. Another was that William I., who became Duke of the Normans in 1035, was a cousin of Edward's. This Duke William was a great fighting man and a very stern ruler. The Norman barons, corresponding to the English thegns, were not at first disposed to own his authority, but he showed his skill as a statesman and soldier by reducing them to submission. This done he began to plan to become king of England. During the time of Godwin's banishment he visited England. Now Edward had no children and William afterwards said that Edward had promised him the crown, because as Edward's cousin he was next in succession to him. Edward could not promise the crown as the rule was that the Witan should appoint one of the royal house to be king. After Godwin's death Harold, Godwin's son, was by chance wrecked on the coast of Normandy, and William by a trick

induced him to swear a very sacred oath that he would help William get the English crown. Having prepared things in this way he thought that on the Confessor's death he would be made king.

CHAPTER XI.

Harold II.

1066 A.D.

48. Harold II. 1066.—On the death of Edward, Harold, Godwin's son, was at once chosen king. When this news reached Duke William of Normandy he was so angry that he could not speak. He resolved to cross over to England and drive Harold from the throne and at once commenced to collect an army and a fleet. He sent to the Pope and promised him great gifts if he were successful, and asked the Pope's blessing on his enterprise. The Pope blessed his undertaking and sent him a holy banner. Harold too was not inactive. He gathered together a great fleet to prevent the Normans from landing. But Duke William was not the only person that Harold had to defend his throne against. His brother Tostig had been outlawed by the Witan, because he was governing his earldom so badly. Now he had succeeded in getting Harold Hardrada, the king of Norway, to take up his cause. Harold Hardrada and Tostig came over with a great fleet and a mighty army, and landed at the mouth of the Tyne. Harold, Godwin's son, was in the south watching the Normans. When he heard of Tostig's arrival, he marched north and came up with Tostig's forces at

Stamford Bridge. Harold, anxious to avoid a battle, offered Tostig one-third of his kingdom. And "what shall be given to Harold of Norway" asked Tostig. Harold answered, "Seven feet of English ground or a foot more, for he is taller than common men." But Tostig would not desert his friend. So the battle was begun. The fight was fierce and long and ended in a victory for Harold. Tostig and Harold Hardrada lay dead on the field.

1066 A.D.

49. **Battle of Hastings.**—Four days after the battle of Stamford Bridge Duke William landed at Pevensey. The news was brought to Harold when he was celebrating the victory of Stamford by giving a feast at York. He at once led his army south and collected as many more men as he could get, and marched to Senlac or Hastings. Harold had two classes of men in his army, his thegns and house carls or body guard—well armed and trained soldiers: and peasants who only fought occasionally and were very badly armed. The well armed men he placed as usual in close order with their shields locked together so that they formed as it were a castle. The rest of his men were behind. Duke William also drew up his army in battle array. At first Harold's men held to their ground, and the Normans could not break their ranks. Though Duke William fought most bravely himself and killed many with his own sword, still for a time it looked as if Harold would be successful. The Normans drew back. A report was spread that Duke William was killed. But William took off his helmet that all might see him, and shouted, "I live, and will yet win the day by God's help." Again the Normans advanced to the attack. But they could not break the English ranks, for they kept close together as

Harold had told them. When William saw this he played a trick. He ordered his men to pretend to fly, and the English, thinking they were really flying, rushed out of the shield ring in pursuit. This was just what William had wished. He at once ordered his men to turn. The English being now all in disorder were cut down in great numbers. Onward the Normans pressed to the top of the hill where Harold and his guard still were. The fight was long and many were killed. At last an arrow struck Harold in the eye and he fell. The English fled. The Normans mangled Harold's body. His mother offered for it its weight in gold. William would not give it to her. So it was buried under a heap of stones on the place where he fell.

THE NORMAN KINGS.

	A.D.		A.D.
William I.	1066	Henry I. ...	1100
William II.	1087	Stephen ...	1135-54

CHAPTER I.

William I.—The Conqueror.

1066 A.D.—1087 A.D.

50. **William chosen King.**—Although William was really a conqueror he wished to seem to become king by the choice of the nation so that he might not have to rule by force alone. He therefore ravaged the country round London but waited for the citizens to submit voluntarily. Meanwhile the Witan chose Edgar the Atheling (*i.e.* prince) a mere boy, the son of the eldest of Edmund Ironside's children, king. If all England had been united, William might yet have been driven out, but the great northern earls Edwin and Morcar with their followers deserted Edgar and marched north. Then William placed himself between them and London and the Witan despairing went out to meet him and on bended knees, asked him to be their lord. So William entered London, the chosen king of the people, and was crowned in Westminster Abbey amidst the shouts of "yea, yea, King William," of his English subjects. An unfortunate thing happened in connection with this. The Normans did not know the customs of the English, and when the soldiers outside the Abbey heard the shouting "yea, yea," they thought something was wrong and set fire to the

houses around. The English rushed out of the Abbey to save their property, and there was much fighting between the Normans and the English and many were killed.

51. **Peace restored.**—William now had complete control over the south-eastern part of the kingdom and began to settle matters there. To protect London he built a fortress which afterwards became famous as "The Tower." All those who had fought against him at the battle of Hastings he regarded as traitors, and their land was taken from them and given to his Norman followers. To others who submitted to him he gave back their lands. In the north he had to leave things alone. He received the submission of Edwin and Morcar and appointed some new English earls. Three months after the battle of Hastings William returned to Normandy leaving his friend **William Fitzosbern** and his brother **Odo Bishop of Bayeux** to rule in his name.

52. **Rebellion of the English and conquest of the North and West.**—But Odo in William's absence governed very badly, which made the English hate their Norman rulers. Risings took place in Kent and at Exeter and elsewhere. William returned from Normandy, put down the insurrections in the south, and began systematically to conquer the rest of the country. He first took Exeter and mastered the West, and then York and all the country south of it on the eastern side of England. This was in 1068. In the next year the earls Edwin and Morcar and Edgar Atheling rose against him and obtained the help of a Danish fleet. York was taken, and its garrison of three thousand Normans slain. When the news reached William he vowed a bitter vow to take vengeance on **Northumbria**. Advancing to the Humber, he by a heavy bribe prevailed on the Danes

to withdraw. Crossing to York, he laid waste the country as far north as the Tees. Towns were pillaged and burned. The inhabitants were slain or driven across the Scottish border. The harvests were destroyed, the cattle slain, the implements of husbandry broken to pieces. The coast was especially wasted to keep back the Danes from coming again. For sixty miles the country was converted into a desert, and the famine that followed carried off immense numbers of victims. Next year William marched upon Chester, which submitted, and so his authority was established on the Welsh border. Two years later Edwin and Morcar again rebelled. But it was of no avail. The former fell in a skirmish on the Scottish border. The latter had to take refuge with Hereward in the Fens near Ely. William drove a causeway two miles long across the marshes. Morcar surrendered. Hereward, "the last of the Saxons," disappeared. This event marks the completion of the conquest. Next year he marched against Malcolm, king of Scotland, with whom Edgar the Atheling had taken refuge, and forced Malcolm to do homage.

53. **The Feudal System.**—There was now peace in the land. William's next troubles were to come not from the English, but from his own Normans. After the battle of Hastings, and again after the rebellion in the north, William took the lands from the English nobles that had been against him, and divided them amongst his Norman followers. The lands so given were to be held on what was called a *feudal tenure* and they were called *fiefs*. The persons holding the land were called tenants or vassals. They were bound, when called on, to follow the king to war and to render him service. He in turn was bound to protect them. These vassals of the king

divided their large holdings into *sub-tenancies*, their tenants being bound to them, as they themselves were bound to the king. Thus, at any time, if the king wished an army brought into the field, he had only to call on his lords. They called out their vassals and the thing was done. William had seen the danger of this system in Normandy and all over France? He himself and his ancestors had been unruly vassals to the Kings of the Franks and his vassals of Normandy had only been made to recognise his authority after a struggle of many years. He therefore took measures to prevent his English vassals from becoming too powerful and independent. First he put an end to the great earldoms of Mercia and Northumbria. Secondly in distributing the land, he was careful not to give any one man a very large tract of country in any one place; but rather several smaller pieces in different parts of the country. Thirdly every sub-tenant, besides taking the oath of fealty to his lord, had also to take an oath to the crown, and thus he became the king's man too. ++

54. **Domesday Book.**—William took advantage of the old laws that prevailed in England. He kept up the local courts of the hundred and the shire, and appointed the sheriffs himself. A chief court also was established in London, to which appeals might be made. The customs due to the crown from the various estates were carefully collected, and that there might be no cheating. William appointed officers to inquire into the condition of each district. They summoned before them, from each district and town, *jurors*, so called, because they on *oath* declared the extent and nature of each estate, the names, numbers, and conditions of its inhabitants, its value before and after the Conquest, and the sums due

from it to the Crown." These reports were all carefully recorded in a book called Domesday Book, which has been preserved to this day.

55. William and the Church.—When William was about to invade England, he sent for the Pope's blessing, and promised to do great things for the Church in England. And he would seem to have been very earnest about it. He put Stigand out of the See of Canterbury, and brought over from Normandy a very learned and good and wise man, named Lanfranc, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury. Lanfranc worked hand in hand with William. Almost all the English bishops were put out of their sees, and their places were filled by good and religious men from Normandy.

The bishops had to take the oath of vassalage to the king like any other person, and William would not allow the Pope to interfere in any way with the Church without his consent. So in this way William made himself very powerful, and the Church under him flourished. Many new monasteries and churches, were built, for the Normans were great builders and some of these churches, as Durham Cathedral, are still standing.

56. William's Government.—During the last years of William's reign there was peace in the land, so much so, that it was said "a man might fare over his realm with a bosom full of gold." But in some things William's rule was hard to bear. He was very fond of money. Heavy taxes were laid on the people to fill his coffers at Winchester. Other ways he had of getting money, such as a succession duty, levied on the tenant when succeeding to an estate, and "aids" or contributions on certain occasions, such as when the king's daughter was married. When the heir to an estate was a minor, the rents

went to the king until the heir came of age. If the estates fell to an heiress, she was often given in marriage to the highest bidder. One good thing William did. He put an end to the slave trade that was still carried on at Bristol.

57. **The Forest Laws.**—William was very fond of hunting. To enjoy this pastime he laid waste the greater part of Hampshire, and planted trees that he might have a good forest to hunt in. It was called the **New Forest.** He made laws too that no man, on pain of losing his eyes, was to kill any of the animals the King hunted.

58. **Death of William.**—In his later years William became very stout, and the French king having made a jest about it, William would be revenged. Entering France at the harvest season, he laid waste the country and set fire to the town of **Mantes.** While riding amongst the embers his horse stumbled. William was thrown forward violently on the pommel of his saddle, and was severely hurt. He was carried to **Rouen** only to die. Scarcely was the great man dead, when his friends ran away to their own houses. The King's apartments were plundered. His corpse was left, lying on the floor. At last a poor knight at his own expense had the body removed to **Caen,** where it was buried.

1087 A.D.

CHAPTER II.

William II.—Rufus.

1087 A.D.—1100 A.D.

59. William Rufus.—Robert, the eldest son of the Conqueror, became Duke of Normandy. William, the third son, who was called "The Red," because of the colour of his hair, crossed over to England, and having promised to govern the English according to their laws and to further the good of the Church, he was crowned king by Lanfranc. William was a strong, determined man like his father. Robert was a proud, foolish man. So the barons, led by Odo, who had been let out of prison, rose against William. They said they wished Robert to be king. But really their only reason for desiring this was to get more power into their own hands. The English, remembering how cruelly Odo had governed them before, took the side of William and they advanced against Odo and some barons who were assembled at Rochester. The barons were forced to surrender. They were driven into exile followed by the curses of the English.

60. The First Crusade.—Palestine had always been considered a sacred country by the Christians and they had been in the habit of making pilgrimages to it. Even when it fell into the hands of the Mohammadan Arabs they did not give up these pilgrimages. In the eleventh century the Turks, also Mohammadans, had in their turn conquered the Arabs and they began to kill and rob the pilgrims. In 1195 the Pope proclaimed a religious war of Christendom against the Turks, the first of the Crusades, *i.e.*, wars of the Cross. Many princes and

nobles of Europe joined the Crusade with enthusiasm and among them was Robert of Normandy. To raise money for an army he pawned Normandy to William for five years.

61. William's Government.—William had promised to act justly and govern uprightly when he was made king, and so long as Lanfranc was alive he continued to do so. But two years after William received the crown, Lanfranc died, and William soon showed how bad a man he was. He squandered all his father's savings in luxury and wickedness. When his money was all spent, he employed his minister, Ranulf Flambard, a priest, who was as wicked as himself, to get more. It was the custom that when a see or abbey was vacant, the revenue went to the King until the vacancy was filled up. For four years after the death of Lanfranc the See of Canterbury was allowed to remain vacant. There were many other vacant sees besides, and William drew all the rents. The people and even the barons were very angry at this. But William would not yield until it happened that he was attacked by a severe illness and he thought he was about to die. Then he sent to Bec, the monastery from which Lanfranc had come, and brought over Anselm and made him Archbishop of Canterbury. Now this Anselm was a very meek, good, and pious man and a great scholar, and it was only because the people wished it very much that he became archbishop. When William got better, he lived as wickedly and governed as badly as ever. But Anselm, though meek, was brave. He rebuked the King for his wickedness and would not give him the Church money. So the king had a bitter quarrel with Anselm, and Anselm retired to Normandy.

62. Death of William I.—William, like his

father, was fond of hunting. One day he went to hunt in the New Forest with his brother Henry. In the evening he was found dead with an arrow in his breast. Who shot the arrow no one could ever tell. But the people did not mourn for William, for his rule had brought much misery upon them. As the old chronicle says, "In his days all justice sank and all unrighteousness arose.

CHAPTER III.

Henry I.

1100 A.D.—1135 A.D.

63. **Henry I.**—On the death of William, Henry, his youngest brother, at once galloped off to Winchester and seized the royal treasure. Having secured this, he proceeded to London and was crowned at Westminster. But he knew very well the barons still wished for Robert, who was on his way home from the Holy Land.

64. **Henry and the English.**—Henry did two wise things so as to ensure the English being on his side. First at his coronation he gave a Charter of Liberties. In this he promised to do justice to the Church and to the vassals, who in their turn were to do justice to their sub-vassals, and to restore the good laws of Edward the Confessor. Secondly he married an English princess: Edith, the daughter of Margaret sister of Edgar Atheling and Malcolm king of Scotland. The English called her the Good Queen, but the Norman barons mocked at her and Henry, and her name had to be changed to the French Matilda. It is through Matilda that the English sovereigns since Henry I. trace their descent to the line of Cedric.

65. **Robert lands in England.**—The enthusiasm aroused in the people by Henry's charter and by his marriage, enabled him to overcome his foes. Robert landed in England. But he soon found himself face to face with an English army under Anselm, whom Henry had recalled; and he was glad to make peace and return to his own Normandy. The estates of the barons, who had sided with Robert, were confiscated.

66. **Robert taken prisoner.**—Meanwhile, Robert and his barons were oppressing their subjects in Normandy very much, and the people begged Henry to come and help them. Crossing with an English army he came up with Robert at Tenchebrai and gained a signal victory. Robert was taken prisoner and remained a prisoner for life. Henry became ruler of both England and Normandy. 1106 A.D.

67. **Henry's Quarrel with the Church.**—A great quarrel was going on in Europe between the Popes and the Emperors about *Investitures* i.e., the appointment of bishops and abbots. Since the duties of these were spiritual, the Popes claimed the sole right of appointing them, but since they held lands the Emperors would not allow this. In England the Norman Kings were accustomed to make bishops and abbots pay homage for their lands like barons. While abroad, Anselm had been concerned in the investiture dispute on the side of the Popes, and on his recall he refused to do homage to Henry I., who therefore seized the revenues of the See of Canterbury. After some years, by the help of the Pope, who had enemies enough without quarrelling with Henry, a compromise was agreed on. The King was to give the lands of the see and receive homage for them, the Pope was to give the ring and staff, the symbols of the spiritual authority.

68. **The Court of Exchequer.**—Henry, now free from war, turned his attention to the internal government of the country. Great as he was as a warrior, he was no less great as a statesman. Calling to his aid **Roger, Bishop of Salisbury**, a very wise and able man, who, from being but a poor clerk, had risen to this high position, Henry appointed him **Justiciar**, *i.e.*, Chief Minister. The estates of the barons which had been confiscated, were distributed amongst new men, who thus became dependent on the royal favour. A new organization was formed for the government of the country. The Justiciar was chief minister. In the absence of the King he acted as **Regent**. He presided over a court in which also sat the Chancellor and chief officers in the King's household. They were called **Barons of Exchequer**, from the checked cloth that covered the table around which they sat. This court met twice a year, and before it all the sheriffs from the counties appeared, bringing with them the monies due to the crown.

69. **The King's Court.**—Another court, the **Curia Regis**, i.e., the King's Court, was instituted. Over it too the Justiciar presided, in the absence of the king. The **Barons of Exchequer** also sat in this court, and while doing so they were called *Justices*. As a court of justice, the king's court was the highest court of appeal, and all disputes between the chief vassals of the crown were settled by it. The king's court could call up any case from the county courts. The Justices went *on circuit*. They presided over the county courts and fixed the amount to be paid to the King. By and by they sat as judges as well. In this way all the courts were brought under the *Curia Regis*, and so order was advanced and safety secured.

70. **Taxation.**—But with all this, Henry's hand fell heavy on the people. Taxes were increased, and, when with this came famine and a plague, it is no wonder we read of grumbling. Still men feared and trusted Henry. "Great was the awe of him. No man durst ill-do to another in his days. Peace he made for man and beast."

71. **Succession to the Throne.**—A sad event happened which forced Henry to turn his mind to the question of who was to be his successor. The ship in which William, his only son, was returning from Normandy, was wrecked and the Prince drowned. Henry had only one other child, a girl, named Matilda. But it would be something new for the rough bold barons to have a woman to rule over them. Henry, fearing this, induced them all to swear that on his death they would remain firm by Matilda and support her on the throne.

CHAPTER IV.

Stephen.

1135 A.D.—1154 A.D.

72. **Stephen, Earl of Blois,** was the son of Adela, a daughter of William the Conqueror. He had lived in England, and being of a happy, easy, and good-natured disposition, he was a great favourite with the people. On the death of Henry he claimed the throne, and the people of London, welcoming him with shouts of joy, chose him as their king. Stephen in turn promised them all sorts of good things. The rights of the Church were to be protected. The forests were to be thrown open to the barons to hunt in as they pleased. The people were no longer to pay Danegeld. Large gifts of crown land were given

away. Many new earls were created. The barons were allowed to fortify their castles. The churchmen did the same. The evils that followed to the people from this are sad to read of.

73. **Stephen quarrels with the Church.**—Stephen did not know how to rule. Having first allowed the nobles to get power, he as suddenly tried to put an end to it. He seized **Roger, Bishop of Salisbury,** at Oxford, and kept him in prison, till he yielded up his fortresses. This roused the church against Stephen. Even his brother **Henry, Bishop of Winchester,** deserted him and joined **Matilda,** who now landed in England to contest the crown.

74. **Civil War.**—The result was that the country was thrown into a state of complete disorder. All the evils of feudalism that William the Conqueror had foreseen came about. The barons pretended allegiance to Stephen or Matilda just as suited their interests for the moment and made war on one another just as they chose. In such a state of things the weakest suffered most. Throughout the land there was one wail of woe and misery. "The barons greatly oppressed the people. Wretched men died from hunger. Some lived on alms who before were rich. Some fled the country. Never was more misery." Men said openly "Christ and His Saints slept."

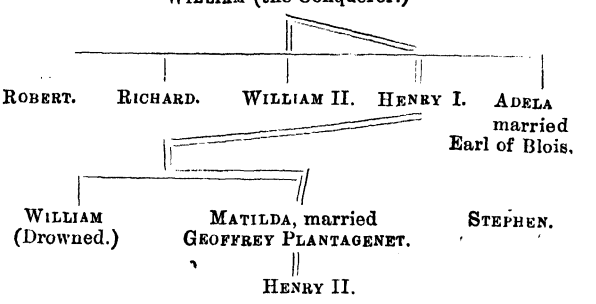
75. **The Battle of the Standard.**—Only one incident of the war need be noticed here.

1138 A.D. **David,** King of Scotland, took up the cause of Matilda, and, entering Yorkshire, pillaged and laid waste the country. The men in the north were roused. Baron, priest and freeman banded themselves together to drive the Scots back. Under **Thurstan, Archbishop of York,** they advanced to Northallerton. Three sacred Standards were

suspended from a pole fixed to a cart, (hence this battle is sometimes called "the Battle of the Standard"), and around them the English formed themselves in closed ranks. The Scots in vain tried to break their ranks and at last were thoroughly beaten.

76. **Treaty of Wallingford.**—At last Theobald Archbishop of Canterbury resolved to rescue the country from this state of misery. While Matilda had been trying to conquer England, her husband Geoffrey Plantagenet Duke of Anjou had conquered Normandy. Geoffrey died and was succeeded by his son Henry, who was known to be an active and clever prince. Theobald persuaded the churchmen and barons to let Stephen reign for the rest of his life on condition that Henry should succeed. As Stephen's only son was dead he agreed, and a treaty was made at *Wallingford*. The castles were to be razed; the crown lands resumed; the foreign mercenaries banished; and sheriffs appointed to restore order. Stephen was to continue king till his death. Henry was to succeed him. Within a year Stephen died. Henry returned from Normandy and received the crown. 1153 A.D.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE.



THE PLANTAGENETS.

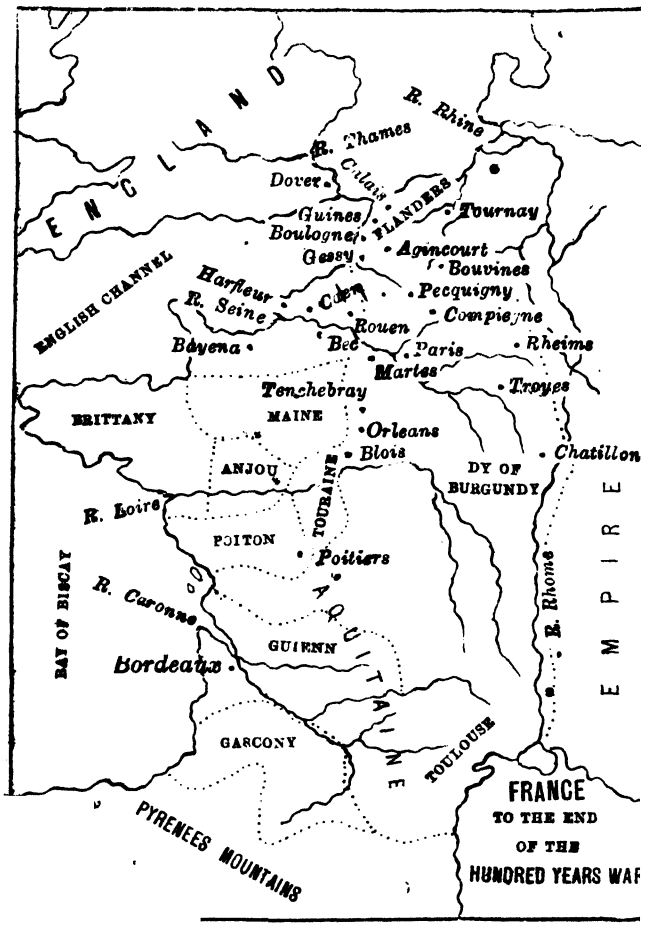
	A.D.		A.D.
Henry II.	1154	Edward I.	1272
Richard I.	1189	Edward II.	1307
John	1199	Edward III.	1327
Henry III.	1216	Richard II.	1377

CHAPTER I.

Henry II.—Curtmantle.

1154 A.D.—1189 A.D.

77. **Restoration of Order.**—Henry was twenty-one years old when he came to the throne. He was not at all a religious man. But he was very hard working and thoroughly understood how to govern. "He never sits down" it was said of him "he is always on his legs from morning till night." His reign is a very important one because during it the system of government which Henry I. had set up, and which had been destroyed in the troublous times of Stephen, was restored and perfected. He began his reign by carrying out the terms of the treaty that had been made with Stephen at Wallingford. The barons were ordered to pull down their fortresses. When any one refused, Henry quickly led an army against him, and the work was done. The crown lands that had been so foolishly given away by Stephen were taken back again. The foreign mercenaries were sent out of the country. New coins were issued. The King's Court and the Court of Exchequer were restored. New sheriffs were put over the shires. Once more justice was done in the land.


ENGLAND
R. Rhine
R. Thames
Calais
Dover
Guines
Boulogne
FLANDERS
Tournay
Agincourt
Bouvines
Gessy
Harfleur
Caen
Pecquigny
ENGLISH CHANNEL
R. Seine
Rouen
Compiegne
Bayeux
Bec
Paris
Rheims
Marles
Troyes
Tenchebray
BRITTANY
MAINE
Orleans
Blois
Chatillon
ANJOU
DY OF BURGUNDY
TOURAINE
R. Loire
POITON
Poitiers
AQUITAINE
R. Garonne
BAY OF BISCAY
GUIENN
Bordeaux
R. Rhone
EMPIRE
GASCONY
TOULOUSE
PYRENEES MOUNTAINS
FRANCE
TO THE END
OF THE
HUNDRED YEARS WAR

78. **Henry's Policy.**—Henry was not only Duke of Anjou and Normandy. He had married the Duchess of Acquitaine, and by doing so obtained all the eastern part of France from the river Loire to the Pyrenees. He was therefore a powerful French prince as well as King of England, and one object of his policy was to keep his possessions and even increase them. For this he wanted money. He found England in a state of disorder, and saw that till things were once more put right there, he would not get much in the way of taxes. Another object therefore was to establish strong and just government in England.

79. **Thomas à Becket.**—In all this work Henry was well supported by **Theobald**, Archbishop of Canterbury, and by a certain **Thomas à Becket**, the son of a London merchant, who, from being a clerk in Theobald's service, gradually rose to be his confidential adviser. The King too becoming fond of Becket, jested with him and treated him as an equal, so that, as Theobald said, the two young men had "but one heart and mind." Henry subsequently made Becket his **Chancellor** and loaded him with wealth, till he became one of the richest men in England. Becket lived in the most princely way, His table was open to all. His retinue could vie with that of any baron in the land. The barons sent their sons to be brought up as pages in his house.

80. **Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury.**—On the death of Theobald, Becket was raised to the See of Canterbury. "You are choosing a fine dress to figure at the head of your Canterbury monks," said Becket to the king, "you will soon hate me as much as you love me now." Henry intended to interfere with the church, and he had thought his gay chancellor would become an

obedient Primate. But no sooner was Becket made archbishop than he changed his whole manner of living. Wild barons and warlike knights were no longer invited to his table. His rich dress was thrown aside. Much of his time he spent in fasting and prayer.

81. **Thomas à Becket and the King quarrel.**—As Becket had prophesied, the King soon began to hate him. For Henry found that the very man he had made Primate to carry out his will, was the man that was to oppose him. The King wished to establish a uniform system of justice for the whole realm, but he found the Church opposed to this. William the Conqueror had ordered the bishops no longer to sit in the shire courts, and had established special courts for the settlement of ecclesiastical matters. In Stephen's reign the Church had taken advantage of this to claim that clergymen who committed crimes should not be tried by the ordinary courts, and as the ecclesiastical courts could not inflict the punishment of death, very bad crimes were sometimes not properly punished. Henry determined to bring churchmen under the same law as other people. Becket would not listen to the proposal. The King summoned all the bishops to meet him at

1164 A.D. Clarendon, and there were drawn up what were called the **Constitutions of Clarendon.**

Many of the enactments were exactly the same as those of William the Conqueror. Bishops were to be appointed with the King's assent, to do homage to him for their lands before being consecrated, and to hold their lands on the same conditions as the barons. No tenant-in-chief or royal servant was to be excommunicated without the King's consent. The King's court was to decide whether a suit between a layman and a clerk should be tried in the King's

court or in the Church court. An appeal might be made from the Church court to the King's court. To these constitutions Becket set his seal. But scarcely had he done so, when he repented, and sent a penitent letter to the Pope, asking him to free him from his oath. Henry's rage was kindled. Becket was summoned to appear at a council at Northampton. Becket maintained that he could only be judged by the Pope, and forbade both baron and bishop to sit in judgment on him. But all were against him. Shouts of "Traitor, Traitor," followed him as he retired. That night he fled to France.

82. **Murder of Thomas à Becket.**—For six years Becket had been away from England, when a reconciliation between him and the King was effected. Becket returned. The first thing he did was to excommunicate all those who had previously opposed him. When Henry, who was in France, heard of this, he said in his haste, "Is there none of my thankless and cowardly courtiers who will free me from the insults of one low-born and unruly priest?" Four of his knights at once hastened to Canterbury, and, in the dim gray light of the cathedral, murdered the archbishop, scattering his brains on the floor. The news of the murder sent a thrill of horror throughout the whole Christian world. Becket was looked upon as a *Martyr*. Miracles were said to be worked at his tomb. He was made a saint, *St. Thomas of Canterbury*.

83. **Henry does penance.**—Henry subsequently atoned for his rash words by making a pilgrimage to Becket's tomb, and by being whipped on his naked back as he knelt there.

84. **Reforms.**—The death of Becket not only obtained for Henry the carrying out of the *Constitutions of Clarendon*; it set him free to make other reforms.

His large interest in France often led him into wars there. Many of the barons, while ready to fight in defence of the King in England, did not care to serve abroad. Henry allowed vassals to commute their service by a money payment, which he called scutage, i. e., 'shield money,' and, with the funds so obtained, he hired troops abroad for his foreign wars. The judges were sent on circuit as before. New sheriffs were appointed, not from among the barons, who had often been simply getting power and money for themselves, but from the *officers of the Exchequer*. Thus the *sheriffs*, the *circuit judges* and the *curia regis* were made to work better together and the barons lost a good deal of their power.

85. **William the Lion a prisoner.**—The barons of course did not like all this. They took advantage of quarrels between the King and his sons to stir up strife in the land. **William the Lion**, the King of Scotland, also invaded the country. **Roger de Mowbray** and many more of the great barons joined him. But **Ranulf de Glanvil**, the *Justiciar*, fell upon them by surprise at **Alnwick** and took William the Lion prisoner. The rebels at once laid down their arms. William the Lion agreed to hold his crown as a vassal of the King of England and was set at liberty.

1174 A.D.

86. **Assize of Arms.**—This revolt led Henry to reduce the power of the barons still more. He went back to the old custom of having a national militia. Every freeman must be ready to serve for the defence of the country. And the **Assize of Arms** fixed the way in which each person was to arm himself.

87. **The Conquest of Ireland.**—Ireland had fallen into a miserable condition compared with the times when her missionaries came over to England and

converted Northumbria and Mercia. The country had become broken up into many petty kingdoms, and these were constantly at war with each other. So there was nothing but disorder in the land. Henry proposed to the Pope that he should go over to Ireland and conquer it and rule it well, and make the people pay **Peter's pence**. The Pope, who claimed to be the lord of all islands, approved of Henry's plan as prompted by "the ardour of faith and love of religion," and told the people of Ireland to receive Henry as their lord. Henry for a long time had too much to do in England and France to go to Ireland himself. But in 1166, at the request of **Dermot**, king of **Leinster**, Henry allowed some of his nobles to go. **Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke**, afterwards known as **Strongbow**, followed. They over-ran the land. In 1171, Henry himself crossed to Dublin where the chiefs came and made their submission. Strongbow, on the death of Dermot, whose daughter he had married, was made king of Leinster. Subsequently, Henry sent his son, **John**, as overlord; but this foolish young man, laughed at the quaint dresses of the Irish chiefs, and plucked the chiefs by the beard when they came to make submission, so he had to be recalled. This is known as the **Conquest of Ireland**. But really it was only the country along the coast that the English held. Most of the country remained in the hands of the old Irish chiefs, who continued to follow their own ways and exercise their own laws.

1172 A.D.

88. **Death of Henry II.**—Henry's last days were rendered sad by the revolts of his sons. He crossed over to France, but had to fly before the army of his son, Richard. He was already bowed down with grief, when a list of the conspirators was brought to

him. The name of his favourite son, John, for whom he had done so much, headed the list. This broke his heart. He was carried on a litter to Chinon, and muttering, "shame, shame on a conquered king," passed sorrowfully away.

CHAPTER II.

Richard I.

1189 A.D.—1199 A.D.

89. **Richard in Palestine.**—Richard, son of Henry II., succeeded. He was a soldier, fond of adventure, and had but one desire, to win glory in the crusades. He cared little for England or its people, and remained but little there. It is even doubtful whether he could speak the English language. To obtain money he allowed Scotland to buy back its freedom for 10,000 marks, and honours and offices in his gift were freely sold. With the money raised in this way he set out for Palestine, and for four years England was without a king at home. But many wise statesmen had grown up in the reign of Henry II, and William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, whom Richard appointed *Justiciar*, ruled the land well in his absence. It is not necessary to follow Richard in his wanderings in the East. His name for bravery and heroism was spoken of all over Europe. The English were pleased with this at first. But Richard was always in need of money, and to supply his wants Longchamp had to tax the people heavily. When, at last Richard was taken prisoner by the Duke of Austria, and the English had to pay an immense sum for his ransom, the taxes became grievous to be borne.

90. **John aims at the throne.**—John, Richard's brother, taking advantage of the discontent, raised a revolt. Many barons joined him. But Herbert Walter, who succeeded Longchamp as Justiciar, put down the revolt. On Richard's arrival in England, John was banished. 1194 A.D.

91. **War with France.**—It must not be forgotten that the plantagenets were Dukes of Anjou and vassals of France. The King of France wished to subdue these powerful vassals so as to rule his whole country. Philip Augustus, who was king of France from 1180 to 1223, was an ambitious and crafty man. He did what he could against Henry II. but with little success. Now he attacked Normandy. This indirectly led to Richard's death. He heard that one of his Norman vassals had treasure in his castle and laid siege to it when the vassal refused to open the gates. During the siege the King was struck with an arrow from the walls. So died this brave but careless king, who, though now often made the hero of romance, did no good to his people, cared very little for them, and caused them much suffering by burdening them with heavy taxes.

CHAPTER III.

John, Sansterre or Lackland.

1199 A.D.—1216 A.D.

92. **John becomes king.**—It has already been shown that the Witan had been accustomed to elect as king that one of the royal family that seemed fittest to rule. The Witan still existed as the Great Council

of prelates and nobles. On Richard's death this body had to choose between Richard's brother John, fourth son of Henry II. and his nephew Arthur the son of Geoffrey, Henry II's third son. As Arthur was a boy they chose John. Their choice proved very unfortunate for John was "without dispute the worst of the English kings." He was clever, and energetic and there was a charm about him that gained some people's love. But he was selfish, cruel, depraved. He had broken his father's heart. He had betrayed his brother, and it was commonly believed that he murdered Arthur, his rival for the throne, with his own hand. The punishments he inflicted were of the most cruel kind. Children he starved. Old men he caused to be crushed under weights of lead. He was superstitious to the highest degree. While at home he mocked at priests and treated the mass with contempt, but he never travelled without charms or relics round his neck. His whole reign was a series of disasters and tyrannies.

93. Loss of Normandy.—Philip Augustus declared Arthur Duke of Normandy. He had a legal right to do this and was also glad of an opportunity of getting Normandy into his power. The Norman barons, who hated the Dukes of Anjou, favoured Philip rather than John. John had to fly from Normandy which was seized by Philip. Arthur however, had fallen into the hands of John and was never seen again. Philip therefore took Normandy for his own and also Maine and Anjou, and they have ever since been French provinces.

94. John quarrels with the Pope.—The following year the See of Canterbury fell vacant. John de Gray, *Bishop of Norwich*, was at John's bidding elected Archbishop by the monks of Canterbury. But it turned out that at a previous meeting they

had elected one Reginald. An appeal was made to Rome. Innocent III. was then Pope. He said that neither John de Gray nor Reginald should be Archbishop, and called on the monks who had come to Rome to elect Stephen Langton, an Englishman and a very learned man.

95. The Interdict.—When John heard of this he was very angry, and refused to receive Langton. Whereupon the Pope laid England under *an interdict*, which was a very serious thing for the people. For so long as the interdict continued, the clergy could not preach in their churches nor administer the sacraments, except that of baptism in private to little children. The dead even could not be buried in consecrated ground. Still the King would not yield. He became more angry, and confiscated all the lands of the bishops that obeyed the Pope, and would not punish people who committed outrages on the priests. For two years this continued. The Pope then went a step further and *excommunicated* John, that is, he put John out of the coummunion of the church, which meant that no Christian could have anything to do with him. Still John held out. One thing more was left to the Pope and he did it. He declared John to be no longer king told the people of England they need not obey him and ordered Philip of France to lead a crusade against him.

96. John, a vassal of the Pope.—John now formed a league against Philip. His nephew Otto had been elected Emperor against the Pope's will and had also been excommunicated. He was therefore willing to join John against the Pope and his ally Philip. There were other excommunicated princes in North Germany who also favoured the league. Just when things were arranged John

suddenly made the most humble submission to the Pope. He agreed to receive **Stephen Langton**, and to compensate the priests for their losses. More than this, he handed over his crown to the Papal **Legate** and received it back as a vassal of the Pope. This last act filled the whole nation with disgust. They said he had become the Pope's man. He had forfeited the very name of king. John's reasons for submission are not very clear. His submission was however useful because it deprived Philip of the support of the Pope. But Philip defeated the army of the league at Bouvines, and John seeing that his scheme had failed returned to England.

97. Struggle with the Barons.—The Battle of Bouvines was a great thing for England. Had John triumphed over Philip and come back to England, the sovereign of large possessions in France, he could have oppressed the country as much as he chose. But the barons had seen their danger and prepared to meet it. At their head was **Stephen Langton.** In 1213, before John went to France, Stephen Langton had caused a meeting of the **Great Council** to be held at St. Albans. Now, another meeting was called. At it Langton produced the **Charter of Henry I.** It was accepted as declaring in writing the rights of the Church, barons, and people. The barons bound themselves by an oath to obtain their liberties.

When John returned to England, he found them strong and united, and ready to fight to the death for their just rights and liberties. The
1214 A.D. following Christmas they presented themselves before the King, and demanded the observance of the Charter of Henry I, and the Laws of Edward the Confessor. A few months later they again assembled at Brackly. "Who do

they not ask for my kingdom ?" cried John in a rage; and he refused their petition. The whole country was at once up in arms. The barons marched to London, which threw open its gates to them. John, deserted by his followers, invited the barons to a conference at Runnymeade.

CHAPTER IV.

Magna Carta.

98. **Magna Carta.**—Runnymeade is a meadow on the Thames near Windsor. There the barons assembled their forces. John and his men gathered together on the opposite side of the river, in the middle of which is an island. Here the deputies from each side met to discuss the points at issue. But John had made uphis mind to give the barons all they wished. On the very first day he agreed to and signed **Magna Carta** i.e. **The Great Charter.** There was little that was new in the Charter. It did not introduce any great changes into the constitution. But it was of great use in this way, that the laws which the King was bound to observe, were put down clearly in writing, and the seal of the King himself was attached to the document. The Charter declared that (1) the Church was to be free; (2) no freeman was to be imprisoned or outlawed or in any way brought to ruin without the lawful judgment of his *peers*, that is his *equals*, or by the law of the land; (3) no *scutage* or '*aids*' were to be levied save by the Great Council; (4) many irregular taxes were abolished or rated at a fixed sum; (5) the forest laws were repealed. Twenty-four barons were chosen to enforce the observance of the Charter, and to declare war

1215 A.D.

against the King should he not act according to its provisions.

The rising which forced John to sign Magna Carta was not a mere rebellion of the barons. They were supported not only by the Church but by the whole people and the Charter was for the benefit of the whole people. Whatever rights the barons claimed for themselves they equally claimed for every freeman. The sub-tenant was to be protected from the oppression of his lord, just as the baron was to be protected from the encroachments of the King. The towns were to have their liberties and free customs.

99. **John breaks the Charter.**—John soon showed that he had no intention of keeping the Charter. He first got the Pope to annul it. Then he got mercenaries from the continent and made war on the barons. They were getting the worst of it and so sent and asked Philip Augustus for help. His son Louis came with an army and the barons promised to make him king instead of John. John's French mercenaries refused to fight against Louis and soon only Dover under **Hubert de Burgh** held out for John. Just at this time the King died of a fever (October 1216).

100. **Henry III.**—The barons had been willing to have the French prince Louis for king instead of the Angevin John, but now that John was dead it was plainly better to have his young son Henry, during whose minority things could be arranged as they thought proper. So Henry was crowned at **Gloucester** and **William Marshal**, the great **Earl of Pembroke** was appointed "ruler of the king and kingdom."

May 1217. The boy King accepted Magna Carta. The barons at once began to desert Louis Pembroke fell upon the French at **Lincoln**, and so easily and so utterly defeated them, that

the battle was known as the **Fair of Lincoln.** A fleet of transports, that was coming with reinforcements from France, was attacked by Hubert de Burgh and destroyed. Louis now seeing that his party in England had disappeared was quite willing to go back to France. So Pembroke made a treaty with him and he left Henry III's rule undisputed.

CHAPTER V.

Henry III.

1216 A.D.—1272 A.D.

101. Hubert de Burgh.—Pembroke died in 1219 and from that time till 1232 the country was governed wisely by Hubert de Burgh. He got rid of the foreigners that John had brought into England, fought in France and secured Gascony for the King, and resisted the Pope when he tried to interfere in English affairs. The King however had as his favourite **Peter des Roches,** Bishop of Winchester, a native of Poitou. Peter pursuaded Henry that Hubert de Burgh prevented his having proper supplies of money. Hubert was accused of many crimes, dismissed from office and thrown into the Tower.

102. Henry's bad Government.—From this time Henry himself governed. He was one of the weakest kings that ever ruled England. He was not vicious nor cruel like his father. But he was a spendthrift, unsteady of purpose, careless of the truth, fond of favourites and easily influenced by them. He acted foolishly in three different ways (1) He encouraged worthless foreigners, especially the relations of his wife Eleanor of Provence, to

come to England, and gave them places and pensions. (2) He wasted money in weak attempts to recover the Plantagenet possessions in France. (3) He did not resist the Pope but let him take a great sum of money from the English Church. The effect of all this was to burden the people with taxation and prevent good order being kept in the country. This bad government went on for twenty-six years. At last Henry interfered in the quarrel going on between the Pope and the Emperor, and so made himself responsible for still further expenses. The barons resolved to make the king govern more wisely and particularly to observe the Charter. The leader of the movement was **Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.** He himself was in part a foreigner, but he had married the King's sister, and he now put himself at the head of the English barons in defence of English liberties. The Barons met in Parliament in London in April 1258. The King was forced to give to twenty-four men, twelve from the King's party, twelve from the barons, full powers to draw up terms for the proper government of the state. At a Parliament held at Oxford two months later the committee brought forward their proposals. These were called the **Provisions of Oxford.** By them a committee of fifteen was to govern the kingdom with the help of twelve elected barons. The great Council of Barons or Parliament was not to meet, these twelve were to take its place. This committee for a time worked well. The foreigners were called on to give up the King's castles. But the King got the Pope to annul the Provisions and disregarded them. The barons under Earl Simon took up arms and at the end of a year both parties agreed to have Louis King of France, called St. Louis for his piety, as arbitrator. He decided in favour of the King. The

Provisions of Oxford were annulled. The appointment or removal of great officers of the state was to rest with the King alone. The King might keep as many foreigners about him as he liked. But the King was to observe the Great Charter. This decision undid all that had been done. Therefore the barons could not accept it. The war began again. At Lewes, Simon de Montfort met Henry in battle and defeated him. Henry was made prisoner. By a treaty—"the Mise of Lewes"—Edward, the King's eldest son, gave himself up as a ransom for his father; but his father was not set at liberty. 1264 A.D.

103. **A Representative Parliament.**—Simon de Montfort was now at the head of the state. In December writs were issued, summoning the prelates and barons to a meeting of Parliament. Moreover two knights were ordered to be sent to represent each shire court and two citizens to represent each town. This was the first Parliament of the kind, and the modern English Parliament still consists of the same classes of members. 1265 A.D.

104. **Death of Simon de Montfort.**—Prince Edward escaped from his prison. Gathering an army he took Gloucester, and met Simon de Montfort in battle at Evesham (1265). Edward gained a complete victory. Simon de Montfort was slain. King Henry was rescued from restraint. Gradually through the wisdom and moderation of Edward peace was restored. Edward went to the *Crusades*. Henry reigned in peace for five years longer. He died in 1272.

CHAPTER VI.

Edward I.

1272 A.D.—1307 A.D.

105. **Edward I.**—We have now reached the period when the distinction between Englishman and Norman had been forgotten. One great cause of this was the loss of the French possessions of the Plantagenets. The kings of England now had to think of England first. Henry III. got into trouble by not understanding this. Edward I. understood it thoroughly. He was the first English king since the conquest. English that is in heart, loving and trusting his English people. He was one of the greatest of the English kings and is particularly famous as a law-giver.

106. **Conquest of Wales.**—The aim of Edward's life was to unite the whole of Britain under one king. His attention was first turned to Wales. Wales had never been wholly conquered. The barons in the marches ever since the Norman conquest had been at constant war with the Welsh princes, and a large portion of the south and the east of Wales had fallen into their hands: but in the north the "**Lords of Snowdon**" still maintained their independence and during the reigns of Henry I., John and Henry III. had taken advantage of every period of trouble and disturbance to make invasions into England. The Lord of Snowdon, who still claimed to be Prince of Wales, was named **Llewellyn**. Edward I. now called on Llewellyn to come and do homage to him. For two years Llewellyn refused. Edward led his army into Wales. Llewellyn was soon reduced to difficulties. He

tendered his submission. It was settled he was to be the last chief that should have the title of "Prince of Wales." For five years after this there was peace. But there was an old prophecy that when English money was made round, the Prince of Wales would be crowned in London. A new round coinage was introduced. The prophecy would be fulfilled. So at least thought David, Llewellyn's brother. And, though he had been given rich estates by Edward, he took up arms. Llewellyn joined him. Edward led his army into Wales. Llewellyn fell in a skirmish on the Wye. His head was sent to London, and, crowned with ivy, was fixed to the Tower. David was taken prisoner and sentenced to a traitor's death. Edward's infant son was created "Prince of Wales," the title still given to the eldest son of the Sovereign. Edward erected strong castles at Conway and Caernarvon, and gave much of the land to his English barons. The country was divided into *shires* and *hundreds* as in England. English law was introduced. For more than a hundred years there was peace in the land.

1282 A.D.

107. **Quarrel with Scotland.**—Twelve years after this Edward turned his attention to Scotland, of which country he claimed the right to be overlord. The grounds for this claim are not clear. Many Scotch kings had, it is true, done homage to English kings, but there were reasons that make this no proof of the overlordship of England. In the first place the Scotch kings held Cumberland since the time of Edward the Elder as vassals of the English kings. In the second place all rights over Scotland had been sold by Richard I. It is true that since that time homage had been done by Scotch kings, but this was not for Scotland, but only for lands

held by them in England. Edward I. seems to have thought that the whole of Great Britain belonged to him either directly or indirectly. On the death of Alexander king of Scotland the next heir to the throne was Margaret a little girl the daughter of Eric, king of Norway, who had married Alexander's daughter. On her way to Scotland she died, and immediately there were no fewer than thirteen competitors for the throne. The two whose claims were the strongest were John Balliol and Robert Bruce, both descended from David, brother of William the Lion. When they could not agree, Edward was asked to decide the matter. So he went north to Norham, and there the Scotch nobles and *commonalty* met him and laid the case before him. Before Edward would give any opinion, he told them that they must first acknowledge him as feudal lord of Scotland. The Scotch nobles after a little hesitation did so. The commonalty would not, but no attention was paid to them. Edward decided in favour of John Balliol, and Balliol did homage to him at Berwick. But though Edward at first gave up all claim to holding Scotland as an *ordinary fief*, and said that it should remain a separate and free kingdom, and have its own rights and laws, he subsequently declared that appeals might be made to him from the Scotch law courts, a thing that had never been heard of before. The nobles and people forced Balliol to resist such a claim, and when Edward summoned the barons to follow him to war against France, they refused. On the other hand, they entered into an alliance with France,—an alliance which continued till the time of the Reformation.

108. First conquest of Scotland.—There was nothing for it now but war. Edward captured

Berwick, massacred the citizens, and had soon overcome the country. Balliol was made prisoner and lodged in an English prison. Warenne, Earl of Surrey, was left in charge of the government of Scotland. The castles were garrisoned with English soldiers. The sacred stone, on which the Scotch kings had been crowned, and which was said to have been the pillow of stone on which Jacob slept, was taken from Scone to Westminster Abbey. It was inclosed in a stately chair, and in this chair the kings of England are crowned to this day. 1296 A.D.

109. William Wallace.—The nobles, who were chiefly of Norman descent, had surrendered. The people, the descendants of the Saxons and Danes had not. They were roused to fight for their liberties. At their head was William Wallace, the national hero of Scotland. Around him gathered the stout *peasantry* and *townsfolk* and at Stirling Bridge he awaited the English forces. When called on to surrender, he shouted out, "We have come here not for peace, but to free our country." The English began to cross the bridge. Wallace waited till half of them were over. Then, with a rush, he broke down the bridge and cut to pieces those that had crossed. Stirling Castle fell into his hands, and he was appointed "Guardian of the Realm." 1297 A.D.

110. Second conquest of Scotland.—Next year Edward came again with a mighty army and at Falkirk gained a complete victory. Wallace escaped from the field, but was subsequently taken and executed as a traitor. Edward entrusted the government to a Council of Scotch nobles, and went so far in the way of trying to unite England and Scotland, that 1298 A.D.

he ordered ten representatives to be elected to sit in the Parliament in London.

111. **Edward and Philip IV. of France.**—Edward, while thus insisting on what he believed to be his rights as overlord of Scotland, had troubles himself as a vassal of the King of France. Edward was **Duke of Guienne**, and as such he had to do homage to the King of France. Some Gascons, subjects of Edward, had given help to some English sailors, in a fight they were having with some Norman sailors, and Edward was summoned to **Paris** to answer for this. Edward did not go but sent his brother **Edmund**, who handed Guienne over to the French King for forty days as a sign of submission, and the French King kept it altogether. So Edward had to go to war.

112. **The Model Parliament.**—All these wars cost money, and Edward had great difficulty in getting it. Grants made by the Great Council could be raised only from the prelates and barons. The "free aids" raised by the court of exchequer took a long time to collect. Before they could be gathered in, reference had to be made to the reeve of each town, to the sheriff of each county, to the archdeacon of each diocese. Simon de Montfort had said that all classes in the state ought to have a place in the national council, and had summoned knights of the shire, and representatives of the boroughs to his parliament in 1265. Edward now followed his example, for he trusted the people and felt sure that the representatives of the wealthy burgesses of the towns would be loyal and helpful. So having laid down the great principle that "what touches all should be approved by all," he summoned to a parliament in 1295 *the greater clergy and the barons representatives of the lesser*

1295 A.D.

clergy, two knights from every shire, and two burghers from every town.

This Parliament of 1295 has been called the **Model Parliament**, because since that date parliaments in most respects identical have generally formed a part of the English system of government. Two differences between it and modern parliaments ought to be noticed (1) It included *minor clergy* (2) all classes members met together in *one house*. The minor clergy afterwards refused to sit in parliament and instead voted money to their king in their *convocations*. In the year 1332 we first hear of two separate *houses*. In that year the knights of the shire and the representatives of the boroughs first sat together in one house and the prelates and barons in another, so that the two houses corresponded to our modern **Houses of Commons and Lords.**

113. **The Charter confirmed.**—The Parliament was not slow to exercise its powers. To obtain money for his French war, Edward had demanded of the clergy half their annual income, and when they refused, he had outlawed them. The country gentlemen had been forced to give cattle and corn. The duty on the export of wool had been increased fivefold. The barons and clergy united to resist this. Edward, in full parliament, with tears admitted that he had taken their money without due warrant of law, and subsequently confirmed Magna Carta with this important addition, that *no aid or tax was to be levied by the sovereign without the consent of Parliament.* This was a great gain for the people. It gave them the control of the purse, and limited the power of the King. Henceforth the nation itself should determine what taxes it was to pay. **1297** A.D.

114. **Death of Edward I.**—In 1306 Bruce set

himself up as King of Scotland. Edward again went north, determined to utterly subdue the country. But at **Burgh-on-Sands**, near **Carlisle** he
1307 A.D. died, leaving as his last request that his body should be carried in front of the army till the Scots were overcome.

CHAPTER VII.

1307 A.D.—1327 A.D.

115. **Lords Ordainers.**—Edward II. was not at all like his father. He was a lazy, worthless man, and selected as his officers, not the nobles, but men of inferior position who would do just what he wished. Edward's chief favourite at first was **Piers Gaveston** a Gascon. By his advice the older ministers were dismissed, and so angry did he make the barons with his jokes and by the nick-names he
1310 A.D. gave them, that at last Parliament called on Edward to put him out of the kingdom, and refused *to grant supplies till their grievances were redressed.* But no sooner did Edward get the money from Parliament than he recalled Gaveston. The barons took up arms. In full Parliament a committee was appointed for the better Government of the realm. They were called "**Lords Ordainers.**" They drew up a list of "*Articles of Reforms*," and Edward was forced to comply with them. Gaveston was seized and beheaded.

116. **Scotland gains her Independence.**—Meanwhile in Scotland, **Bruce**, though having to risk many dangers and to undergo many difficulties, was slowly but surely gaining power and popularity. In 1314 all the important castles except **Stirling** had

fallen into his hands, and now he besieged Stirling. This castle was very important so Edward tried to relieve it. Bruce however defeated him at Bannockburn so thoroughly that his army was completely destroyed.

The independence of Scotland was won, though it was not finally acknowledged till the Treaty of Northampton, in 1328.

117. **Misgovernment.**—These were dark days for England. Defeat and slaughter abroad, at home a famine and pestilence, while the King cared little for his people and gave himself up to the grossest indulgences. Despenser, a new and equally worthless favourite, had taken the place of Gaveston.

The barons again rose under John of Lancaster. But he was taken prisoner and put to death. The Government of Despenser went on.

118. **Edward II. deposed.**—There was but one hope left. Queen Isabella, who was a sister of the French King, had gone to France and taken her little son, Edward, with her. To her the barons looked for help. In 1326 she landed in England to overthrow Despenser. Noble, knight, and prelate flocked to her standard. Edward and Despenser took to flight. They were captured on the coast of Wales. Despenser was hanged at once. The King was kept a prisoner. On the assembly of Parliament it was declared that Edward II. was unfit to be king, and he was deposed. He was removed to Berkeley Castle. A few months later he was murdered at the instigation of his wife, Isabella, and her adviser, Roger Mortimer.

1327 A.D.

CHAPTER VIII.

Edward III.

1327 A.D.—1377 A.D.

119. **The Independence of Scotland acknowledged.**—Edward, the elder son of Edward II., was only fourteen years old; so the Government was carried on by his mother **Isabella** and **Roger Mortimer.**

1328 A.D. The Scots invaded England and laid waste the northern counties. At last a treaty was made at **Northampton**, by which the English king gave up at once and for ever his feudal claim to the over-lordship of Scotland.

120. **Death of Mortimer.**—This treaty, together with **Mortimer's** very wicked life and cruel acts, stirred up both the young King and the people against him. Mortimer was seized at **Nottingham** by Edward himself, and was hanged at **Tyburn.** The Queen was kept a prisoner.

121. **War with Scotland.**—Robert Bruce died leaving **David**, his infant son, to succeed him. **Edward**, son of John Balliol, took advantage of this to seize the throne. He was deposed however and asked Edward's help. In the war which followed the Battle of Halidon Hill, in which the Scots were beaten and Bannockburn avenged, was the chief event. Balliol was made King of Scotland as Edward's vassal.

122. **The hundred years' war begins.**—This invasion of Scotland led to a war with France which lasted with only short intervals for *one hundred years*. David, the son of Bruce, driven from his kingdom, asked the help of the King of France. Ships and men were soon on their way to Scotland;

and an army was sent against Gulenne, Edward's French province. To defend Gulenne, Edward had to withdraw his forces from Scotland.

123. Edward claims the French crown.—Edward put forward a claim to the French throne. The three sons of Philip IV. had died without male issue, and Philip of Valois, Philip IV's nephew had ascended the throne. Edward, as the son of Philip IV's daughter said he ought to be king. But the French lawyers, had revived an old law of the Sallan Franks which declared that no woman could succeed to landed property, and made it apply to the French crown. This was the famous Salic Law, which was really invented by the lawyers to prevent France losing its independence by the crown passing through a queen to some foreign king.

124. War with France.—England had now become rich. Edward trusted to this for the successful issue of the war. Large sums of money were raised. Large sums were given to the Flemish, and the Germans to join him with their forces. But for years, though Edward crossed to Flanders and attacked France from the north, little good came of it. His allies were not to be trusted. While always ready to take his money they were slow to fight for him. The French ships for a time prevented the English crossing the channel. At last, however, Edward III, defeated the French fleet in a great battle at Sluys and an English fleet could sail over unmolested. 1340 A.D.

125. Battle of Cressy.—With thirty thousand soldiers Edward landed at La Hogue. Crossing the Seine and the Somme, he ravaged the country. Close behind him came Philip V. with an army one hundred thousand strong. At Cressy Edward halted. Edward's army included many light armed

Welsh and Irish men and still more English archers. There were also knights and men at arms. Edward posted his archers in a line, with dismounted men-at arms with their spears at intervals. The French army consisted chiefly of heavy armed knights. There was also a body of Genoese cross-bow men hired from an Italian prince. Philip could not keep his army from the attack so the battle began in the evening. The cross-bow men proved very inferior to the English archers, and Edward's arrangement of troops proved strong enough to resist the charge of the French knights. The battle ended in a complete defeat and slaughter of the French army. The right of the English was commanded by the Prince of Wales, a boy only fifteen years old. He received the first shock of the French onset and some one asked the king to send him help. Edward, sure of victory and desirous that his young son should get all the honour of the day, refused. "Let the boy win his spurs" he said. Twelve hundred knights and thirty thousand footmen were slain in the battle.

126. **Capture of Calais.**—If Edward had been really desirous of conquering France he might now have led his army to Paris. But instead of doing so he advanced to Calais, and after closely besieging it for eleven months, forced it to surrender. English colonists were placed in it. The town was strongly fortified, and remained a great English port for two hundred years.

127. **David of Scotland, a prisoner.**—Meanwhile David of Scotland had taken up arms and
1346 A.D. invaded England; but Philippa, Edward's brave queen, met him at Nevil's Cross, defeated him and carried him off a prisoner to London.

128. **Battle of Poictiers.**—A truce for eight years

followed. But a lasting peace between England and France was as far off as ever. "The Black Prince," as the Prince of Wales was called after the battle of Cressy, marched from Gascony through the south of France, plundering as he went. The people were peaceful, simple and well-to-do. They were, therefore, an easy prey to the prince and his Gascon-robbers. John, who had succeeded Philip of Valois, set out to check them with an army sixty thousand strong. But at Poictiers, the Black Prince gained a complete victory. John himself was made prisoner and taken to London. 1356 A.D.

129. **Treaty of Bretigny.**—For two years there was a truce. But this was little good to France. The disbanded soldiers became mere bandits. The peasants were taxed to ransom their lords. A Famine followed. England too had been visited by a great plague called "the black Death," which in a year had carried off about one-half of the population. Edward's army in France was in the most miserable condition. Peace was needed for both countries. By the Treaty of Bretigny Edward gave up all claim to the throne of France and to the Duchy of Normandy. On the other hand the King of France acknowledged Edward as sovereign of Acquitaine (*Gascony, Guienne, Poitou*, and *Saintonge*). Calais was to remain an English possession. 1360 A.D.

130. **Acquitaine lost.**—For nine years after the treaty of Bretigny there was peace in France. The Black Prince led an expedition into Spain. To meet the expenses he levied taxes in Guienne. The people began to grumble at this. Charles V., who had succeeded John, took up their cause. The Black Prince was forced through failing health to go to

England, and soon the whole of Acquitaine, except Bordeaux and Bayonne, was lost to the English.

131. **The Good Parliament.**—The latter years of Edward III. were marked by bad government and national disgrace and misery. The conquests from the French were nearly all lost, the fleet was destroyed by the Spaniards, and the merchants being left unprotected could no longer carry on their trade. Taxation was heavy, and a terrible plague called the Black Death came again and again. In the Parliament of 1376 we find the knights of the shire and the borough representatives taking the lead in trying to improve matters. They accused two of the King's officers of stealing the King's money, and these men having been tried by their peers the Lords of Parliament were condemned and dismissed. An accusation of this kind by the commons was called an *impeachment*, and the power of impeaching Ministers came to be very important for the House of Commons. This was the first time it was used. John of Gaunt the King's fourth son was very angry with the commons "What do these base and ignoble knights attempt" he said "Do they think they be Kings or Princes in the land." They were helped by the Black Prince but he died while the Good Parliament was still sitting and John of Gaunt soon undid what he had done.

132. **Increase of the power of Parliament.**—In this reign the knights of the shire and the borough representatives began to sit apart from the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, thus forming two houses of parliament the Lords and the Commons. The commons were in the habit of presenting *petitions* to the King, and when these were granted they became *statutes*. The commons used to try to get their petitions granted before voting taxes for the king.

This is the beginning of the *legislative power of the Commons.* The commons also began *to discuss matters of public interest* like the French war: and the Good Parliament tried *to superintend the administration of government.* They also obtained more complete *power over taxation.*

CHAPTER IX.

Richard II.

1377 A.D.—1399 A.D.

133. **The Peasants' Revolt.**—We have seen that soon after the Norman conquest, or even before it, most of the peasantry were serfs, or villeins. In the three centuries which had passed many villeins, had obtained their freedom. Some had bought it, some had received it as a gift. More had been allowed to hold their land as farmers, paying rent instead of doing work for the lord, because this arrangement was found to be best by the lords. There were therefore many free labourers as well as many villeins, when the Black Death came and destroyed half the population. The result was that there were not enough men to till the ground, and the free labourers began to demand very high wages and to go wherever they thought they would find employment. In 1350 Edward and the barons made a law—the **Statute of Labourers,** ordering all labourers to keep to their own villages and work for the wages that they had received before. This law was of no use because food was so dear that a man could not live at all on the old wages. Therefore the lords tried to revive the old villeinage, when they could, so that men who were practically free found themselves treated as villeins. This caused great anger against the rich landholders. The peasant began to look at the lord, and to ask himself why the

lord should be such a great and wealthy man, and he himself so mean and poor. This feeling found expression in many popular verses, amongst others—

'When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?'

There were some who thought that villeinage ought to be abolished, and others that the wealth of the nobles ought to be taken from them and given to the people.

134. **The Poll tax.**—Matters came to a climax in 1380. In that year Parliament levied a tax of twelve pence on every person above fifteen years of age. A poll-tax had been levied three years before: but it was not so high. The people would not endure this new impost. Risings at once took place all over the country. In Kent the rebels were led by **Jack Straw** and **Wat Tyler**. Entering Canterbury they plundered the Archbishop's palace. On they marched to London, murdering every *lawyer* that fell into their hands. For, said they, "not till all these were killed would the land enjoy its old freedom." London opened its gates to them. They burst into the Tower and beheaded the King's Treasurer,

1380 A.D. the levier of the poll-tax. Richard met them outside London. He was a boy of only fifteen: but he had rare courage: "I am your King and lord, good people, what will ye?" And they answered, "We will that you free us for ever, and that we be never named nor held for serfs." "I grant it," answered King Richard, and, true to his word, that very day he issued letters of pardon and freedom. And now the joy of the people was great. Next day Richard accidentally met about thirty thousand of them under Wat Tyler. The King was talking with them, when Walworth, the Mayor of London,

struck down Tyler and he was killed where he fell. The brave boy King at once put himself at the head of the insurgents, and leading them to London, issued letters of freedom to them and sent them away to their homes.

135. **Richard's Charter of Liberty cancelled.**—Now that the rising was quelled the barons declared that Richard had no right to issue a charter of liberties without the consent of Parliament. So the liberty granted by Richard was taken away. The law was allowed to take its course. Thousands of poor rustics were executed. Still good came of the rising. In future the lords were more careful in demanding *villein service*.

136. **The Statute of Praemunire.**—Other questions had been occupying the public mind for some time. The nation thought that the Popes had too much power in England. The Popes had come very much under the influence of the French Kings and now had left Rome and made Avignon in France the seat of their power. One of these "French Popes" had been appointing Italians to sees in England, claiming "first fruits," *i.e.* the first year's salary from all new appointments, and levying taxes on the clergy. An act was passed, called the Statute of Praemunire, forbidding any papal bulls to be brought into the kingdom, and punishing with the forfeiture of lands and goods any one that should in any way act under the authority claimed by the Pope. 1393 A.D.

137. **John Wyclif.**—There were many who thought that something more was wanted than this limiting of the Pope's power. The priests and monks were often men of immoral lives quiet unfit to be leaders and teachers of the people. John Wyclif, a professor of Oxford, and a very learned man, was in

favour of reducing the Pope's power and improving the clergy. He thought all the evils in the Church arose from the source of the doctrines of the Roman Church not being true. So he tried to convince people of this. In 1381 he denied the doctrine of *transubstantiation*. This was followed by a denial of the efficacy of worshipping images, of making pilgrimages, or of receiving pardons from the priests. His own "poor priests" went over the country preaching these new doctrines, and many of the people adopted them. A few years later it was said "every second man you meet is a Lollard," the name given by the priests to the followers of Wyclif. Wyclif was put out of the University. He made a fresh translation of the Bible, and died in 1384.

138. **Richard begins to govern for himself.**—Richard had many difficulties to contend against during his minority, especially from his own uncles, the **Dukes of York and Gloucester**. In 1388 he suddenly took the government into his own hands, and for nine years he governed the country wisely. He was ever ready to take the advice of Parliament, and Parliament in turn granted him for life the tax on wool.

139. **Richard assumes despotic power.**—In 1396 Richard crossed to France to marry **Isabella**, the daughter of the French King. On his return his whole policy changed. Instead of Parliament, a council of sixteen was appointed to assist
1397 A.D. the King in his government. The King's power thus became absolute. Forced loans were raised. Justice was interfered with. Discontent prevailed throughout the country, and the nobles were only waiting for a pretext to rebel and a leader to follow.

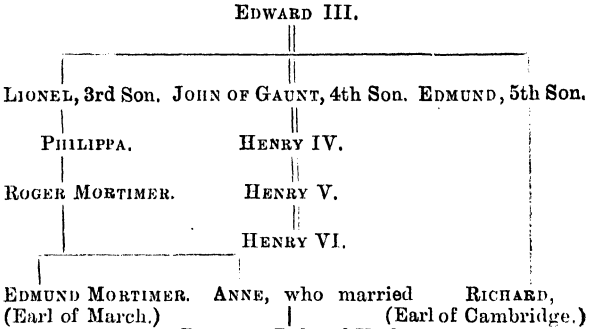
140. **Richard II. deposed.**—They found both in

the following way. **Henry, Duke of Hereford,** the eldest son of John of Gaunt, had a quarrel with the **Duke of Norfolk.** Richard banished both. On the death of John of Gaunt, Richard outlawed Henry, Duke of Hereford, and confiscated his father's estates. The King then crossed over to Ireland to complete the work of conquest there. Henry heard of this and landed at the mouth of the **Humber** with only a few followers, to claim his father's estates. The **Percies** and the **Nevilles,** the great families in the north, joined him. They entered London in triumph. Richard returned from Ireland only to find his kingdom lost. He was taken prisoner, was forced to sign a paper resigning the crown, and was formally deposed.

141. **Henry IV., King.**—Henry, Duke of Hereford, claimed the throne as the lineal descendant of Henry III., and the Parliament solemnly recognized him as king. He was not really the nearest heir to the throne, as the **Earl of March,** who was descended from **Lionel,** the third son of Edward III., was alive. He therefore ruled by the choice and authority of Parliament, but people had come to think that succession to the throne ought to be regulated by the same rules as that to an estate, and therefore he had to bring forward a fictitious claim. The results of this change in the succession were very great. Whether they were on the whole bad or good it would be difficult to say.

142. **Death of Richard II.**—Richard was removed to **Pontefract Castle,** and there it is supposed he was put to death. In his reign **Windsor Castle** was completed. The battle of **Chevy Chase,** celebrated in ballads, was fought between the Percies and the Douglases in 1388.

TABLE showing descendants of EDWARD III.



THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

	A.D.		A.D.
Henry IV. ...	... 1399	Edward IV. ...	1461
Henry V. ...	... 1413	Edward V. ...	1483
Henry VI. ...	... 1422	Richard III. ...	1483-1485

CHAPTER I.

Henry IV.—Bolingbrook.

1399 A.D.—1413 A.D.

143. **Henry IV. and the Lollards.**—Richard II. had tried to rule independently of Parliament. He had displeased the barons by not going to war with France and had displeased the Church by the kindly way in which he had treated the Lollards. Barons and prelates had united against him and brought about his deposition. Henry followed another course. He was careful to acknowledge the powers of Parliament, and he pleased the Church by persecuting the Lollards. In little more than a year after he ascended the throne, "The Statute of Heretics" was passed. It gave the bishops power to arrest and imprison heretics, and, on a second offence, to hand them over to the civil authorities to be burned at the stake. William Sautre, a clergyman of Norfolk, was one of the first victims of this infamous enactment.

144. **Insurrections.**—Even these measures did not secure Henry from rebellions. Certain nobles rebelled in Richard's favour even in 1400. The Scots invaded England in favour of a man who pretended to be the dead Richard II. They were defeated at Homildon Hill by the Earl of Northumberland. A year afterwards the Earl of Northumberland and his son Harry

Hotspur, as he was called, themselves rebelled. They were joined by their relations, the Mortimers, who were also related to the Earl of March whom Henry kept in prison. At the same time a gentleman of Wales, Owen Glendower, set up as Prince of Wales as a descendant of Llewellyn. Henry defeated the Percies and Mortimers in the battle of Shrewsbury, in which Hotspur was killed. Glendower remained unconquered throughout the reign, but by degrees Henry recovered his authority in Wales, and drove Glendower into the mountainous country round Snowdon.

145. James of Scotland a prisoner.—Prince James of Scotland when on his way to France to be educated was driven on the English coast. Henry made him a prisoner, but treated him kindly and gave him an excellent education.

146. Parliament.—The most memorable fact about Henry IV's reign is that as he had been made king by Parliament he had to respect its wishes. Consequently its powers increased. The *sole power of the Commons to originate money grants* was recognised and also the *right of full deliberation about them between the houses*. The first of these things is still a most important part of the constitution.

CHAPTER II.

Henry V.—Monmouth.

1413 A.D.—1422 A.D.

147. Character of Henry V.—Henry V. was twenty-six years of age when he ascended the throne. He had already distinguished himself as a soldier at Shrewsbury, and against Owen Glendower. He had made himself popular in other ways. He was

fond of frolic, and had mixed readily with the people. There are stories of his associating with low companions, of his amusing himself by stealing money from the receivers of his own rents, and striking the Chief Justice for punishing one of his followers. Probably these stories are not true, at all events as king he always acted with wisdom and prudence.

148. **The Lollards.**—The severe laws enacted by Henry IV. against the Lollards had been put in force, and many had been burnt. But Lollardism still remained. The Lollards now found a champion and protector in **Sir John Oldcastle (The Good Lord Cobham).** Seditious papers were stuck up on the doors of the London churches. Lord Cobham being suspected of knowing who had posted them was summoned before a convocation of the Church, was excommunicated, and by the civil authorities was cast into the Tower. He escaped. The Lollards were secretly summoned to meet by night in an open place in London. Henry hearing of this meeting dispersed it with a body of troops, killing many Lollards and taking others prisoners. The laws against Lollardism were made still more severe. Some years later Lord Cobham, being captured, was burnt in chains.

149. **War with France.**—**Charles VI.** of France, grandson of that John who was taken prisoner at Poitiers, was insane, and the result was a contest between the king's brother the **Duke of Orleans** and his cousin the **Duke of Burgundy** for the government. When in 1407 Orleans was murdered in the streets of Paris by the orders of Burgundy, open war began between the factious of the **Burgundians** and **Armagnacs**: these latter were the supporters of the family of Orleans, so called from the name of a prominent noble among

them. These war, were going on during Henry IV's reign, but although he was allied with the Duke of Burgundy he could not interfere. When Henry V. came to the throne peace had been made between the factions and the Dauphin* of France helped by the Armagnacs had control of the government. France however was much weakened by the civil war, so that there seemed to be a good opportunity for recovering the possessions lost under Edward III. The whole English nation was overjoyed when Henry V. made impossible demands from the Dauphin. These demands were of course refused and Henry crossed the channel with an army of thirty thousand men and landed at the mouth of the Seine. Harfleur was besieged and taken. Henry crossed the Somme. In front of him at Agincourt was a French army sixty thousand strong. Henry led his men to the attack. The French were totally routed. No fewer than eight thousand French nobles fell in his battle. Henry returned to England, where he was received with the greatest joy.

1415 A.D.

150. **Conquest of Normandy.**—Two years later Henry V. landed in Normandy. The war of Burgundians and Armagnacs had again broken out. No army opposed the English, who took the principal fortresses by storm and soon conquered the country. When resistance was at an end, Henry took care that government should be well administered and life and property secured.

151. **Treaty of Troyes.**—Having conquered Normandy Henry advanced towards Paris. The two French factions were about to unite in a common defence of their country, when the Duke of Burgundy

* The title of the Heir Apparent of the French Throne.

was assassinated by the friends of the Dauphin. This roused the Burgundians to fury. They had possession of the person of the insane king Charles VI. and began to treat in his name with Henry. A treaty was signed at **Troyes** and agreed to by the people of Paris, who supported the Burgundians, by which Henry was made **Regent of France** and was to marry **Catherine**, Charles VI's daughter. In this way two governments were set up in France. Henry V. ruled in the north supported by the Burgundians, and the Dauphin supported by the Armagnacs in the south. There was some further fighting between these parties and then both Henry V. and Charles VI. died in the same year, 1422.

CHAPTER III.

The Early years of Henry VI.

1422 A.D.—1461 A.D.

152. **Henry VI.**, son of Henry V.—being an infant ten months old—succeeded him. The **Duke of Bedford** was appointed Regent of France and the **Duke of Gloucester, Protector of the Realm of England.** The long minority of Henry was as unfortunate a thing for England as the insanity of Charles VI. had been for France. In England as in France there were contests among the nobles for power; and things only became worse when Henry grew up and began to govern himself. He turned out to be a weak foolish king, and he was led very much by his favourites. In his reign all the French possessions except **Calais** were lost, and in England things became so bad, that a *civil war* broke out—"**The Wars of the Roses.**"

153. **War with France continued.**—The Duke of Bedford was a skilful general as well as an able statesman, and he carried on the war in France with energy and ability. He defeated the Dauphin in several battles and brought all France north of the Loire, under English rule.

154. **Joan of Arc.**—It was resolved to cross the Loire and lay siege to Orleans. Then there appeared a young woman, who was to turn the tide of battle against the English. Her name was **Joan of Arc.** She appeared before the Dauphin, and told him that she had received a commission from Heaven to relieve Orleans, and conduct him to Rheims to be crowned king. At first she was looked upon as half-witted. But the purity of her patriotism, and the genuineness of her religious convictions so displayed themselves, that she was at last allowed to accompany the army to Orleans. Meanwhile reports were spread of miracles being worked by her. And while her appearance clad in armour and riding on a white charger gave courage and spirit to the French, it produced an opposite effect on the English, who like most people of that time, were very superstitious. The English had gained a victory outside the town of Orleans. But now Joan of Arc was able to carry provisions into the city, and she so directed
1429 A.D. the operations against the English that they were forced to raise the siege. Charles went to Rheims and was crowned king. Joan now said that her mission was accomplished and wished to return to her parents, but she was pursuaded to continue in arms, and being captured by some Burgundian soldiers was handed over to the English. By them she was burned as a witch in the market-place of Rouen in 1431.

155. **Loss of the French possessions.**—The English

could not however recover what they had lost. The Duke of Bedford died in 1435 and the Duke of Burgundy left the English side. In England there were contentions among the nobles. **William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk,** became the king's chief adviser. Under his influences in 1445, Henry VI. married **Margaret** daughter of the **Duke of Anjou** to whom the provinces of Maine and Anjou were given. The war still went on and the English had to retreat gradually before Charles III. and his generals. The last battle was in 1453 at **Chatillon.** After this battle no town or territory in France was occupied by the English except Calais.

CHAPTER IV.

The Wars of the Roses.

Henry VI. 1450-1461. Edward IV. 1461-1483. Edward V.—1483. Richard III. 1483-1485.

156. **Death of Suffolk.**—There can be no doubt that the failure of the Plantagenets and Lancastrians to conquer France was really very fortunate for England. But at the time Englishmen felt disgraced by their defeats. This feeling, along with the heavy taxation and the weakness of the government made Suffolk very unpopular. He was impeached and the king was obliged to decree his banishment. But this was not enough. When crossing to France he was waylaid and beheaded, and his headless body was thrown on the coast of Kent.

157. **Jack Cade's rebellion.**—As Suffolk's party still remained in power the people of Kent, fearing they would be punished, took to arms. Led by **Jack Cade** they advanced on London, defeated the king's forces at **Sevenoaks** and entered the city. They demanded

that they should be left free to elect their representatives to Parliament, complained of misgovernment by the ministry, and demanded that the government should be given to the Duke of York.

158. **The king becomes insane.**—The Duke of Somerset succeeded Suffolk as the king's favourite and chief minister. There was still much discontent with the government, especially with the way in which the French war was being managed, and the leader of the opposition as we should now call him was the Duke of York, the descendant of the Dukes of Clarence and York, both elder sons of Edward III. than John of Gaunt. York was supported by the people and the Church rather than by the nobles. In 1453, the King became insane and the House of Lords, consisting largely of spiritual peers made York Regent, Somerset being sent to the Tower. Within two years Henry recovered. Richard ceased to be Regent, Somerset was recalled to power. York fearing Somerset's vengeance took up arms.

159. **The Wars of the Roses.**—A battle was fought at St. Albans in which Somerset was defeated and slain and the king captured. This was the first battle of the Wars of the Roses—so called because the two parties Lancastrians and Yorkists took respectively a red and white rose as their badges. The war was similar to that of the Burgundians and Armagnacs in France—a contest among the great nobles of the kingdom for power. The people in general took little interest in the fighting: it was chiefly carried on by the nobles and their retainers. Edward III. had made his sons powerful nobles by marrying them whenever he could to heiresses: so that nearly all the nobles were related to either the Yorkist of Lancastrian branch of the royal family. Parliament by appointing Henry IV. King had interfered

with the regular course of succession. Henry V. had died young and the royal authority had been very weak throughout Henry VI's reign, first because of his youth, later because of his folly, which finally became madness. These may be considered the causes of the Wars of the Roses. These wars lasted for thirty years and may be divided into three periods (1) 1455-1460, War for the Control of Government. (2) 1460-1471, War for the throne. (3) 1471-1483, Rebellion of Warwick. (4) 1483-1485, War against Richard III.

160. The war for the Control of Government.—In this war York was supported by the Earls of Salisbury and Warwick. In the battle or Northampton 1460, York captured the King. After this success, he brought forward his claim to the throne. Parliament admitted its justice and declared him Henry VI's heir.

161. The War for the throne.—The Queen, Margaret of Anjou, was the chief person on the Lancastrian side in this war. York was slain in the battle of Wakefield. His son Edward however took his place, and after the great battle of Towton in 1461, he was recognised as king, Henry and Margaret flying to Scotland.

162. The rebellion of Warwick.—Edward reigned unopposed for eight years. Then he quarrelled with Warwick. The king's brother the Duke of Clarence joined Warwick in a rebellion and for a short time Henry VI. was restored. But in the battle of Barnet 1471, Warwick was defeated and slain by Edward. Soon after at Tewkesbury, Margaret was also defeated and her young son Edward was killed. It was because he first made Edward IV. king and then restored Henry VI. that Warwick was called the King Maker.

163. **The war against Richard III.**—Edward IV. died in 1483. Young Edward, his son and heir, was only thirteen years of age. Edward IV. on his death-bed had bequeathed the care of his son and kingdom to his brother Richard, *Duke of Gloucester*. Richard was, accordingly, appointed Protector of the Realm. He at once took steps to secure the crown for himself. Lord Rivers and others of the Queen's relatives were put to death. Lord Hastings, the favourite minister of Edward IV., and likely to prove a firm supporter of Edward V., was suddenly accused by Richard of sorcery and of plotting against his life, and was borne off to the Tower to be executed, Richard declaring he would not dine till Hastings' head was brought to him. Edward V. himself and his younger brother were lodged in the Tower and were probably murdered there by Richards' orders. In little more than two months Richard was acknowledged King of England.

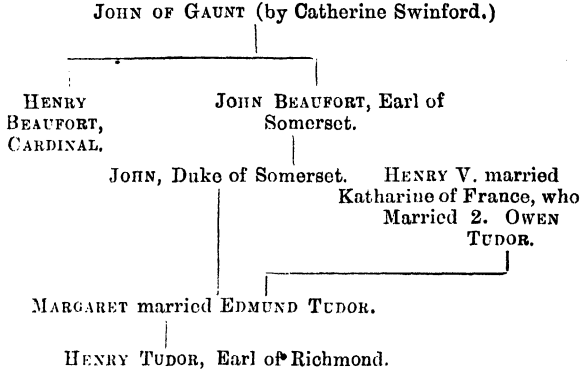
For a time he seemed to have been completely successful, but many Yorkists were as much opposed to him as the Lancastrians were. On the news of the death of the Princes in the Tower, conspiracies began to be formed against the usurper. Buckingham, who had been Richard's chief ally, was the leader of one rebellion and being defeated was at once beheaded.

Henry, Earl of Richmond, was in Brittany. He was the son of Lady Margaret Beaufort, who had married Edmund Tudor, and Lady Beaufort was a lineal descendant of John of Gaunt, the fourth son of Edward III. It was resolved to place him on the throne and he was to marry Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV. Crossing over from Brittany he landed at Milford Haven. As he advanced the people flocked to his standard. He came up with Richard

at Bosworth Field in Leicestershire. Lord Stanley deserted Richard. The Earl of Northumberland did the same. Richard rushing into the field, and crying out "Treason, Treason," made for the place where Henry, Earl of Richmond, was. He was cut down. The Plantagenet dynasty came to an end. The crown was placed on the head of Henry Tudor. 1485 A.D.

164. **England during the wars of the Roses.**—As has been said the people cared little about the struggles for power among the nobles, especially towards the end of the war, so that the country did not suffer so much from the war as might seem probable. Trade and commerce increased during the period, the middle classes became more wealthy and serfdom almost disappeared. The ordinary business of the law courts was carried on. Changes however came about in the way in which the country was governed. The gradual increase in the power of Parliament since Edward I.'s reign has been noticed under Henry VI. one step further had been made. The "Petitions" of Parliament assumed the form of statutes or "Acts of Parliament," and the sovereign could only *give assent* to them. He could not modify or alter them in any way. But under Edward IV. parliamentary government for a time came to an end. The reason of this was that Edward IV. had plenty of money. The estates of the barons who had fought against him in the wars were forfeited to the crown. Edward traded on his own account, and so he has been called the "merchant king." When he did want money he went to the merchants and demanded from them what he called "benevolences," that is, *free-will gifts*. Of course those who were asked could not refuse. Richard III. saw the evil of this system and forbade it though he afterwards had to use it himself.

TABLE SHOWING DESCENT OF THE TUDORS.



THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

	A.D.
Henry VII.	1485
Henry VIII.	1509
Edward VI.	1547
Mary	1553
Elizabeth	1558—1603

CHAPTER I.

Henry VII.

1485 A.D.—1509 A.D.

165. **The Impostor Lambert Simnel.**—Henry ruled entirely by the authority of Parliament. He had no hereditary claim whatever. To make his position as strong as possible he married **Elizabeth of York**; and the **Earl of Warwick**, son of the Duke of Clarence, Edward IV's brother, was kept in the Tower. Most of the Yorkists were satisfied by the King's marriage, but **Lord Lovel**, who had been Richard III's minister, rose against Henry VII. This rising only showed that the people wanted to preserve the settlement. Very few people joined Lovel and his rebellion was soon put down, but he escaped from England. Soon after he got the assistance of the English in Ireland, who were Yorkists, and pretended that a boy named **Lambert Simnel** was the young Earl of Warwick. Lambert Simnel was brought to England with a body of Irish and German mercenaries, but very few Englishmen joined him, and his supporters were defeated in a battle at **Stoke**. Sim-

nel was pardoned and made a cook-boy in the royal kitchen.

166. **The Star Chamber.**—To keep down the nobles, the laws against "*maintenance*," and "*the giving of liveries*," which had been in existence before, were brought into force. By the latter the nobles were no longer to keep about them bands of retainers wearing their *liveries*. By the former they were forbidden to *maintain* or support their retainers' quarrels in the law courts. That these statutes might be properly enforced against great and powerful nobles, Parliament established a new court of Justice. This was to consist of certain Members of the Privy Council and two of the Judges. As it sat in the Star Chamber at Westminster, it was called the **Court of the Star Chamber.**

167. **Henry's modes of raising money.**—"For a king to be strong he must be rich," said Henry, and he set himself to amass money. Money was voted by Parliament to carry on a war with France. But Henry having got a bribe from the French King, the war never took place, and the money voted by Parliament was devoted by Henry to his own use. The old system of *benevolences* was again introduced. The nobles who lived in great state were told to give the King money, because their style of living showed they were rich. Those who lived quietly were told to give money, because from the frugal way in which they lived, they must be saving. Old laws that had fallen into disuse during the Wars of the Roses were sought out, and men were fined for having broken them. All kinds of petty extortions were resorted to. A good story is told of Henry himself enforcing the Statute of Liveries He was on a visit to the **Earl of Oxford.** The Earl, to do the King honour, had his liveried retainers drawn up in two

lines. "I thank you for your good cheer, My Lord," said Henry, "but I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." It is said the Earl was fined £10,000. By means such as these Henry became so rich, that during the last thirteen years of his reign he called only one parliament. When he died it is said he left £1,800,000 in his treasury.

168. **Perkin Warbeck. 1492—1499.**—Henry's severe government and extortions made him many enemies. These got up a new plot, putting forward a certain Perkin Warbeck as **Richard**, the second son of Edward IV. who was murdered in the Tower. Warbeck had many supporters. **Margaret of Burgundy**, sister of Edward IV., helped him with men and money, and named him the "White Rose of England." **James IV. of Scotland** took up his cause and entered England. But he was soon forced to make peace, and Warbeck had to leave Scotland. He then landed in Cornwall, and was joined by the **Cornish** men and before he reached **Exeter**, was at the head of six thousand men. But Henry was close at hand with his army and his cannon, which now played an important part in war. The rebels submitted. Warbeck was taken prisoner. He confessed himself an impostor. Subsequently, when in the Tower, he tried to escape, and for doing so he was hanged at Tyburn in 1499. **1497 A.D.**

169. **Henry's Policy.**—Henry's great desire was to maintain peace. To secure this he brought about several marriages. His daughter **Margaret** was married to **James IV. of Scotland.** This must be remembered, for it was by this marriage that **James VI. of Scotland** became heir to the throne of England. Henry's eldest son, **Arthur**, was married to **Cathe-**

rine, the daughter of Ferdinand of Spain, but Arthur died shortly after.

170. National Progress.—During this reign the trade of England began to revive. Columbus discovered the West Indies. Vasco de Gama landed in India. John and Sebastian Cabot, natives of Bristol, discovered Labrador and the American coast as far south as Carolina.

Towards the end of this reign education made a great bound in England. The Printing Press first set up by Caxton in 1473 had done much for literature. Men now began to study Greek and Latin, and to interpret the Gospels for themselves. John Colet founded St. Paul's School in London (1519). Here Greek was taught and the New Testament studied. Other schools were opened on the same model. Great scholars, such as Erasmus and Sir Thomas More exposed the follies and weaknesses of the monks. A more rational Christianity was advocated. A way was being made for the Reformation that was to come in the next reign.

CHAPTER II.

Henry VIII.

1509 A.D.—1547 A.D.

171. Henry VIII. was only eighteen when his father died. He was a handsome young man, was fond of learning and had a very pleasing manner. The people were very glad to have him asking because he was so different from his greedy father. His ministers loved him, and did every thing they could to make him great and powerful. But Henry did not

act rightly by them. For whenever any one, to please him and make him great, rendered himself unpopular, Henry at once got rid of him. So Henry VIII. was a difficult master to serve. One of the first things he did was very pleasing to the people. The chief persons that his father had employed to extort money were two lawyers named **Empson** and **Dudley**. Henry had them executed. In the first year of his reign Henry, having obtained permission from the Pope, married **Catherine**, his brother **Arthur's** widow.

172. **Henry's Wars.**—France was now trying to conquer **Italy**. Henry was anxious to get fame as a warrior, and to recover the French possessions lost by Henry VI. So he entered into a league with the **Pope, Ferdinand of Spain,** and the **Emperor Maximilian** and led an army into France. This army won the "**Battle of Spurs**," so called because the French cavalry fled in panic at the sight of the enemy, and took **Tournay**. In the same year **James IV.** of Scotland broke the alliance he had entered into with Henry VIII. and invaded England. But at **Flodden** he and the flower of his nobility were slain by the English under the **Earl of Surrey**. Peace was soon afterwards made with France.

173. **Thomas Wolsey.**—Thomas Wolsey became a great man in the early part of Henry's reign. He had been a chaplain of **Henry VII's**, and latterly had been with **Henry VIII.** in **France**. The King had observed how clever a man he was and he made him his friend. In 1514 he was appointed **Archbishop of York** and **Chancellor of England**. In the following year he was made a **Cardinal**, and the next year **Papal Legate**. Wolsey thus became the most powerful man both in the Church and in the State. His income was enormous. He lived in the most royal style.

Wherever he went, a train of prelates and nobles accompanied him. His household numbered five hundred persons of noble birth. He built two houses, Hampton Court and York House, both of which at his death became royal palaces. He was a very learned man himself, and liked to have learned men about him. To encourage learning he founded a school at Ipswich, and a college, now called Christ Church, at Oxford.

174. **Wolsey's foreign policy.**—Two young and ambitious princes had just succeeded to important kingdoms—Francis I. of France, and Charles V. of Spain. In 1519 Maximilian, the Emperor, died. Now the Empire differed from the other states of Europe. It consisted of a number of principalities, some larger, some smaller, and the greater princes called Electors had the right of electing the Emperor, who need not be a German prince. Francis I., Charles V., and Henry VIII. all wished to be elected, and finally Charles was chosen. He was already sovereign of Spain, Austria, Naples, the Netherlands, and the New World; so he was a very powerful monarch. This made the rivalry between Francis and Charles all the greater and they were both eager to get Henry VIII. as their ally Wolsey, as the first man in England, was courted both by Francis and Charles, and he tried to play the one off against the other. Henry was invited to France. He met Francis at Guisnes. No
1520 A.D. expenditure was spared. Each monarch tried to excel the other in magnificence. Tournaments were held, and there were great feastings. From the splendour with which every thing was done, this meeting came to be known as The Field of the Cloth of Gold.

175. **Charles meets Henry.**—The meeting with

Francis was a sham however, for Henry had already met Charles V. in England and had promised him his support, and when in the next year Francis I. invaded Charles' possessions in North Italy, Henry sent an expedition to France, which however retired without doing anything.

176. **Wolsey and Parliament.**—Henry VIII. like Henry VII. ruled as far as possible without summoning Parliament. Money was raised by forced loans and benevolences. It was difficult to collect these however as they were known to be illegal, so in 1523 Parliament was summoned. Wolsey went in person and demanded the levying of a property-tax of twenty per cent. He hoped that by going in person Parliament would not refuse him. But not a member would discuss the question in his presence. They would have no pressure of this kind put upon them. Wolsey had to retire. An angry debate followed. A subsidy of only one-half what Wolsey asked was granted. This event is interesting because it shows that Parliament still claimed to control taxation, although throughout the reign it was very rarely summoned and money was constantly taken from the people illegally.

177. **Treaty of Madrid.**—Francis I. was defeated by Charles in the battle of Pavia, 1525, and made prisoner. Henry hoped now to get back the lost French possessions. But, by the Treaty of Madrid, Francis was set free; Charles V. got Burgundy; and Henry got nothing. This turned Henry against Charles and it was not long before he joined Francis.

1525 A.D.

178. **Henry wishes to divorce Catherine.**—Wolsey had from the first been in favour of an alliance with France, and, whether instigated by Wolsey or not, a step was now taken that rendered an alliance between

Henry and Charles impossible. Henry, wishing to secure the friendship of Spain, had married Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his dead brother. He had not at the time of the marriage been satisfied that it was lawful, but had been persuaded by his councillors to enter into it.

The union had lasted eighteen years, but only one child of it, the princess Mary, was alive. Henry had fallen in love with one of the Queen's ladies, Anne Boleyn. He had therefore several reasons for desiring to dissolve his marriage with Catherine, scruples of conscience, desire for an heir, and love of Anne Boleyn. Wolsey was in favour of the dissolution of the marriage, but wished the King to marry a French princess. The Pope was asked to declare that the dispensation granted to the King to marry his brother's widow was unlawful. But the Pope was too much afraid of Charles, who was Catherine's nephew, to do this. He sent a Cardinal to England named Campeggio to sit with Wolsey and try the case. Wolsey now knew that the King had privately married Anne Boleyn so he no longer wished to secure the divorce, and the two cardinals gave no decision.

179. Fall of Wolsey.—The King thought that Wolsey had deceived him and was very angry. Wolsey was driven from the Court. The office of Chancellor was taken from him, 1529. A prosecution was begun against him for holding his court as *Papal Legate* in England. This was a breach of the *Statute of Praemunire*.* Wolsey surrendered his vast wealth to the King. A pardon was granted. Wolsey retired to his see at York. But his enemies followed him there. He

1530 A.D.

* See p. 79.

was arrested on a charge of treason and taken towards London to be lodged in the Tower. At Liecester he fell ill and going to the Abbey, he said to the priests at the gate "I am come to lay my bones among you." Wolsey died there (29th November, 1530). His last words were "If I had served my God as diligently as I have served the King, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs."

CHAPTER III.

Henry VIII.

1509 A.D.—1547 A.D.

The Reformation.

180. Thomas Cromwell.—For the next ten years **Thomas Cromwell** was at the head of affairs. He had been Wolsey's confidential servant and was taken into the King's employment because of his ability and unscrupulousness. The King was still anxious for the divorce. On the advice of **Cranmer** the question was referred to the **Universities of Europe.** Much money was spent in bribery. Still Henry could not get a decision in his favour. Cromwell now came forward with his proposal—a proposal which, was no less than this, that Henry should no longer acknowledge the Pope as head of the Church, but become head of the Church in England himself, and obtain a divorce from his own Church Courts.

181. Henry, Head of the Church.—As a first step the clergy were told that they had broken the Statute of Praemunire by recognising Wolsey as Papal Legate and so frightened into paying a large sum of money and acknowledging Henry "*Protector and only Supreme Head of the Church and Clergy*

in England." Catherine was sent away from the royal palace. The Pope threatened Henry with excommunication. Henry replied by passing a "*Statute of Appeals,*" which put an end to the jurisdiction of the Pope in matters concerned with England. Cranmer as head of the court of the Archbishop of Canterbury declared Henry's marriage with Catherine illegal. The next week Anne Boleyn became queen.

182. **The king, an absolute Monarch.**—The divorce had been accomplished. Cromwell now set himself to make the King's power absolute. Already the King was absolute in the State, for parliament did whatever he told them. He must be equally powerful in the Church. The Act of Supremacy was passed in 1534. By it the sole authority in ecclesiastical matters was vested in the King, as Supreme Head of the Church. Cromwell was made Vicar-General, *i.e.*, Agent for the King in matters connected with the Church. Soon his power was felt. The clergy had to preach what they were told. The belief and practice of the Church was to be that dictated by the crown. Henry and his advisers had no intention of altering the principal doctrines of the Church. They were convinced however that many changes in smaller matters were desirable, but also that there must be uniformity of belief and practice. Among the changes that were made were the abolition of many of the feasts of the Church, the destruction of images and the translation of the Bible into English. This last was probably allowed so that people might find that there was no mention of the Pope in the Bible, but its effect was to set men thinking about the fundamental doctrines of the Church and to help the spread of the ideas of the Protestants as the followers of Luther and other

1534 A.D.

German and Swiss reformers were now called. These changes met with general approval, but there were some who objected to one or other of them. Of these the most noted were **Bishop Fisher** and **Sir Thomas More**, the author of "*Utopia*" and one of the most learned men in Europe, who were both executed for denying the king's supremacy.

183. **Suppression of the Monasteries.**—It was generally believed that the heads of monasteries and their monks often led wicked lives. Cromwell ordered inquiries to be made and much evidence against the monasteries, probably for the most part false, was collected. In consequence an act of Parliament was passed in 1536 to abolish the smaller monasteries, and three years later another to abolish the larger ones.

184. **The Pilgrimage of Grace.**—The abolition of the smaller monasteries did not please the people. The new masters to whom the Church lands were sold were not so kind to the peasants as the monks had been. A rising took place in **Lincoln**. The men of **York** took up arms under one **Robert Askew**. They had for their banner a painting of the crucified Christ. Their rising was called the **Pilgrimage of Grace**. In order to put an end to the rebellion the Government promised that a parliament should be held to consider their grievances and that they should receive a pardon. The rebels consequently dispersed, but many were executed notwithstanding the pardon.

185. **Henry VIII. and Parliament.**—We have seen that since the Wars of the Roses, the kings ruled independently of Parliament by avoiding summoning it. Henry VIII. probably under the advice of Cromwell now followed a bolder policy. He made Parliament a means by which he could govern absolutely. The

House of Lords was not a numerous body and the execution of several of its leading members on charges of treason frightened it into submission. After the dissolution of the larger monasteries removed the abbots from the House, the lay lords for the first time outnumbered the churchmen. The House of Commons was "packed" by Cromwell, *i. e.*, by using his influence in the country he secured the election of men favourable to the King's policy. A Parliament of this kind would be likely to support almost any proposal of the king's, but he also took care that his proposals should be such as would be popular. He did not ask them to impose fresh taxes, and as the Church was unpopular his acts against the clergy were agreed to willingly. The same Parliament, which met first in 1529 sat for seven years and passed all the acts which separated the English Church from Rome and made the King Head of the Church. The next Parliament even passed an act (repealed in the next reign) declaring that the King's proclamations were as valid as acts of Parliament.

186. **Henry VIII. and the Protestants.**—Meanwhile the doctrines of the German and Swiss reformers were spreading in England, and there was a body of **English Protestants** who believed that several of the fundamental doctrines of the church were false. The King and Cromwell determined to put them down and with this object passed the **Statute of Six Articles** by which denial of any one of six doctrines could be punished by death. The chief of these was the doctrine of **Transubstantiation**, i.e., that in the most solemn ceremonial of the church, the mass, certain bread and wine was miraculously changed into the body and blood of Christ. This doctrine was denied by the Protestants, who regarded the bread

and wine as symbols only. By the Statute of Six Articles denial of Transubstantiation was to be punishable with burning alive, and some, though not many, did suffer this penalty under it.

187. **The fall of Cromwell.**—Henry had married Anne Boleyn and she had given birth to a daughter, afterwards Queen Elizabeth. But she had been brought to the block on a charge of unchastity. Lady Jane Seymour had become queen, and, on the birth of a son, afterwards Edward VI. had died. Now Cromwell was seeking a new wife for Henry. But he had a further object also in view. He wished, if possible, to unite Henry with the Protestant States of Germany, and to form a league with France against the Emperor Charles, and the Roman Catholic States. Anne of Cleves, a relative of the protestant Elector of Saxony, was the selected bride. But she did not please Henry, and she was sent away from the palace with a pension. France would not join a league that might overthrow the Roman Catholic Church. Henry turned against Cromwell. The nobles and prelates, eagerly watching for an opportunity, brought a charge of treason against him. No trial was allowed him. By a "*Bill of Attainder*," a form of procedure introduced by Cromwell himself, by which a man could be condemned by Parliament without trial he was found guilty and sentenced to death. 1540 A.D.

188. **Death of Henry VIII.**—Henry's marriage with Anne of Cleves was annulled, and Catherine Howard, of the house of Norfolk, became his wife. But within two years she was brought to the block on her own confession of having been unchaste before her marriage. Henry thereafter married a sixth wife, Catherine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer. The Duke of Norfolk was at the head of affairs. While

in favour of reforms in the Church, he at first wished as little change made as possible. Cranmer, on the other hand, leaned more and more to the side of the Protestants. In England, as on the Continent, the people became divided into two religious parties, and, as often happens, they persecuted each other as each had the power. Norfolk, inclining more and more towards the Roman Catholic religion, enforced the Six-Articles. Anne Ascue a lady of the court, was burned because she denied the doctrine of transubstantiation. Bishop Latimer was imprisoned. Cranmer himself was in the greatest danger. There was another party among the nobles which was Protestant, and Henry at the end of his reign favoured this. He was taken ill and immediately sent Norfolk and his son the Earl of Surrey to the Tower. The latter was executed, the former just saved by the death of the King. The Earl of Hertford who favoured the Protestants, was placed at the head of a Council of Regency which Henry appointed before his death.

CHAPTER IV.

Edward VI.

189. **The Protectorate of the Duke of Somerset.**—The party of the Earl of Hertford was in power at the time of Henry's death, and he was made *Protector of the Realm* and received the title of Duke of Somerset. Somerset's party was Protestant. Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, had also become a Protestant. Consequently the boy-King Edward VI. was brought up to be a protestant. The great power of the crown which had been established by Henry VII. and VIII. was therefore

used to make England a Protestant country although the majority of the people were still Roman Catholics. The Six Articles and the laws against the Lollards were repealed. Images and pictures were taken down from the Churches. The *Communion Service* took the place of the *Mass*. A New Prayer Book, in English instead of Latin—which had been used for prayers ever since the time of Augustine, —was introduced. The churches were robbed to satisfy the greed of the nobles.

Somerset's Protestant policy made him unpopular in England. He also very much offended the Scotch. Henry VIII. had wished to marry Edward VI. to Mary grand daughter of James IV. of Scotland and Margaret Tudor a daughter of Henry VII. He saw that this marriage would connect the two royal families of the Tudors and the Stuarts and might lead to a union of the two countries under one sovereign. The Scotch wanted to pursue their old policy of hostility to England and friendship with France. Somerset, to force the Scotch to consent to the marriage, invaded Scotland and gained a victory at Pinkie. This only infuriated the Scotch and the Princess Mary was sent at once to France, so that when she was old enough she might marry a French prince.

Since the beginning of the reformation great changes had been going on in the ownership of the land. Much of the land had been taken from the Church, some from the old noble families, the heads of which Henry VII. and VIII. had executed. This land had been given chiefly to men who had made themselves useful by carrying out the despotic designs of these kings. Such men generally received titles of nobility, and after the death of Henry VIII. this "*new nobility*" carried on the government. They were anxious to make the most of their land and used

to act without proper regard for the rights of the villagers, enclosing waste village lands, for instance, as though they were their private property. The popular discontent was shown by a rebellion in Norfolk headed by **Robert Ket**, a tanner. The nobles said that Somerset had encouraged the rioters, and as he was no longer popular with any party, he had to resign the Protectorate.

190. **The Earl of Warwick.**—The council now decided not to have a protector, but the most influential man in the kingdom was soon seen to be **Dudley, Earl of Warwick**, son of Henry VII.'s minister. He continued Somerset's Protestant policy. The altars in the churches were thrown down. The formal standard of doctrine in the Church was embodied in *Forty-two Articles*. All the clergy had to sign these Articles. **Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester**, and **Bonner, Bishop of London**, refused and were thrown into prison. These Articles were afterwards reduced to *Thirty-nine*, and these are still the standard of doctrine in the Church of England.

191. **Question of the Succession.**—Warwick was becoming as unpopular as Somerset had been. The latter began to gather his friends in the hope of returning to power. He was seized, convicted of felony and executed. This made Warwick, now Duke of Northumberland, so powerful that he aimed at getting the crown into his own family. Edward was very sickly and not likely to live. The next heir to the throne, was **Mary**, the daughter of **Catherine of Aragon**. She was a Roman Catholic. Were she to succeed, Northumberland would be ruined. Edward was persuaded to make a will bequeathing the throne to **Lady Jane Grey**, a *grand daughter* of **Mary**, the *younger* daughter of **Henry VII.** A few weeks before, she had been married to **Lord**

Guildford Dudley, Northumberland's son. On Edward's death in 1553 Lady Jane Grey was proclaimed queen.

CHAPTER V.

Mary.

1553 A.D.—1558 A.D.

192. **Queen Mary.**—Lady Jane Grey had been proclaimed queen but she was never to wear the crown. The people would not endure such a base settlement. They rose in arms in favour of Mary. Northumberland's followers deserted him. When he saw that all was lost he himself proclaimed Mary queen. But this did not save him. He was found guilty of high treason and brought to the block. Lord Guildford Dudley, Lord Suffolk, and his accomplished, guileless daughter, Lady Jane Grey, were lodged in the Tower.

193. **Roman Catholicism restored.**—All that had been done in the previous reign was soon undone. The new Prayer Book was set aside. Images were again set up in the churches. The Mass was restored. The laws against the Lollards were once more brought into force. Had Mary been content to preserve the form of religion as Henry VIII. had left it, she and her people might have been happy enough. But, as the Protestants were over-zealous in altering the faith and form of worship in the Church, so Mary was over-zealous in trying to bring it back again to what it formerly was. Bonner and Gardiner were at once freed from prison. The latter was made Lord Chancellor. On the other hand, Cranmer, Bishop Ridley and Bishop Latimer, were lodged in the Tower.

194. **The Spanish match.**—Mary wished to marry Philip of Spain. He was the son of the Emperor Charles V., and Charles V. was at the head of the Roman Catholic party on the Continent. The people of England did not like the idea of such a marriage. They feared that, if it took place, England might become simply a dependency of Spain, and that the Pope would become head of the English Church as before. Revolts took place. The most formidable one was in Kent, under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wyatt, a very brave and learned man. He advanced to London which was the stronghold of Protestantism. Mary appealed to the people. Strange to say they shut the gates on Wyatt. Wyatt's followers left him. He was brought to the block. Advantage was taken of this disturbance to put to death Suffolk and Guildford Dudley and Lady Jane Grey. Mary, a few months after, married Philip.

1554 A.D.

195. **The Church brought under the Pope.**—Mary had now the power as well as the zeal to re-establish Roman Catholicism. The Pope was acknowledged the head of the Church. Cardinal Pole arrived in England as Papal Legate. Persecution of the Protestants at once followed. Ridley and Latimer perished together at Oxford. "Play the man, Master Ridley," said Latimer as the fire was being kindled; "we shall this day light such a candle in England as, by the grace of God, shall never be put out." Cranmer, in the hope of saving his life, had signed a denial of the Protestant doctrines. But he was led to the stake all the same. And there again declaring his belief in the Protestant faith, and saying that his hand had written what his heart did not believe, he held his hand in the fire that it might be burned first.

1555 TO 1558 A.D.

As time went on the persecutions increased. From 1555 to 1558 not fewer than three hundred persons suffered death by burning. Its result was not however what was expected. The Protestants continued to grow more numerous and active, and even Mary's Roman Catholic subjects came to hate her.

196. **Loss of Calais.**—Troubles came to Mary from abroad. Philip, her husband, had remained only a short time with her in England. He had gone back to Spain, and was now carrying on war with France. England joined him. Calais, the last remaining possession of England in France, was lost. Mary's brief reign ended in disappointment and sorrow. In England she had lost the love of her people by her zeal for the Pope. By going to war with France she had incurred the Pope's displeasure. By the loss of Calais she had brought shame on England. She died in 1558. In after years she was known as *Bloody Mary*, because of the number of people she caused to be put to death. But in some ways she was kind and good, and her sufferings when young, from the stain cast on her birth, must gain for her some sympathy.

1558 A.D.

CHAPTER VI.

Elizabeth.

1558 A.D.—1603 A.D.

197. **Protestantism restored.**—Elizabeth, the daughter of *Henry VIII.* and *Anne Boleyn*, succeeded, and the people were rejoiced to have her as their sovereign. She was a Protestant. A very deep feeling of hatred now existed between the Roman

Catholics and the Protestants. The Roman Catholics remembered how they had been persecuted under Somerset. The Protestants remembered how they had suffered under Mary. The majority of the people were still Roman Catholics. Elizabeth felt it necessary to be very careful in settling matters of religion. She first once more abolished the power of the Pope in England by an Act of Supremacy, declaring the Sovereign in England "in all causes ecclesiastical as well as civil Supreme." This was followed by the Act of Uniformity, which ordered the Prayer Book to be used in all churches. This of course restored Protestant doctrines and modes of worship. In order to enforce it Parker, a Protestant was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and a new court called the *Court of High Commission* was established. A few years later, an act was passed against the Roman Catholics. At first this settlement of religion was not popular, but in the end the English Church as established by Elizabeth gained the love and obedience of the majority of the people. During Elizabeth's reign however it had to meet the attacks of two parties, the Roman Catholics and the Puritans. The first party was almost destroyed in the course of the reign, the second grew steadily in importance throughout it and was so powerful at its close as to be able to greatly influence the course of English history in the seventeenth century. Some account of it will be given towards the end of the chapter.

1559 A.D.

198. **Elizabeth's Foreign Policy.**—In most of the countries of Europe a struggle was going on between Protestants and Roman Catholics. The Emperor Charles V. had resigned his crown and his dominions had been divided between his sons.

Philip II. the husband of Mary was king of Spain, the Indies and the Netherlands. He was thought to be the most powerful prince in Europe, and his one object was to restore the authority of the Pope, particularly in England. The people of the Netherlands were Protestants. Philip determined to make them Catholics again. They refused to acknowledge him as king and set up a republic, the United Netherlands, and Philip with all his power was never able to conquer them, chiefly because, like the English, they were splendid sailors. During nearly the whole of Elizabeth's reign a fierce war was going on in the Netherlands between Philip's Catholic troops and these brave Dutch Protestants.

In France there were seven civil wars between Protestants and Catholics during the latter half of the 16th century, and there were also religious wars in Germany.

Elizabeth as ruler of the largest Protestant state could not keep clear of these struggles. She did not however, dare to side very openly with either the French or Dutch Protestants, although many of her subjects wanted her to do so. She pursued a very clever policy in the early part of her reign, making the Catholics think that she might after all marry Philip II. and make England again Catholic, and at the same time helping the Protestants as much as she could. The question of her marriage was very important. In the end she married no one, and gained much by making it seem sometimes that she was going to marry Philip, and sometimes a French prince.

199. Mary Queen of Scots.—Scotland was a great source of anxiety to Elizabeth. **Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots,** had been brought up in France.

She had married the Dauphin and become queen of France. She had declared herself to be Queen of England, on the ground that she was the lineal descendant of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and that Elizabeth as daughter of Anne Boleyn, was illegitimate. Her husband died and she returned to Scotland as a young widow. In Scotland Protestantism had made great way under John Knox and the Scotch Parliament had forbidden the service of the Mass, and had set aside the authority of the Pope. Mary found a strong party against her, as a Roman Catholic, and the French soldiers sent to support her. This party asked help from Elizabeth, and English soldiers were sent who drove the French out of the country. A few years later Mary married Lord Darnley, a weak minded young man. He was mysteriously murdered and Mary soon married the Earl of Bothwell who was thought to have had Darnley murdered.

200. Elizabeth and the Catholics.—In 1570 the Pope *excommunicated* Elizabeth, and all good Catholics were called upon to act against her and in favour of Mary, Queen of Scots. In England, Elizabeth's most active enemies were the *Jesuits*. These were members of a Roman Catholic religious society which had been established to contend against Protestantism. All the members were under perfect discipline, obeyed the heads of the society implicitly, and were willing even to give their lives in its service. They proceeded in two ways in England. They preached the old doctrines secretly, and they got up plots against Elizabeth. After Mary came to England these plots became more numerous and dangerous. In one of them the Duke of Norfolk was engaged. He wished to marry Mary and make her Queen, but his schemes were discovered and he was executed.

In self-defence Elizabeth was obliged to make very severe laws against the Catholics, and especially against the Jesuits. By one law any of these found in England were made liable to the penalty of death, and it was treason for any one to harbour a Jesuit. Several were executed under this law.

201. **Elizabeth and Spain.**—For the first thirty years of Elizabeth's reign there was no open war between England and Spain. But during most of this time Englishmen were doing all they could to injure Spain. They were anxious to trade in the West Indies, which Philip would not allow. English ships however constantly went there, and attacked Spanish towns, and when they could seize Spanish ships full of rich merchandise and silver and gold. Many bold and unscrupulous sea captains were engaged in these expeditions. **Hawkins**, sailed to the **Indies** and along the coast of **Guinea**. **Frobisher** sailed up **Davies Straits**. **Drake** passed through **Magellan Straits**, swept the coasts of **Lima** and **Peru**, crossed the **Pacific** to the **Moluccas** and returned home by the **Cape of Good Hope**. He had sailed round the world and brought home with him an enormous quantity of treasure, the plunder of Spanish ships and towns.

Another way in which England injured Spain was by helping her enemies. For a long time Elizabeth refused to become the ally of the United Provinces, but thousands of English *volunteers* fought in their armies. At last in 1585 Elizabeth did make a treaty and sent the **Earl of Leicester**, her favourite, with an army to the Netherlands. Then Philip began to prepare for an invasion of England.

202. **Execution of Mary Stuart.**—Meanwhile the hatred between the Roman Catholics and the Protestants had increased. In 1583 a plot to murder

Elizabeth was discovered. The Spanish ambassador was implicated in it, and he was sent out of the country. In 1586 another plot was formed for the same purpose. **Anthony Babington**, a gentleman of **Derbyshire**, was at the head of it, and Mary Queen of Scots, consented to it. The plot was found out. Mary was brought to trial,

1587 A.D. convicted, and executed at **Fotheringay Castle** in February 1587. Elizabeth had signed the death warrant. She afterwards declared she never intended it to be used. **Davison**, her secretary, who had taken the warrant to the Chancellor for his seal, was cast into the Tower.

203. **The Spanish Armada.**—The execution of Mary infuriated all the Catholics of Europe. The Pope declared a crusade against Elizabeth. Philip had got together a great fleet in the harbour of **Cadiz**, but Drake made a sudden attack on it and destroyed forty Spanish ships. This he called "Singling the King of Spain's beard." The result was to oblige Philip to put off the invasion for a year, which gave England time to make preparations to meet it.

It was not till July 1588 that the Spanish fleet of one hundred and thirty-two vessels was

1588 A.D. sighted off Plymouth. It had on board two thousand five hundred cannon, eight thousand seamen, and twenty thousand soldiers. Protestants and Roman Catholics—for patriotism became stronger than creed—came together to defend their country. The English collected eighty vessels. They were small but they were fast sailers, and the nine thousand seamen on board were under famous captains. **Lord Howard of Effingham** was admiral. The Spanish fleet sailed slowly up the Channel, followed and harassed by the English, who hung on

their rear. On the 27th July, the Spanish fleet dropped anchor in **Calais Roads**. The English admiral filled six of his oldest vessels with combustibles, set fire to them and sent them amongst the Spanish ships. The Spaniards in a panic cut their cables and stood out to sea. They were driven to the north by the wind. The English followed, and not until their ammunition was exhausted did they cease from the pursuit. Four thousand Spaniards fell. Several vessels were sunk or driven ashore. The commander of the Spanish fleet sailed round the north of Scotland. A severe storm came on. The islands in the west of Scotland were strewn with wrecks. Only fifty-three vessels reached Spain, and in them were ten thousand sick and dying men.

When the danger of invasion was thus averted the English ships put to sea and plundered **Corunna**. Drake crossed to the **West Indies**, captured the Spanish ships, and levied contributions from the Spanish colonies. **Cadiz** was plundered and burnt. Philip, aroused, got ready a second Armada: but a storm in the Bay of Biscay made a total wreck of it. In 1597 England had fully established her supremacy on the seas, and all fear of Spain was at an end.

204. **Ireland under Elizabeth.**—In Elizabeth's reign an attempt was begun to make Ireland Protestant and bring it entirely under English rule. The Irish were ardent Roman Catholics and preferred to be governed by their own chiefs, so that only by great severity could Elizabeth carry out her objects. The most powerful Irish chief was **Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone**, who wanted to make himself king and so raised and army against the English. He was in time put down and his land in **Ulster** was taken from him and given to English and Scotch people

1598 A.D.

who were willing to settle there and *colonise* it. This is called the **Colonization of Ulster.** Before this the Irish had had their land taken from them and given to people from Great Britain but not to so great an extent. We shall find that for centuries the Irish had to complain of two things: the persecution of the Catholics, and being deprived of their land.

205. **Rise of Puritanism.**—Just as the Catholics thought that too great changes had been made in religion by the Reformation, so another party, the Puritans, thought that still greater changes ought to be made. They wished that only learned and pious men should be clergymen, that these should be properly paid, but should not hold more than one office in the Church at a time, and that no doctrine should be taught that was not clearly laid down in the Bible. They disliked highly ornamented churches, the use of organs, the wearing of a special dress by the clergy, the ringing of church bells, and the giving of a ring in marriage. Religion they thought ought to be purely spiritual, and had nothing to be with all these things. Some of them also thought that the Church ought not to be governed by bishops but by assemblies of elders. These were called Presbyterians from a Greek word meaning an elder. Most of the Puritans continued to belong to the Church, but some left it altogether and called themselves Independents. Attempts were made to suppress Puritanism, and **Grindal**, Archbishop of Canterbury was deprived of his see for favouring them.

206. **Elizabeth's system of Government.**—The Queen ruled very much as her father had done, by means of the *Privy Council*. Her chief adviser Prime Minister, as we should now say, was **Cecil**

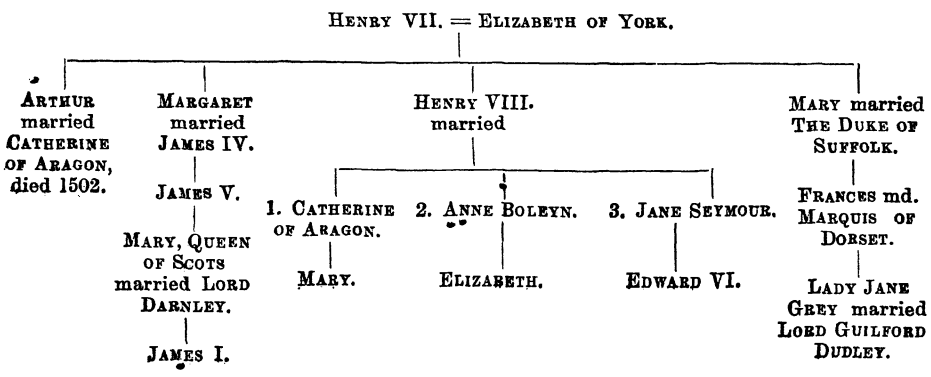
Lord Burleigh who until his death in 1598 managed almost the whole business of government. He always used his influence in favour of Protestantism. When Elizabeth listened to his advice things generally went well. She however sometimes yielded to her favourites among the nobles of the Court such as Leicester and Essex who hated Burleigh, as for instance in sending Leicester to the Netherlands and Essex to Ireland. By very careful management of money matters she avoided summoning Parliament often. When it did meet it nearly always supported her policy, for she deservedly enjoyed the complete sympathy and love of her subjects. Her last years however were sad ones. She had outlived her old friends and advisers, and her people were beginning to tire of the despotic system of the Tudors. She died a lonely old woman in March 1603.

207. **The Age of Elizabeth.**—The reign of Elizabeth is the most splendid period in English history. The spirit of adventure and especially of maritime enterprise made England mistress of the seas. Improved modes of agriculture were introduced, until it was said that one acre produced as much as two under the old mode. Many Protestant manufacturers, driven out of France and Flanders, sought refuge in England, and as they were more skilful than the English workmen improved English manufactures. The growth of commerce was still greater. English ships sailed up the Baltic. English ships, trying to find a north-east passage to India, discovered Archangel and opened up trade with Russia. On the coast of Newfoundland and in the Arctic Seas were to be found English ships engaged in the cod and whale fisheries, while on the coast of Guinea, Sir John Hawkins was securing the gold and ivory of Africa for the merchants of Southampton,

or laying the foundation of the American slave trade, by carrying off Negroes to labour in the plantations of the New World. This increased prosperity and wealth led to great changes in the style of living. The nobles built beautiful mansions for themselves in quite a different style of architecture from the old Norman keeps. The peasantry began to live in houses built of brick and stone. Pewter began to take the place of the wooden trencher; carpets the place of the flooring of rushes. Men now had leisure for thought and reading, and the adventurous life of the times provided subjects. Consequently literature revived. Shakespeare, Spencer, Sidney and Bacon all wrote their best in the reign of Elizabeth.

One act of Parliament of this reign must be mentioned, the *Poor Law*. This provided that the people of every town and village were to be taxed and the money used to support those who were too old or sick to work, and to provide work houses where the poor who could work but would not, might be made to do so. This act remained in force till 1834.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.



THE STUART PERIOD.

	A.D.
James I.	1603
Charles I.	1625
The Commonwealth	1649
Charles II.	1660
James II.	1685
William III. } Mary {	1689
Mary dies. William Sole Ruler ...	1694
Anne...	1702–1714

CHAPTER I.

James I.

1602 A.D.—1625 A.D.

208. **The Contests of James I's reign.**—James VI. of Scotland, as the descendant of *Margaret*, daughter of *Henry VII.*, was the nearest heir to the throne, and thus England and Scotland at last became united under one crown. But each country continued to have its own Parliament, its own Church and its own laws. James was a very learned man; but not at all a wise one. Some one called him the "wisest fool in Christendom." He believed that God gives their power to kings and that therefore no one has any right to limit the king's authority. This belief is called the theory of the *Divine Right of Kings*. The people of England under the Tudors had been accustomed to seeing the kings exercise great powers, but Parliament had also well known powers. We have seen that under the Tudors the country was very prosperous. There were now many wealthy

men who were not nobles, but who formed a *Middle Class* between the nobles and the working class. This middle class were beginning to think, that they ought to have some power and to dislike the Tudor way of governing in which the king and the nobles did everything as they liked. Many of these wealthy men got elected members of Parliament, so under the Stuarts Parliament constantly tried to get more power, and in the end, as we shall see, Parliament became more powerful than the king.

We have seen that there were now four main religious parties. The Roman Catholics, who hated all that the Reformation had done, the Puritans, who thought still more change was necessary, the other members of the church who approved of the doctrines and ceremonies established by Elizabeth, and the Independents. Two more parties must be mentioned. Some of the Puritans were Presbyterians, and some of the Churchmen were High Churchmen, *i. e.* they wanted the English Church to be as much like the Roman Church as possible.*

Under James I. and the other Stuarts two great contests went on. One between the King and Parliament, the other between the High Church Party and the Puritans.

209. The Religious Contest under James I.—The Puritans—The Puritans hoped that James having been brought up by Presbyterians in Scotland would favour them. James however hated Presby-

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* This table may help to make this clearer.

Parties within the Church.	High Churchmen.	
	Moderate Churchmen.	
	Puritans	Episcopal Puritans.
		Presbyterians.
Parties outside the Church.	Roman Catholics.	
	Independents.	

terians. He said "No Bishop no King" meaning that as the monarchy was divine institution it must be supported by a church with Bishops, *i.e.*, men holding their authority from God, at its head. A Conference was held however at Hampton Court to reconcile the Puritans with the rest of the Church. James presided and scolded and abused the Puritan leaders. The only result of this conference was that a new translation of the Bible was made and printed by the authority of the King, which translation is still **The English Bible.**

After the failure of the Hampton Court Conference the High Commission Court persecuted the Puritans more than ever. Many Puritans in despair left England. Some went to the United Provinces, others to America. One body of Independents after living awhile in Holland determined to go to America. They sailed in a ship called the **Mayflower**, and founded the town of **Plymouth** in **New-England.** These men have come to be called the **Pilgrim Fathers**, and many of the greatest of the Americans have been proud to trace their descent from them. The Pilgrim Fathers were followed by thousands more at the end of this reign and the beginning of the next—men seeking for a land where they would have freedom to worship God in their own way.

210. **The Catholics.**—As the son of a Catholic Queen James was expected to favour the Catholics, and at first he did treat them very leniently: but after a time they were persecuted more than before. Despairing of help from abroad and having no hope of relief at home, a band of desperate men
Nov. 5. resolved to destroy both King and Parlia-
1605 ment at one blow. Cellars were hired
A.D. under the Houses of Parliament. Barrels

of gunpowder were taken in. Guy Fawkes was getting ready the train he was to set fire to, when on information received from Lord Monteagle, who had received a letter warning him not to attend the House next day, an investigation of the cellars was made. Guy Fawkes was taken lantern in hand. He and others were executed, and Parliament at once made new and more severe laws against the Catholics.

211. James and the Parliament.—James behaved very unwisely towards Parliament. He could not avoid summoning it as the Tudors often did, because he spent money so extravagantly that he was always wanting more. This he could only legally get with Parliament's consent. Parliament, however, disliking his policy was not willing to make grants: So the King tried to raise money by *benevolences*, *increased customs duties*, and *monopolies*,* all which were illegal. This of course only made Parliament the more angry. The King's habit of trusting favourites was also disliked by Parliament. One of these, George Villiers, who was made Duke of Buckingham, could get the King to do whatever he wished. The Court too was very corrupt. But in 1621 Parliament impeached the Chancellor, Lord Bacon. He was accused of bribery, and had to confess his guilt. In 1623 James tried to stop the discussions in Parliament. Parliament drew up a protest, and claimed the right of freedom of speech. James tore the leaf containing the protest out of the record book.

212. James's Foreign Policy.—When James ascended the throne, England was at war with Spain.

*A Monopoly is the sole right to carry on a particular trade for which people were willing to give large sums to the king because of the great profit they could get.

James soon made peace, for he wished to be friendly with Spain. Sir Walter Raleigh, a great traveller and historian, had been sentenced to death in 1603, because he had taken part in trying to place Arabella Stuart, another descendant of Henry VII's daughter Margaret, on the throne; but the sentence had never been carried out. After thirteen years of imprisonment, he had it made known to the King that he could discover a rich gold mine on the Orinoco in South America, James, in great need of money, sent Raleigh with thirteen vessels to seek for the mine. But when Raleigh crossed the Atlantic the Spaniards were awaiting him. A fight took place. The Spanish town of St. Thomas was burned.

1618 A.D. Raleigh returned without having found the gold. The sentence of death passed on him fifteen years before was carried out, the real reason being to please the Spanish King.

In 1618 a great war broke out in Germany between the Catholics and Protestants called The Thirty Years' War because it lasted for that time. The war began by Frederick, Elector of the Palatinate who was a protestant and had married Elizabeth James' daughter, being elected king of Bohemia. The Emperor denied his right to the throne. Frederick tried to defend himself in Bohemia but was defeated and driven out so soon that he was called the "Winter King," and the Spaniards seized the Palatinate. He must be remembered however as one of the ancestors of our present Queen Empress. Soon all the Princes of Germany took sides with either the Emperor or the Elector. The Protestants looked to England for help. But James dreaded war. He wished for friendship with Spain. He hoped that Spain might bring about a peace and

secure that the Palatinate should be restored to the Elector. This was very silly of James, for Spain was a great Roman Catholic power and not at all likely to help a Protestant prince. James went further. He proposed a marriage between his son Charles and the Infanta of Spain. Charles and Buckingham visited the Spanish court. The King of Spain pretended to fall in with James's policy so as to secure better treatment for the English Catholics. When he found that James feared the anger of his people too much to cease to persecute the Catholics the Spaniards gave up the idea of the marriage and the negotiations were broken off. Charles returned to England. The joy of the people, who had been very angry at the idea of a marriage with Spain, was great. The mean policy which James had followed had fallen to pieces. Parliament was summoned in 1624. War was declared against Spain. Supplies were readily granted. An alliance was formed with Holland, and Charles was to be married to Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France. Shortly after this James died, 1625.

CHAPTER II.

Charles I.

1625 A.D.—1649 A.D.

213. **Buckingham Impeached.**—Charles I. had the same belief in the Divine Right of Kings as James I. had had, and "Steenie," as James I. used to call Buckingham, had as much influence over Charles as he had had over his father. The Parlia-

ment did not like this. The Spanish policy of James was due to Buckingham. The war now carried on against Spain was being mismanaged. The troops sent to Holland died of cold and hunger. The fleet sent to Spain returned without fighting the enemy. To obtain money Charles summoned Parliament. But Parliament was in no liberal mood. A sum of £140,000 was voted. The *customs duties* called "*tonnage and poundage*," were granted not as usual for life, but only for one year. Charles in a rage dissolved Parliament, and began to raise money by *arbitrary taxation*, and to quarter soldiers in private houses. Next year he was forced to call his second Parliament. Before granting money, the Commons, led by Sir John Eliot, proceeded to impeach Buckingham. To save Buckingham Parliament was at once dissolved.

214. War with France.—In France the Protestants called *Huguenots* were fighting against their king. Charles thought it might make him popular to help them. So Buckingham sailed with a great fleet and army for La Rochelle the chief Huguenot stronghold. Nothing but disaster followed. The English had to retreat to their ships with a loss of two thousand men. Towards the end of the year another expedition was fitted out to relieve Rochelle. Buckingham was about to sail from Portsmouth, when a lieutenant, named Felton, stabbed him to the heart. Felton was hanged. But the news of Buckingham's death was received with joy by the people, and Felton was regarded as a hero and martyr. La Rochelle had to surrender.

215. The Petition of Right.—In 1628 Charles, hard pressed for money, had to call his *third* Parliament. His arbitrary taxation and oppression had roused the country. The representatives sent to

Parliament were men pledged to secure the ancient rights and liberties of the people. When Parliament met, instead of voting a subsidy, they began to discuss their grievances. Sir John Eliot and Sir Thomas Wentworth were the leaders of the popular party. "We must vindicate our ancient liberties," said Wentworth. "We must reinforce the laws made by our ancestors." A document called the Petition of Right was drawn up. It declared (1) that no man was to be compelled to pay any benevolence, or tax, without common consent by act of Parliament; (2) that no man was to be kept in prison without trial; (3) that soldiers were not to be billeted in private houses; (4) that martial law was not to be enacted in time of peace. Charles gave his consent. The Parliament in turn gave him a grant of money. It soon appeared that the matter was not settled however, for the King began again to levy illegal taxes. The Commons met and began to draw up a *remonstrance*. The King sent an order for the Parliament to adjourn. They locked the doors, and held the Speaker, who wished to obey the King, in the chair till they had passed certain resolutions. One of these declared any minister who advised the levying of taxes without consent of Parliament, "a capital enemy to the kingdom and the commonwealth." Parliament was at once dissolved. Several of the leaders were thrown into the Tower. Eliot was one of them. He died there, "the first martyr of English liberty."

1628 A.D.

216. **Government without Parliament.**—No Parliament was called for the next eleven years, 1629-40. Charles governed the country through two ministers, Archbishop Laud and Sir Thomas Wentworth. The latter had formerly opposed the King, but he now became his most faithful and

energetic servant and was made **Earl of Strafford.** Laud was a High Churchman and wished to make the English Church more like the Roman Church. He wished to make the churches more beautiful with carved stone and painted windows, and to have the ceremonies of the Church performed by richly dressed priests to the sound of fine music. The Puritans however, were now more numerous than ever and hated all these things. By means of the Court of High Commission Laud tried to force them to obey, and ministers were turned out of their churches, and people fined and imprisoned for refusing to conform.

217. **Charles's system of absolute Government.**—The king's chief difficulty was to get money. He collected Tonnage and Poundage though Parliament had refused to grant it him, he took benevolences, and granted monopolies. The **Star Chamber** was used to enforce his commands, and by imposing heavy fines for trifling offences it was made a means of getting money also. All these means of raising money were insufficient and a new one was thought of. This was the famous tax called **Ship Money.** It had sometimes been levied on the seaport towns, in times of danger from invasion, to prepare a *fleet.* Now it was levied on the whole country in a time of peace and for the maintenance of an *army.* But there were men who saw how this tax, if paid, would imperil their liberties. One, **John Hampden,** formerly a member of Parliament and a great friend of Eliot's refused to pay, declaring the tax to be illegal. The case was tried in court, and contrary to the Petition of Right, the judges declared the tax to be legal.

218. **Strafford in Ireland.**—Strafford saw that in time Charles's English subjects would resist his

despotic Government. He therefore determined to provide an army for the King to put them down with. This plan he called "Thorough" and to carry it out he took up the Government of Ireland as Lord Deputy. There by clever management he gained so much power that he was able to write. "The King is as absolute here as any prince in the world can be." He then began to use his power to raise an army of Irishmen for the King.

219. Laud in Scotland.—In England and Ireland Charles seemed to be succeeding, but events happened in Scotland which in the end led to the overthrow of his system. The Scots were presbyterians, but Laud was determined to make the Scotch Church in all respect like the English. For this two things were necessary. First, to establish an episcopal form of church government, *i.e*, government by Bishops, second, to enforce the use of the English prayer book, which laid down doctrines and ritual opposed to Presbyterianism and Puritanism generally. The Scots would have neither Bishops nor prayer book, and when the clergyman attempted to read the latter in a Church in Edinborough an old woman flung a stool at his head and so began a riot. The leaders of the people then assembled and drew up a "Covenant" or agreement binding all who signed it to defend Presbyterianism. Thousands did sign it, some are even said to have "drawn their own blood and used it in place of ink to under-write their names." The Assembly of the Church met. The bishops appointed by Laud were deposed. The innovations in worship were done away with. Presbyterianism was more firmly established than ever.

220. The Bishop's War.—Charles determined to force Episcopacy on the Scots. Both sides raised

armies. The Scotch army contained many veterans who had fought for Protestantism in the Thirty Years' War. The English army that Charles raised was too weak to meet it, and had to retreat. The Scots followed and invading England occupied Newcastle.

CHAPTER III.

Charles I.

1625 A.D.—1648 A.D.

The Long Parliament.

221. **The Parliament.**—The chief cause of Charles's not being able to fight the Scots was want of money. In the hope of obtaining this he summoned a Parliament. This came afterwards to be called the "Long Parliament." The king found it more disposed to put an end to his arbitrary government than to grant supplies. Under the leadership of John Pym, acts were quickly passed which abolished the Court of High Commission and the Star Chamber, declared ship money illegal, that customs duties could only be levied with consent of Parliament, and that Parliament must meet every three years even if not summoned by the king. Charles dared not refuse his assent to these acts, because he found that public opinion was against him and in favour of Parliament.

222. **Trial of Strafford.**—The Parliament next proceeded to punish the persons who had carried out the King's tyranny. Laud was cast into prison and four years after was executed. Under the leadership of Pym Strafford was impeached, and was tried by the House of Lords. He had done nothing

that could be called treason and the Lords could not condemn him. A Bill of Attainder was therefore passed against him which the King reluctantly signed, and he was executed.

223. **The Grand Remonstrance.**—In 1641 Charles visited Scotland. He gave the people all they wished. He attended a Presbyterian church. In this way he made himself very popular. But in that year, a terrible thing happened in Ireland. The Roman Catholics, who had never liked the Protestant colonists that had settled there, rose against them and massacred them by thousands. Some people thought Charles had had something to do with this, and that the Roman Catholics were to be used to bring about a revolution. Meanwhile, Parliament itself became divided into two parties—the King's party and the popular party. It must be remembered that in the contest between the King and the Parliament, which began with the meeting of the long Parliament, religious as well as political matters were in dispute. The King's party was High Church, the majority of Parliament Puritan.

1641 A.D.

Pym led the popular party. He laid on the table a Remonstrance showing how wickedly the King had ruled, and how he could not be trusted; and how Parliament wished to maintain the religion and uphold the laws of the land. He moved that it be passed and circulated throughout the country. There was a long and stormy debate. By a majority of eleven the Remonstrance was passed.

224. **The arrest of the five Members.**—In November Charles returned to London, and did something which caused the Civil War. He had five leaders of the House of Commons, Pym and Hampden being two of them impeached of high treason, and when Parliament refused to give them up, he

went himself with soldiers to the House of Commons to arrest them. The members had been warned however, and escaped into the city of London. Here the King dared not follow them. This attempted arrest of the five members was considered an act of violence against the Parliament. After its failure both parties began to prepare for war. The Queen went to Holland with the crown jewels to raise forces. The King left London. The Parliament continued to sit. Charles could not dissolve it, for he had given his assent to a law that this Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent. Parliament finally claimed the power of controlling the army and of appointing the king's ministers. Charles refused and both sides prepared for war.

CHAPTER IV.

Charles I.

1625 A.D.—1649 A.D.

The Civil War.—(1642-46.)

225. **Civil War begins.**—The wealthier part of the kingdom, the South and East sided with the Parliament, the poorer, the North-West with the king. The nobles and landed gentry were mostly Royalists, and the middle class, the lawyers, merchants and shopkeepers mostly Parliamentarians. The King raised his standard at **Nottingham**, 23rd August 1642. The **Earl of Essex** collected the Parliamentary army at Northampton. The two armies met for the first time at **Edgehill** where a drawn battle was fought. The cavalry of the king was so superior to that

1642 A.D.

of the Parliament that his soldiers were called "cavaliers," while the soldiers of the Parliament began to be known as "round heads," because they wore their hair cut short.

226. **Campaign of 1643.**—Charles went to Oxford where he got a hearty welcome, the University being intensely loyal. He then tried to entirely drive the Parliament troops out of the west of England. He was partly successful. Exeter fell into his hands. Bristol was taken. It only remained to capture Gloucester. But Gloucester held out bravely; and Essex coming to its relief, the siege was raised. The Parliament sustained great losses by the deaths of Hampden, who fell in a skirmish at Chalgrove, and Pym, who died at the end of the year. An indecisive battle was also fought at Newbury. Meanwhile in the east, Oliver Cromwell, a member of Parliament, was organising the Eastern Counties Association and training his famous Ironsides a regiment of cavalry the soldiers of which were Puritans chosen for their piety as well as bravery.

227. **The Scotch join in the war.**—Meanwhile Pym, alarmed by the king's success, had opened negotiations with the Scotch for help. They would only consent, on condition of Parliament's making England Presbyterian and the members signing a Solemn League and Covenant, to preserve the Presbyterian form of worship, to extirpate popery and prelacy, and to preserve the liberties of the kingdom. A Scottish army of twenty-one thousand men crossed the border and joined the Roundheads under Fairfax. Cromwell, brought the troops of the Eastern Counties Association. Prince Rupert, who commanded the king's horse, hurried to York to meet these combined 1644 A.D.

armies. But at **Marston Moor** he was thoroughly beaten, Cromwell's Ironsides taking the principal part in the battle. York thereupon surrendered. The cause of the king was ruined in the North. In the same year another indecisive battle was fought at Newbury after which **Manchester**, who was in command, would not allow Cromwell to pursue the King and so gain a decisive victory.

228. **The Independents and the New Model.**—About this time began a division of Parliament into two parties which was of the greatest importance. Once more religious differences must be noticed. Though the Parliament to get the help of the Scotch had declared the religion of the nation to be Presbyterianism, there were many who thought that there was no need for all the nation to form one Church, ruled by either Bishops or Elders, but that any body of religious persons might form an independent Church. This new sect was called the independents, and their chief man was **Cromwell**. The Independents also wished the war to be carried on more actively. The Presbyterians did not want to defeat the king thoroughly, Cromwell and the Independents thought that in that way only could things be properly settled. After the second battle of Newbury Cromwell proposed that the army should be reorganised on the principal of having only "goldly" men—*i.e.*, enthusiastic Puritans in it, and that members of Parliament should not hold command in it. An act called the **Self-Denying Ordinance** was passed to give effect to this but Cromwell was allowed to retain his command, the Commander-in-chief being **Sir Thomas Fairfax**. The army as reorganised was called the **New Model Army**. The wisdom of Cromwell's policy was shown by the total defeat of the king at **Naseby** by

1646 A.D.

the New Model. Charles finding that he could not gather together another army surrendered to the Scottish army which was encamped at Newark.

CHAPTER V.

Charles I.

1625 A.D.—1649 A.D.

The Army and the Parliament.

229. **Negotiations with the king.**—The struggle between King and Parliament was now at an end, but the contest between the Presbyterians and Independents, to which latter party the army belonged, became all the keener. Charles was with the Scottish army. The Scots entreated him to promise to establish Presbyterianism. He refused. He hoped that as his enemies were divided he would get the better of them. The Scots, hopeless of success with him, handed him over to Parliament, received their arrears of pay, and returned to Scotland. Negotiations went on between the king and the Parliament. But Charles was not sincere. He tried to pay off the one party against the other, and to stir up their hatred for one another. An officer of the army seized the King from the custody of the Parliament. He escaped from the army, but was again captured and placed in Carlsbrook Castle in the Isle of Wight. Even from there he tried to stir up civil war. Risings took place in many parts of the country. The Scots too, displeased at the growing power of the Independents, invaded England. Cromwell went north, drove the Scots before him, and entered Edinburgh in triumph.

230. **Execution of Charles.**—The army returned to England resolved on the death of the king. The Presbyterians still formed a majority in Parliament. They still regarded Charles as their King, and would not think of putting him to death. They must be kept out of the House. **Colonel Pride** placed his soldiers at the door. When a presbyterian member appeared he was arrested. One hundred and forty members were in this way excluded from Parliament. This is known as "*Pride's Purge.*" Only some fifty-three members were left and they were all Independents. They appointed one hundred and thirty-five persons to form a *High Court of Justice* to try the king. **Bradshaw**, an eminent lawyer, presided. The trial was a mere farce. Only sixty-three out of the one hundred and thirty-five persons appointed were present. **Cromwell** was there. **Fairfax** staid away. The king denied the right of such a court to try him. It had not been legally set up. He refused to say a word in his defence before such a tribunal. His doom was sealed. He was condemned to death as a tyrant, traitor, murderer and enemy of his country. And on the 30th January 1649 he was executed outside his palace of **Whitehall.**

CHAPTER VI.

The Commonwealth.

1649 A.D.—1660 A.D.

Oliver Cromwell.

231. **The Commonwealth.**—The fifty or sixty members, the remnant of the Long Parliament, and ever after known as "*The Rump,*" continued to sit

in Parliament. Monarchy and the House of Lords were abolished. A Council of State consisting of forty-one members of the House of Commons was appointed to govern the nation. The Government was called a Commonwealth. The army wished a new Parliament elected. But no one could dissolve the present Parliament but itself, and it declined to do so.

232. Prince Charles Invited to Scotland.—The news of the King's execution produced the deepest grief in both Scotland and Ireland. The Scots, in taking up arms against the King, had no thought of his destruction. All that they had wanted was to compel the King to govern according to law, and to maintain Presbyterianism in Scotland. They now sent to Holland where Prince Charles, the son of Charles I. was, and asked him to come to Scotland and be their King.

233. Cromwell and Ireland.—In Ireland, Protestants and Roman Catholics laid aside their differences, and also declared Charles their King. Parliament made Cromwell Commander-in-Chief of the army and he determined first to put down the Irish. In doing this he used great severity. When fortresses refused to surrender he stormed them and put to death all the soldiers in them, and often the priests as well who encouraged the people in useless resistance. Drogheda and Wexford were taken in this way. Cromwell has been much blamed for this, but it really saved much bloodshed because it brought the war to an end very quickly. The Irish have not even yet forgotten his severity, and even sometimes say to their enemies "the curse of Cromwell on you."

234. Cromwell and Scotland.—As soon as Cromwell returned from Ireland he set off for Scotland. While he marched by land a fleet sailed up the

eastern coast of Great Britain. The Scots had laid waste the border counties so that Cromwell's army could not get provisions except from the fleet, and had to march along the coast. Leslie with the Scotch waited for it near Dunbar on the hill tops. When Cromwell reached Dunbar he dared not attack Leslie because his position was a very strong one, and was going to embark his army in the fleet to return to England. Leslie did not wish this so he moved from the hills to the attack. On the level ground the English army proved the stronger and the Scots were utterly routed. After the battle Cromwell took Edinborough. Next year he marched further north and Prince Charles was able to lead his army into England. Cromwell followed him and exactly a year after the battle of Dunbar defeated him at Worcester. Charles in disguise escaped to the Continent. For a time standing armies were kept up in both Scotland and Ireland.

235. War with the Dutch.—Parliament wished to make England wealthy by taking away some of their trade from the Dutch. To do this the Navigation Act was passed. By this Act foreign vessels were prohibited from carrying into Britain any products except those of the countries to which they belonged, and English ships alone were to carry on the traffic between England and the Colonies. The Dutch were naturally very angry and a naval war between the two countries began. In this two great seamen, the Dutch admiral Van Tromp and the English Blake, gained great fame. In the end peace was made without either party having gained a decided victory.

1652 A.D.

236. Expulsion of "The Rump."—Meanwhile the Rump was becoming more unpopular. Many of

the members were corrupt and wished to retain power only to serve their own ends. Cromwell and the army tried to arrange with it for a dissolution and election of a new Parliament. The Rump wished that its members should sit without being elected again in this new Parliament. It began to pass a bill to this effect in Cromwell's absence. He was told what was going on however and went to the House taking a guard with him. A debate was going on. Cromwell got up. "Your hour is come," said he, addressing the Parliament. The members rose to their feet in a rage and interrupted him. "Come, come," said he, "we have had enough of this. It is not fit you should sit here any longer. You are no Parliament." At a signal the guard entered the House. The members crowded to the door. Lifting the mace, Cromwell said, "What shall we do with this bauble? Take it away." Thus "*The Rump*" was driven from the House and its power was at an end.

April. 1653 A.D.

237. **Barebones' Parliament.**—All power was now in the hands of Cromwell and the army. He felt the responsibility too great for him and wanted to have a Parliament. Accordingly he summoned a body of men together who he thought were fit to advise him. This was called "Barebones' Parliament" after one of its members, a leather merchant, named Praise-God Barebone. They wasted their time in useless discussions about things they knew nothing about, and at last were glad to resign their power to Cromwell and dissolve.

238. **Cromwell Protector.**—Cromwell's supporters now drew up what was called the Instrument of Government by which he was made Protector and a Parliament was to be summoned. It met in 1654

and included representatives from Scotland and Ireland. By the Instrument it had not very much power. It therefore began at once to discuss the Instrument and make a new constitution. Cromwell could not allow this and dissolved Parliament. In 1656 Cromwell once more tried to govern by the help of a Parliament. Want of money was perhaps his chief reason for this. The two former Parliaments had consisted of only one house. Now an attempt was made to set up a constitution more like the old one. There was a second house and Cromwell was even offered the title of King, which he refused however because the army disliked it. This Parliament did not last long. Cromwell began by excluding from it all who were opposed to him; the two houses quarrelled and the Protector dissolved them, partly in anger, partly in sorrow. After this Cromwell made no other attempt to set up Parliamentary government again. He ruled with the help of a **Council of State** relying on the support of the army. In fact, since the battle of Worcester Cromwell had been governing absolutely. He ruled both **Church and State.** For the former he set up a **Board of Triers** which had the duty of appointing learned and pious men as clergy. These were of course Puritans but Cromwell must be remembered as one of the first great men who practised **religious toleration.** He did not try to enforce uniformity of religion as the Tudors and Stuarts had done, all he wished was that people should lead pious and good lives. Under his rule however many things were thought wicked and made illegal which are now considered harmless amusements, such as theatrical performances, dancing, field sports, painting and sculpture. The rule of the Puritans was however very useful to England, as during it a large part of the nation

learnt to be sober-minded men, remarkable for their good lives and love of liberty.

239. **Cromwell's Administration.**—The Protector's government was disliked by a majority of the nation. He therefore had to exercise much severity. Taxes were levied on his own authority, and those who refused to pay were thrown into prison. The country was divided into ten military districts, and the **Major General** in command of each exercised **Martial Law.** People were arrested and cast into prison without any reason being given. Royalists and Roman Catholics were particularly hardly treated. The former were called "**Malignants**" and were made to pay heavy fines to be allowed to keep their property. The latter were not allowed to exercise their religion. These two classes were excluded from Cromwell's Parliaments.

240. **Cromwell's foreign policy.**—Cromwell did much to raise the name of England on the Continent. Through his influence the **Duke of Savoy** was forced to give up oppressing his Protestant subjects in the Alps, the **Vaudois.** France and Spain were at war. Cromwell wished the English to have free-trade and liberty of religion in the **West Indies.** Spain refused. Cromwell joined **France.** The English ships scoured the seas, put down piracy in the Mediterranean and captured **Jamaica.** Six thousand men were sent into the Netherlands, and in return Louis XIV. handed over **Dunkirk** to the English. **1655 A.D.**

241. **Cromwell's death.**—To Cromwell himself the task of governing an unwilling people was a sad and difficult one. Plots were being continually formed for his destruction. A book entitled "Killing no Murder," in which his assassination was advocated, was published. His courage, however, never

gave way. He knew that if the nation had its wish the Stuarts would be restored and this he thought would be the worst thing that could happen to England. At last he was attacked by fever and died on September 3rd, the Anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester, 1658.

242. **Richard Cromwell and the Army.**—His son succeeded him as Protector, but being neither a Puritan nor a soldier was from the first despised by the army and very soon retired into private life. A period of anarchy followed. The Rump was replaced in power by the army and again expelled. Then General Monk, the General appointed by the Long Parliament over Scotland, marched to London with his troops and restored the Rump, Cromwell's army being without a leader, offering no opposition. Under the influence of Monk the Rump dissolved itself and a Convention, or Parliament not summoned by a king, met. The Convention easily decided to invite Charles II. to occupy his throne.

CHAPTER VII.

Charles II.

1660 A.D.—1685 A.D.

The Restoration.

243. **The Government.**—The Parliament that had invited Charles proceeded to govern with great moderation. One of its first acts was to pass a "*Bill of Indemnity and Oblivion*," and very few suffered for any part they had taken in the war against Charles I. Cromwell's army was disbanded. A fixed revenue of £1,200,000 was granted to Charles

for life; but all feudal claims of the crown to reliefs and wardships were abolished. The command of the militia was given to the King; and he was allowed to maintain one or two regiments as a **Body Guard.** This was the beginning of a *standing army* in England.

244. **The Church.**—Under the Commonwealth the Long Parliament had abolished the Church and had tried to set up a Presbyterian Church in its place, but in reality there had ceased to be any national religious organisation. The nation however loved the Church and welcomed the Bishops and clergy who returned at once to their sees and parishes. No act of Parliament was necessary for this because those acts of the Long Parliament which had not received the King's assent were null and void.

245. **The Cavalier Parliament.**—The Convention contained many of the old Presbyterian party but the Parliament which Charles called in the second year of his reign consisted entirely of Churchmen. It was called the Cavalier Parliament because of its enthusiasm for the king and the Church. It first set to persecuting the **Dissenters,** as all those who differed from the Church were called. In three years five acts were passed against these people. This set of acts is called the **Clarendon Code** from the name of **Lord Clarendon** the Lord Chancellor, Charles' Prime Minister. The first was the Act of Uniformity which provided that no one should hold a living who did not believe the doctrines contained in the Prayer Book. Large numbers of ministers resigned their livings rather than accept this act. Later the Five Mile Act forbade such to teach in schools or settle within five miles of any town. Another of these acts, the **Conventicle Act,** forbade all private meetings for religious pur-

poses. The Corporation Act forbade Dissenters to be members of Municipalities. Many Dissenters suffered punishment for breaking these laws. Among these was John Bunyan, the author of the *Pilgrim's Progress*, who was for twelve years a prisoner in Bedford gaol.

246. War with Holland.—While these persecutions were going on, Charles went to war with Holland. The immediate cause of the war was a quarrel that had taken place between the English and the Dutch sailors on the coast of Guinea. A great part of the money voted for the war was spent by the King on his own amusements and in debauchery. The ships were leaky and could not put to sea. The Dutch sailed up the Thames and burnt three men-of-war. But a calamity greater than even this had fallen on the capital. The Great Plague, 1665, had swept over London and carried off one hundred thousand of its inhabitants. The Great Fire, 1666, had reduced the greater part of the City of London to ruins. The loss of property and goods had been immense. There was now no money in the treasury. The Duch were scouring the Channel in triumph. Never had there been such humiliating days for England. The peace of *Creda* brought the war to an end.

1667 A.D.

247. Lord Clarendon.—The degradation brought on England by this war roused the Parliament against Lord Clarendon. By Clarendon's advice Charles had sold Dunkirk to the French. By Clarendon's advice he had married Catherine of Braganza, and thereby indicated a wish for an alliance with France and not with Spain. Clarendon had displeased Charles also. He had opposed a bill to allow Roman Catholics and others to worship as they chose, and he had too great

1667 A.D.

a love for freedom to be in favour of a *standing army*. An impeachment was brought against him and he fled to France.

248. **The Cabal.**—Charles was thereafter guided chiefly by his ministers **Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley and Lauderdale.** The initial letters of these names form the word *Cabal*, and as these ministers governed badly, a Cabal has come to mean a set of political schemers.

249. **The Triple Alliance.**—France was now the greatest European power, for ever since the time of the Spanish Armada, Spain had been getting weaker. Her King was Louis XIV., an ambitious man who had absolute power and a fine army. He was a devoted Roman Catholic and anxious to extend his dominions. In 1668 he attacked Holland. For France to extend its borders to the mouth of the Rhine would be a dangerous thing for England.

A triple alliance—an alliance between **England, Holland and Sweden,**—was formed against Louis. The people of England entered on the war with the greatest enthusiasm. But they little knew how they were being deceived by their King. **1668** A.D.

250. **Secret treaty of Dover.**—Scarcely had Charles joined the *Triple Alliance*, when he made known to Louis his desire to form an alliance with him. He undertook to declare himself a Catholic and to help Louis against Holland if Louis would provide him with money, so that he would not need to summon Parliament, and if Louis would assist him with troops in case of troubles arising in England. A treaty on these terms was **secretly concluded at Dover.** Having cheated his ministers, Charles must next cheat his Parliament. A subsidy was asked to maintain the **1670** A.D.

Triple Alliance. A subsidy was granted, and immediately the House was adjourned. More money was obtained by the disgraceful closing of the Exchequer, *i. e.*, refusing to repay the loans which had been given to Government by the London goldsmiths who were the bankers of the time, and reducing the interest on them. By this many of the goldsmiths were made bankrupt. This was followed by

1672 A.D. a Declaration of Indulgence, which gave liberty to Dissenters to worship as they chose, and which allowed Roman Catholics freedom of worship in private. Thousands of prisoners who had been lying in prison for not adhering to the Act of Uniformity or the Five Mile Act were set free. Amongst these was John Bunyan.

251. War with Holland.—Money had been voted to assist Charles in his alliance with Holland, but it was used for war against Holland. War with Holland was renewed. The English fleet put to sea under the King's brother James, Duke of York, and engaged De Ruyter off Suffolk. Louis crossed the Rhine. But the Dutch under their young leader, William of Orange, made a brave defence. The war was prolonged. The money Charles had received under such false pretences was exhausted. He had closed the Exchequer, and now no one would advance him money. He was forced to call a Parliament.

252. The Test Act.—The Parliament met in no gracious mood. They saw how falsely Charles had been dealing with them. They believed the war with Holland and the Declaration of Indulgence to be parts of a plot to re-establish Roman Catholicism in England. They knew that James was a Roman Catholic. They suspected that Charles was a Roman Catholic also. They refused to grant supplies till Charles had recalled the Declaration. The King

yielded. He would not stubbornly oppose Parliament as his father had done. He was careful to yield when it was necessary, saying "that he did not wish to go on his travels again." The withdrawal of the Declaration was followed by the passing of the **Test Act**, which compelled every one in Government employ to take an oath of allegiance, **1673** and of disbelief in transubstantiation. The A.D. effect of this act was most startling. James Duke of York, had to acknowledge himself a Roman Catholic and to resign command of the fleet. Clifford, the Treasurer, and hundreds of officers in the army and civil service had to do the same. Nothing showed more clearly the danger the nation had escaped.

253. **Peace with Holland.**—The Paliament would no longer vote money for a war against a Protestant country like Holland. Charles was forced to make peace, 1674. The war against the Dutch was continued by Louis, and the English Parliament wished strongly to go to war with him. **1678** William of Orange was brought over to A.D. England and *Mary*, a Protestant, the daughter of the Duke of York, and next to her father in the succession to the throne, was given him in marriage. Supplies were voted and soldiers were levied for carrying on the war against Louis. But Charles was again in secret correspondence with Louis and was receiving large bribes from him. Louis, however, afraid of having to fight England made peace with the Dutch.

254. **The Popish plot.**—Charles's conduct stirred up in England the old suspicion of his Popish tendencies. Wild rumours got afloat that the Roman Catholics were devising a plot for the massacre of the Protestants. **Titus Oates**, a man of infamous character, came forward and told of a widespread plot in

England, Scotland and Ireland to murder the King and overthrow Protestantism. The magistrate before whom he made his declaration was found murdered in a field the next day. A panic seized the people. Other informers, prompted by the reward Oates had received, came forward with stories as false as that of Oates and even more alarming. Several Roman Catholic peers were thrown into the Tower. Every Roman Catholic was driven out of London. A Bill was passed excluding Roman Catholics from Parliament, and this remained in force till 1829. Many Roman Catholics were put to death, the most prominent, being the aged Lord Stafford. These events proved to Louis that England could not be made Catholic. He therefore resolved to be revenged on Charles for allowing war to be threatened against him. A letter asking Louis for money which Danby, the chief minister, had written at the request of Charles, was put into the hands of one of Danby's enemies. He placed it before Parliament. The Parliament was horror struck. They proceeded to impeach Danby. But Charles saved his minister by dissolving Parliament.

255. The Exclusion Bill.—Ashley, one of the Cabal, had been dismissed by Charles because he supported the Test Act. He was now a violent opponent of the king. His party in the House of Commons brought in a bill to exclude the Duke of York as a Catholic from the succession to the throne. This bill was discussed with great heat in three successive Short Parliaments, the King always dissolving Parliament when there seemed danger of its being passed. In the House of Lords Lord Halifax opposed it. During the contest over this bill, which seemed likely to lead to civil war, the names of

1679 TO 1681 A.D.

Whig and Tory began to be used. These were at first nicknames meaning Presbyterian rebel, and Catholic robber respectively, but in time they came to be the ordinary names for two great parties in the state. The struggle ended in Charles's favour. It began to be known that the Catholic plots were inventions of Titus Oates and others, and that the Exclusion Bill would keep the King's Protestant nieces **Anne** and **Mary** from the throne to give it to the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles. Public opinion turned against the Whigs, Shaftesbury was forced to fly to Holland, where he died, many Whigs were fined, imprisoned or put to death.

256. **End of Charles II's reign.**—For the last few years of his reign Charles was practically absolute. He summoned no Parliament, had a standing army, and continued to receive money from Louis. To put an end to this absolutism some Whigs formed a plot to murder the King, called the **Rye House Plot** from the name of a public house near which they proposed to commit the crime. **Lord William Russell**, the leader of the Whig party was tried and executed for being concerned in this plot, though he in reality knew nothing about it. Charles died in 1685 acknowledging himself a Catholic.

257. **The Habeas Corpus Act.**—A very important Act, the Habeas Corpus Act, was passed in this reign. By this Act, no man could be kept in prison beyond a certain time without being brought to trial. For a time also freedom was given to the Press. **1678 A.D.**

CHAPTER VIII.

James II.

1685 A.D.—1688 A.D.

The Revolution.

258. **Monmouth's Rebellion.**—James, the brother of Charles II., succeeded. He was a Roman Catholic. On ascending the throne he promised to preserve the laws of the land and to protect the Church. The people were delighted, for they trusted his word. Parliament voted him a revenue of nearly two millions for life. The loyalty to the King was still more seen when **Argyle** raised a rebellion in **Scotland**, and **Monmouth** landed in **Dorsetshire** to claim the throne. Few of the people would follow Argyle. He was captured and put to death as a traitor. **Monmouth** was not more successful. Peasants, plough boys, and shopkeepers gathered round his standard. But none of the nobles would have any thing to do with him At **Sedgemoor** he encountered the royal troops, and his peasant army was cut to pieces. Monmouth himself was taken prisoner and brought before King James. In the most abject way Monmouth pleaded to be pardoned. But James was unforgiving, Monmouth was tried and executed. The people who had favoured his cause were very severely punished. One of James's judges, **Jeffreys**, was sent into the Western counties to try the rebels. He hanged so many that the assize was called the **Bloody Assize.**

259. **James and the Parliament.**—James called a Parliament. He wished it to pass an Act doing away with the laws against Roman Catholics. This it would not do. Nor would it sanction the main-

tenance of a standing army. James, thereupon, dissolved the Parliament and never called another.

260. **The king's dispensing power.**—James resolved to do what the Parliament would not do. He appointed a Roman Catholic to the command of a regiment, and then had him brought up for trial because the held his appointment contrary to the Test Act. The Judges depended on the King's favour for their places so they decided that just as the king could grant pardon to a murderer, so he could set aside the Test Act in favour of an individual, and might indeed set aside any act of Parliament. The Judges having given this decision, the army and the civil service were soon filled with Roman Catholics. 1686 A.D.

261. **James and the Church.**—By the Act of Supremacy James was head of the Church. He tried to use this position to make England again Catholic. He re-established the Court of High Commission with Jeffreys at its head. The clergy were forbidden to preach against Popery on pain of dismissal. But the clergy boldly defied the royal power.

262. **James and the Universities.**—The two great Universities of Oxford and Cambridge contained the colleges at which most of the clergy of England were educated. If they could be made Catholic, James thought that it would be easy to change the religion of the country. He began by having a Roman Catholic appointed to be head of one of the colleges of Oxford. Later the Court of High Commission forced various colleges in both universities to receive Catholic fellows.

263. **James and the Dissenters.**—Almost all the highest offices in the state were now filled with Roman Catholics. The Tories, loyal to the king, were no

less loyal to their church. They hated the tyranny of the King as much as the Whigs, and when apostacy to Rome was made a test of loyalty to the King, the discontent became loud and far reaching. To win the Dissenters to his side, James, on his
1687 A.D. own authority, published a **Declaration of Indulgence**, giving Dissenters as well as Roman Catholics liberty to worship in their own way. But the Dissenters were true to the constitution, and led by **Baxter, Howe,** and **Bunyan,** they declined to receive an indulgence that could only be rightly given by Act of Parliament.

264. **Trial of the Bishops.**—James was not to be baffled. On the 27th April, 1688 he issued a **Second Declaration of Indulgence,** and ordered every clergyman to read it during divine service on two successive Sundays. Archbishop **Sancroft** called the Bishops of his See together. They drew up a remonstrance to the King in which they declined to publish the declaration as it was illegal. On the Sunday only four clergymen in London read the Declaration. Hardly any of the country clergy obeyed the King's command. James in a rage ordered the Bishops who had drawn up the remonstrance to be arrested, and they were committed to the Tower on the charge of issuing a seditious libel, on the pretext that
1688 A.D. they had charged the King with doing an illegal act. Never was there such excitement in London, and when the foreman of the jury pronounced the verdict "Not guilty," the crowd within and without the Court raised a shout of joy and ran off to spread the news over the country. The King was reviewing his army which he kept encamped near London to prevent rebellion. As he left the camp the soldiers broke into a cheer for the acquittal of the Bishops. That very

day a letter signed by important men of both parties was sent to William of Orange, to come with an army to defend the liberties of England. The day the Bishops were acquitted a message was sent to William of Orange, to come over to England.

265. Flight of James.—William of Orange was the son of Mary, a daughter of Charles I., and he had married Mary, a daughter of James II. He was, therefore, both the nephew and son-in-law of the King. He was a Protestant. Now that both Whig and Tory had united in inviting him to England, he got transports ready and landed at Torbay with thirteen thousand men. James found himself in great danger. His soldiers were not to be trusted. He had brought over several regiments of Irish soldiers. This only made his position worse, as the thing the nation hated most was for the King to bring Irish soldiers into England. This was the worst crime Charles I. had committed. William knew that if he behaved like a foreign conqueror the English people would turn against him so he remained quietly in the south-west. Soon some of the leading nobles joined him. Exeter and Plymouth took up his cause. James in despair tried to undo all he had done. But it was too late. The cry "a free Parliament and the Protestant religion" echoed through the land. From all parts the nobles and the people flocked to William. Bristol received him with joy. At Oxford his forces had a hearty welcome. James advanced to Salisbury. But the hearts of his soldiers were not with him. Churchill and many of his officers deserted him. He had to retreat. When he reached London he found that even his daughter Anne had left him. "God help me," cried the miserable man, "for my own children have forsaken me." The Queen escaped to France. James followed. He was captured

by some fishermen and brought back to London. William knew that he could not safely keep him prisoner. So he was allowed to escape again and crossed to France where he was received by Louis XIV. at St. Germains.

266. **William and Mary.**—William advanced to London. A convention met. It was declared that James had *abdicated* the throne. A Declaration of Rights was drawn up. (1) It declared that
1689 A.D. the king might not raise taxes or keep a standing army without the consent of Parliament. (2) It denied the right of any king to exercise a dispensing power. (3) It asserted the right of every subject to petition, and the right of both houses of Parliament to freedom of debate. William and Mary were asked to accept the crown, which they did, promising to govern the kingdom according to the laws, and with the advice of Parliament.

CHAPTER IX.

William and Mary.

William 1688 A.D.—1702 A.D.

Mary 1688 A.D.—1694 A.D.

267. **William.**—William was a great statesman and a great general. In his defence of Holland against Louis XIV. he had shown the greatest courage. His coolness under defeat, and the quickness with which he would again rally his men were admired even by his enemies. But, sickly from childhood, silent, of a gloomy temper and a blunt manner, cold and distant with all save his most intimate

friends, he never gained the love of his English subjects. Mary on the other hand was frank and cheerful, and so long as she lived was very popular.

268. **William and Scotland.**—The Revolution had been accomplished in England without bloodshed. It was not so in Scotland. As in England, a *Convention* was summoned. It was resolved that James had *forfeited* the throne. William and Mary, having promised to abolish Prelacy in Scotland, received the crown. But John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, who had been employed in the previous reign in hunting down the Covenanters in the West of Scotland, appeared in arms for James. Entering the Highlands he summoned the clans. Soon he had three thousand sturdy Highlanders at his back. Rushing headlong on the royal army which General Mackay was leading up the pass of Killicrankie, he swept them before him. Dundee, however, was mortally wounded. With his death the rising in favour of James died away. **1689** A.D.

Forts were erected to keep the clans in check, the strongest, Fort William, being named after the King. One result of this rising was the celebrated *Massacre of Glencoe.* All the Highland chiefs were ordered to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary by a certain date. Macdonald of Glencoe put off doing so till too late. As a punishment for this William's minister in Scotland had forty men of the clan Macdonald treacherously murdered in their homes. It is not known how far William was personally to blame for this cruel deed.

269. **William and Ireland.**—In Ireland William's difficulties were of a much more serious kind. The Irish for the most part were Roman Catholics, and, as such, they preferred to have James II. as their King. Tyrconnel, who had been made *Lord Deputy*

by James, was a Roman Catholic, and he had filled the army and almost all the important offices of Government with Roman Catholics. He declared in favour of James and soon had a large Catholic army. The inhabitants of Ulster were for the most part Scotch and English colonists and Protestants. James determined to first bring them to submission. They took shelter in the towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen. The walls of Londonderry were weak and the cannon few and worthless; the Protestants were brave and determined. The Catholics attacked the town again and again without success, and then determined to starve it. The siege lasted for one hundred and five days and the food in the town was nearly exhausted. When only two days provision was left, English ships laden with food forced their way up the river. The besiegers, seeing that to continue the siege was useless, marched away. A few days later, the men of Enniskillen gained a great victory over another Irish army at Newton Butler.

1689 A.D.

270. The Pacification of Ireland.—Louis XIV. had been very angry at the English revolution as it very much interfered with his plans. He had helped James II. just as he had done Charles II. in the hope that England would be once more made a Catholic country and would not interfere with the plans he had for increasing the territory and power of France. When he found that Ireland remained faithful to James he promised to send a French army there. In the beginning of 1690 he did send a considerable body of troops. William had had several reasons for accepting the English Crown. One of the strongest was, that by doing so he would be able to oppose the growing power of France in Europe. To do this it was first of all necessary to drive James and the

French out of Ireland. William had sent troops in 1689, but through the bad management of the commanders nothing had been done. In 1690 he determined to go himself. James with his French and Irish troops tried to resist him, but at the Battle of the Boyne he gained an easy and decisive victory. James once more had to fly to France.

William returned to England, leaving his generals to finish the war. Next year Ginkell defeated the French and Irish troops under St. Ruth at Aughrim. Limerick, the last remaining fortress in the hands of the enemy, surrendered. All troops, both French and Irish, that wished it were allowed to retire to France. A large number of Irish soldiers took advantage of this, went to France, and took service under Louis.

271. The Grand Alliance, 1689.—Before William went to Ireland he had succeeded in forming a great union of European powers against France. Austria, the Empire, Brandenburg, Spain, Holland, and England had all declared war on France. The failure of Louis's attempt upon Ireland was a great success for the Grand Alliance, as this union was called. For several years after however, war was waged on the Continent and William was abroad nearly every year commanding the Dutch and English troops in the Low Countries. In 1692 during William's absence another attempt was made by Louis to restore James. Two fleets and a great army were prepared for the invasion of England. To meet them a fleet of Dutch and English vessels was got ready. The English ships were not expected to fight as the admiral, Russel, was thought to be a Jacobite. A letter which Queen Mary wrote to him to be read to all the sailors in the fleet so roused their enthusiasm that when the French fleet appeared, they joyfully attacked it and after a three days battle completely destroyed it off La

Hogue. No decisive events happened in the land war and peace was made by the **Treaty of Ryswick** in 1697. By this treaty Louis had to surrender nearly all his conquests, recognise William as King of England, and promise not to help James any more.

272. **William and Parliament.**—The Declaration of Rights which had been drawn up by the Convention, was turned into a **Bill of Rights** by the Parliament of 1689. By this the sovereign must belong to the English Church, and certain limits are put upon his power. At the same time other changes were made that gave the House of Commons very great power. Formerly a revenue was granted to the king for life or for a period of years. Now it was to be voted annually. The army was to be under the control of Parliament. And the **Mutiny Act**, which gave the officers of the army power to exercise discipline, was passed, but only to have force for six months. Since this time supplies have been voted annually and the Mutiny Act renewed annually: so that it is impossible now for the sovereign to govern at all without the help of Parliament. In 1695 the **Triennial Bill** was passed. By it no Parliament could exist longer than three years.

1695 A.D.

Although the nation was very glad to get rid of James II. and have William as king, he was never very popular. He was regarded as a foreigner, and it was thought that he took more interest in Holland than in England. Moreover the two parties of Whigs and Tories were bitterly hostile to each other. Consequently, from the opposition of Parliament to his policy and the quarrels in it of the parties, William often found it very difficult to govern. He once even threatened to go back to Holland and leave the English people to find another king. About the

year 1697 however he hit upon a plan which made government easier. This was to choose all his ministers from one party—the Whigs. This party was in the majority in Parliament, so that when all the ministers agreed upon anything it was easy to get it passed by Parliament. William also had great difficulties with the Jacobites, as those who favoured James were called. Many plots against him were made but happily discovered in time to prevent his being murdered.

273. **The Act of Settlement.**—Mary died in 1694. In 1701 the only surviving child of Anne died. An **Act of Settlement** was passed which vested the right of the crown in the **Princess Sophia of Hanover*** and her heirs, provided they were *Protestants*. **1701** A.D.

274. **The Second Grand Alliance.**—In the year 1700 the King of Spain died and Philip, grandson of Louis XIV, was declared King of Spain. As Philip was heir to the French throne, this would in time lead to France and Spain being united under one King, which was thought to be a great danger to the other countries of Europe. A **Second Grand Alliance** was formed to fight France and Spain to prevent it. A year afterwards James II. died. In order to encourage the English Jacobites against William, Louis XIV. recognised his son as King, and so broke the Treaty of Ryswick. Both parties in Parliament were united in desiring war with France but before it was declared William died of a fever caused by injuries from a fall from his horse.

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* See Genealogical Table on p. 168.

CHAPTER X.

Anne.

1702 A.D.—1714 A.D.

275. **Queen Anne.**—Anne, the second daughter of James II., succeeded. She was married to Prince George of Denmark. She had many children, but they all died young. She was not at all a clever woman. During the earlier part of her reign she was greatly under the influence of Sarah, the wife of John Churchill, whom Anne created Duke of Marlborough.

276. **The War of the Spanish Succession, 1702-13.**—William had entrusted the duty of carrying out his plans to Marlborough, who was a very clever statesman and soldier, but avaricious and unprincipled. The war was waged on land in Spain, Italy, Germany and the Spanish Netherlands, the modern Belgium. The allies particularly wanted to drive the French out of these because from them the French could easily attack Holland and Germany or the allies invade France. Throughout the war therefore the Low Countries was the scene of the fiercest fighting. In the first two years no decisive battle took place, but the year 1704 proved a memorable one. Although the Emperor had joined the Grand Alliance Bavaria was on the side of France. The French General Marshall Tallard determined to join his troops with the Bavarians and march on Vienna. To prevent this Marlborough left the Netherlands and marched into the heart of Germany. Here he was joined by Prince Eugene general of the Emperor's army and at Blenheim in Bavaria on the right bank of the Danube a great battle was fought in which Marlborough and Eugene completely defeated Tallard and

the Elector of Bavaria. The results of the battle were to drive the French completely out of Germany and prevent Bavaria taking any further part in the war. A few days before Blenheim the English Admiral Rooke took Gibraltar from the Spaniards.

The war lasted nine more years, as Louis XIV. would not accept peace till France was thoroughly exhausted. Marlborough gained the battles of Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet in the Netherlands, and English generals were successful also in Spain.

277. The Parliament.—During all these years there were many contentions between the two great political parties in Parliament. The Whigs were for war; the Tories for peace. The Whigs wished the Protestant Dissenters to have equal rights with Churchmen, but the Tories wanted to prevent them having any political rights. Anne herself favored the Tories. In the earlier Parliaments of her reign, the majority of representatives sent to the House of Commons were Whigs, and they demanded a Whig Ministry. Anne was obstinate. She preferred the Tory ministers. During the greater part of the reign the plan of choosing all the ministers from the same party was not carried out, but both in Parliament and in the ministry the Whigs had a majority and were able to carry out their policy of war. The three principal Whig ministers, Lovel, Somers, and Wharton were known as the Junto, a word meaning much the same as Cabal. At this time politicians began to get the help of great writers to attack their opponents. Of these writers the greatest was Swift, who wrote many political pamphlets attacking the Whigs, and the Tale of a Tub, an allegory supporting the Church against the Catholics and Dissenters.

278. The Trial of Sacheverell.—Dr. Sacheverell, a High Churchman, preached a sermon in which he

maintained that it was unlawful to take up arms against a king. The Whig ministers foolishly impeached him. The Tories took his side.

1710 A.D. The whole thing became a party struggle. The Lords by a small majority found him guilty; but they inflicted a very light punishment. Sacheverell became quite a hero in the city. These events showed that the nation was tired of the Whigs, and Anne, who much preferred the Tories, dismissed the ministry and appointed a new one consisting of Tories, the chief men in it being **Harley** and **St. John**. An appeal was made to the people. A Parliament with a majority of Tories in the House of Commons was returned. Harley and St. John were, therefore, retained in Office. The former was made **Earl of Oxford**; the latter, **Viscount Bolingbroke**. Swift was rewarded by being made Dean of St.

1712 A.D. Patrick's Church in Dublin. Marlborough's wife had quarrelled with the Queen. Mrs. Masham, a Tory, took her place. Marlborough was found guilty of bribery and dismissed from his command, 1712. The Tories remained in power till the death of the Queen, 1714.

The new ministry at once took steps to put an end to the war. The Tories had always hated Marlborough and had often accused him of stealing the public money. The ministry now dismissed him from all his offices although he proved his innocence. Having thus got rid of the great supporter of William III.'s policy they began to negotiate with Louis IV., and finally the **Treaty of Utrecht** was signed.

1713 A.D. By this treaty England received **Minorca, Gibraltar** and **Newfoundland**, and the right to trade with the Spanish colonies. **Dunkirk** was to be dismantled. Louis promised to

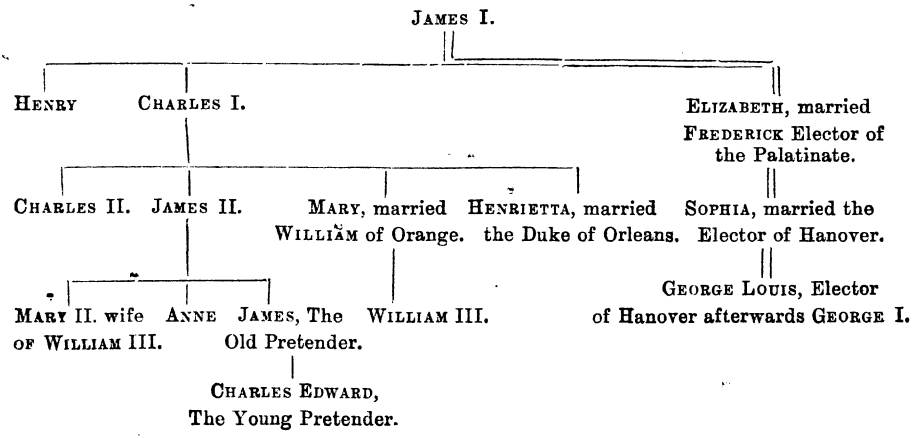
give no support to James Edward "The Pretender," the son of James II.

279. **Union of the English and Scottish Parliaments.**—The reign of Anne is rendered memorable by the final "Union of England and Scotland." To accomplish this was no easy task. The Scotch were in no good humour with the English. The English would not allow Scotland to trade with their colonies. The Scotch had tried to found a colony on the Isthmus of Darien. The money invested in it had been lost, and most of the colonists had died off from disease. The Scotch thought William had been to blame for all this. In 1703 the Scotch Parliament passed an Act of Security, by which no sovereign of England should be recognized as sovereign of Scotland, save upon *security* being given to the religious freedom and trade of the Scotch people. Happily for both countries the Act of Union was passed in 1707. The Act provided (1) that England and Scotland should be united into one kingdom, Great Britain; (2) that Sophia of Hanover should succeed to the throne, as under the English *Act of Settlement*; (3) that the Church of Scotland and the Scotch Law Courts should be maintained; (4) that all rights of trade should be opened to both countries alike; (5) that Scotland should be represented in Parliament by sixteen elective peers and forty-five members of the House of Commons. Money was given to Scotland to improve the coinage.

1707 A.D.

1707 A.D.

GENEALOGICAL TREE connecting the STUARTS with the House of HANOVER.



THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

	A.D.
George I.	1714
George II.	1727
George III.	1760
Regency of the Prince of Wales ...	1811
George IV.	1820
William IV.	1830
Victoria	1837

CHAPTER I.

George I.

1714 A.D.—1727 A.D.

280. **The Beginning of the Whig Ascendancy.**—Anne's children all died before her. By the *Act of Settlement* the crown fell to George, son of Sophia, Electress of Hanover. George had been brought up in Germany. He knew very little of English ways, and did not even know the English language. Consequently he could not take much part in the government of the country, and was obliged to leave the management of affairs to his Ministers. At the end of Anne's reign Bolingbroke and other Tories had intrigued to secure the succession of the Pretender. The Whigs had prevented this, so that George regarded the Tories as his enemies and the Whigs as his friends, and appointed a new Ministry consisting entirely of the latter. This is the beginning of the Whig Ascendancy or government of the country by the one of the great parties to the exclusion of the other.

281. **Parliament under the Whig Ascendancy.**—In the House of Lords most of the greatest and most wealthy nobles were Whigs, and in the House of Commons the Whigs also had a majority. This does not however prove that the nation always was in favour of the Whigs, because the House of Commons did not really represent the nation. The causes of this were as follows. (1) Many of the towns which returned members were what were afterwards called **rotten boroughs or pocket boroughs**: i.e., they contained very few electors, in many cases only the members of the Town Council, and these few electors would elect whoever the neighbouring noble ordered them to, or would sell their votes to the highest bidder. (2) Pensions and places could be given to members of Parliament, who would in return vote for the measures brought in by the Government. (3) Government could bribe members of Parliament directly. The leaders of the Whig party made use of their wealth and power to obtain pocket boroughs and had their friends and relations returned to Parliament for them. The Ministers so long as they retained the favour of the King could use their power of giving places and pensions in a similar way to keep a majority.

282. **The Jacobites and the Fifteen.**—George I.'s first Prime Minister was **Lord Townshend**, and in his Ministry was **Sir Robert Walpole**. They had first to meet danger from the **Jacobites**, among whom were supposed to be the Tory Ministers of the previous Parliament. They were impeached. A *Bill of Attainder* was passed against **Bolingbroke**. He fled to France. **Oxford** was imprisoned in the Tower.

283. **Jacobite revolts.**—Jacobite risings took place in Scotland and in the north of England. In

Scotland the Earl of Mar unfurled the standard of rebellion in Braemar. Six thousand Highlanders joined him at Perth. There he lingered. Argyle gathered together the Lowland bands. The two armies met at Sheriffmuir and a drawn battle was fought. The Pretender landed in Scotland. His presence helped his cause but little. The lowland army advanced against him. He and Mar retreated to Montrose, and secretly sailed away to France. Thereupon the Highland bands dispersed. In England Lord Derwentwater and Mr. Foster gathered a few hundred men in arms, and, joined by Lord Kenmure at the head of two thousand Highlanders, advanced to Preston. They were soon hemmed in by the royal forces. On the same day that the battle of Sheriffmuir was fought they surrendered. Lord Derwentwater and Lord Kenmure were brought to the block. So ended what is known as "*The Fifteen.*" 1715 A.D.

284. The Septennial Act.—The country was still in a very unsettled state. According to the Triennial Act Parliament would soon have to dissolve. A general election would embitter party feeling, and produce great excitement throughout the country. The Septennial Act was passed. It extended the duration of Parliament to seven years. The Act was made applicable to the Parliament that made it. This Act is still in force. 1716 A.D.

285. South Sea Scheme—Bubble Companies.—The *National Debt* amounted to a large sum. The most extravagant ideas had been formed of the wealth of South America. A company—the *South Sea Company*—came forward and offered to become responsible for paying interest to the creditors of Government at seven or eight per cent, receiving from

Government only four or five per cent. That is to say, the Company was to provide every year three per cent on thirty-two million pounds, the amount of the National Debt. To enable them to do this Government granted them a monopoly of the trade with the South Seas. The profits of this trade were expected to be so great that people were anxious to get shares in the company and they soon came to be sold for ten times their original value. Thereupon all kinds of sham companies were started. The people, mad to become rich, invested their money in them. As people became less excited however they began to wonder whether after all they had been wise in investing their money in this way. Doubt led to action. They rushed into the market to sell their shares, but nobody would buy them. The companies failed. A general ruin followed. A cry of distress ran through the country. The wail became a howl of anger when it was known that some of the Ministers had received bribes from the South Sea Company. Stanhope died of a broken heart; Craggs, the Secretary of State, of terror. The Chancellor of the Exchequer was sent to the Tower.

286. Robert Walpole.—All eyes were turned to Robert Walpole, as the only man that could save the nation. He was made First Lord of the Treasury, and continued to govern England for the next twenty years. He was born in 1676 and entered Parliament in 1700. He was then a rough good-humoured country squire, and cared little for books; but he was fond of cards and hunting. As a debater he had no equal. His sound practical
1722 A.D. sense soon made him a power in Parliament. His skill in finance was recognized by the mercantile classes, and hence the trust placed in him to relieve the nation when the South

Sea Bubble burst. During the twenty years he was Prime Minister he tried to secure peace abroad. At home he made little or no changes in the laws. He introduced no reforms. In this perhaps he was wise. The country needed rest from political excitement. During the rest which he gave it commerce prospered and the land tripled in value. In material progress England advanced as it had never done before.

287. **Death of George I.**—Few events of importance mark the period of Walpole's administration during the reign of George I. He tried to relieve the people by dividing the losses by the South Sea Scheme. Nine millions of the Company's stock were given to the Bank of England, and nine more to the East India Company; while seven millions that had been given to Government were returned. A Jacobite plot, in which **Bishop Atterbury** was found to be in secret correspondence with the Pretender, was discovered in 1722. The Bishop was deprived of his see and banished. George I. died of apoplexy near **Osnabruck** in June 1727.

CHAPTER II.

George II.

1727 A.D.—1760 A.D.

288. **"The Patriots."**—When George II. ascended the throne the opponents of Walpole hoped for his fall. But **Caroline**, the wife of George, was fond of Walpole, and for the next ten years he had greater power than ever. Walpole had his weaknesses. One of these was jealousy of his colleagues. Whenever any one of these showed great ability and began

to have much influence, Walpole was sure to quarrel with him. The consequence was that these men joined together. They called themselves "*The Patriots*," and they resolved to bring about Walpole's fall. But this was no easy matter. Walpole could always get a majority of the Commons by making use of the means described already. He made more use of direct bribery than any minister before him, and is said to have believed that every man had his price.

289. **The Excise Bill.**—In 1733 Walpole introduced an **Excise Bill**. Hitherto customs duties had been levied on certain imports, *e.g.* tobacco and wines. Large quantities of these commodities were being smuggled into the country, and the Government was being robbed of its revenue. Walpole proposed that the duty should be levied as an **Excise** from the inland dealers. This would not increase the taxes but only alter the manner of collecting them, and prevent smuggling. The people however thought that it would give power to officers of Government to enter their houses at will, and a great agitation was got up through the country against the Bill. "The Patriots" fanned the flame. Riots took place. Queen Caroline urged Walpole to proceed with the Bill. "I will not be the Minister," he said, "to enforce taxes at the expense of blood," and the Bill was withdrawn.

1733 A.D.

290. **War with Spain.**—In 1737 Walpole lost a staunch friend by the death of **Caroline**. The young Prince of Wales hated his father and took the side of "The Patriots" in their attacks upon Walpole. They accused him of doing more for Hanover than for England, and of destroying the honesty of the nation by his bribery and corruption. Still he held his own. In 1739 stories were circulated of the

cruel treatment of the English by the Spaniards in South America. One, Robert Jenkins, a master of an English vessel, had his ear torn off. A cry for war ran through the land. Walpole was anxious for peace. The popular feeling against Spain increased. "The Patriots" joined by the "*Boys*," as Walpole called a set of young Whigs who now began to come into notice, called for war. The leader of the "Boys" was William Pitt. Walpole had to yield. Bonfires blazed and bells clashed. "They may ring their bells now," said the defeated Walpole, "but they will soon be wringing their hands." The English had little success in the war. Portobello, on the Isthmus of Darien, was taken by Admiral Vernon in 1739. But two years later he was defeated with great loss at Carthagena. 1739 A.D.

291. Fall of Walpole.—The blame fell on Walpole. He was accused of not supplying the necessary means for successfully carrying on the war. A general election followed. "The Patriots" obtained a majority in the House of Commons. Walpole resigned, and entered the House of Lords as Earl of Orford. The war with Spain continued till 1748, but few events of importance happened in connection with it. Anson, who was sent to relieve Vernon, failed to do so. He struck across the Pacific, captured a Spanish galleon, and returned in June 1744 with only one ship, having sailed round the world. 1742 A.D.

292. The Pelhams.—On the fall of Walpole, Lord Carteret, afterwards Earl Granville became the chief man in the Government. George II. was exceedingly fond of him. He was the only Minister that could speak German, and he pleased George by strengthening his German possessions. But the Duke 1744 to 1754 A.D.

immediately ran off to the mountains carrying their booty with them. Charles fell back on the north. At **Culloden** near Inverness the **Duke of Cumberland** faced him. The Highlanders, unable to withstand the fire of the English, broke and fled in the utmost confusion. They were cut down in great numbers. Charles escaped to the mountains, and after many adventures reached France in safety. Several of the Highland chiefs, such as **Lord Lovat** and **Lord Balmerino**, were brought to the block. Many nobles had their lands confiscated.

1746 A.D. Feudal tenures were abolished in the Highlands. The jurisdiction hitherto exercised by the chiefs was transferred to the crown. The clansmen were pardoned. This rebellion is known as "*The forty-five.*"

294. **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.**—The war on the Continent continued till 1748 when

1748 A.D. it was brought to a close by the **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.** No party gained anything by the war except Prussia, which retained **Silesia.**

CHAPTER III.

George II.

1727 A.D.—1760 A.D.

295. **The Seven Years' War—1756-1763.**—Henry Pelham had died, but the **Duke of Newcastle** continued at the head of the Government. But as he kept all the power in his own hands, it was very difficult for him to get an able man to take the place of his brother, as *Leader* in the House of Commons.

He himself was little of a statesman, and this was a time when a great statesman was needed. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle had not really settled the matters in dispute among the powers. Maria Theresa was determined to get back Silesia. In America France claimed all the territory west of the Alleghany Mountains, and in India Dupleix was trying to make the power of France paramount. One result of the Austrian Succession War had been to make Prussia very powerful in Europe. A certain Austrian statesman thought that it would be to the interest of both France and Austria to combine against Prussia, and after much negotiation an alliance between these ancient enemies was arranged. Russia, Saxony, and Spain which all had reasons for hating Prussia and Frederick II. joined in this alliance. Meanwhile war had broken out in America between the English and French. Frederick came to know of the alliance against him and by attacking Saxony brought on a general European war. England as an enemy of France naturally became an ally of Prussia. During the first year England was everywhere beaten.

France seized Minorca. Admiral Byng, who was sent to relieve it, fled before the French fleet. In America, a force sent across the Alleghanies to pull down a fort that the French had erected on the Ohio, met with a repulse. In Hanover an army of fifty thousand men retired before the French. Never was there such despondency in England. The great Lord Chesterfield exclaimed "We are no longer a nation." 1756 A.D.

296. William Pitt.—But things were soon to change. William Pitt, whom we have seen as the leader of the "*Boys*" against Walpole, had risen to the highest influence by his eloquence and abi-

lities. The King did not like him. He had spoken against Hanover, and the King was fonder of Hanover than of England. But though no favourite with the King, Pitt became the darling of the nation. In his political life he was guided by the loftiest patriotism. Although bribery and corruption were common in Parliament, Pitt would have scorned to take a bribe, and he would never debase himself to offer one. His power in influencing men was great. No man ever entered Pitt's closet, who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in. In debate he always spoke like one having authority. Now he could crush his opponent with a look or with the bitterest sarcasm: again with impassioned eloquence he could sway his audience at will. Pitt and Pitt alone could save England. The King was forced to make him *Secretary of State* in 1756, with the Duke of Devonshire as Prime Minister. Next year the Ministry was dismissed and Newcastle was again summoned to form a Ministry. There was the wildest excitement throughout the country. Addresses in favour of Pitt came pouring in from the cities and towns. Each was enclosed in a gold box; and for weeks it "rained gold boxes." The King had to give way. Pitt was re-appointed Secretary of State. The management of the war and the foreign policy of the country were entrusted to him. Newcastle was made Prime Minister and the work of keeping together the majority in the House of Commons by the use of the royal "influence" was entrusted to him. These events show that only under special circumstances and to a limited extent the appointment of Ministers depended on the will of the nation.

297. **The War in Europe.**—Pitt breathed his own spirit into every department of the army and the navy. In Germany he appointed Duke Ferdinand

to the command of the English Army. The French were quickly driven out of Hanover. In the following year success followed success, so much so, that it was said at the time. "One is forced to ask every morning what victory there is, for fear of missing one." At Minden Ferdinand overthrew the French, killing seven thousand men. 1759 A.D. Admiral Hawke came in sight of the French fleet at the mouth of Quiberon Bay and destroyed it. Another fleet from Toulon met with a similar fate from Admiral Boscawen off Lagos. The disgrace of Byng's retreat was wiped out. The superiority of the English at sea was re-established.

298. The War in America.—Great as these successes were, of still greater importance for the English as a colonizing people, were the events that were taking place in America. Thousands of English men during the times of religious persecution had settled there, and occupied the land along the coast from the Kennebec to South Carolina. The French had settled in Canada and Louisiana. They wished to join those settlements by building forts along the Mississippi Valley. The consequence of this would have been that the English colonists would have been confined to a narrow strip of land near the coast, and would have been cut off from trade with the interior. But the same year that witnessed the victory at Minden saw General Wolfe climb the Heights of Abraham and capture Quebec. 1759 A.D. Montreal was taken. Canada was wrested from the French. The power of France in America came to an end. The English Colonies continued to grow and to prosper, and have become the great American States of to-day.

299. The War in India.—The glory of Pitt's administration was not confined to Europe and Ame-

rica. In India, Clive had left the writing desk to carry arms. His heroic defence of Arcot had won for the English the support of the natives, and given the first blow to the French ascendency in Southern India. The victory of Plassey, 1757, established the English power in Bengal. The battle of Wandiwash 1759, and the fall of Pondicherry 1761, put an end for ever to the dream of establishing a French empire in India, and left the English supreme in the Carnatic.

300. Religion in England. The Methodists.—We have seen that corruption prevailed at this time in public life. The private morals of all classes of the nation were also very low. Religion, too had become merely formal, and the Church had lost its zeal and activity. The middle classes, however, still clung, firmly to their Bible. About the end of Walpole's administration there came a religious revival from amongst them. The leaders in the movement were three Oxford students, Whitefield, and two brothers, Charles and John Wesley. They were great preachers, and they preached to the poor. John Wesley, though not perhaps such a great preacher as Whitefield, was the founder of Methodism. The Methodists against the advice of Wesley left the church and so formed a new sect of Dissenters. The movement was like the growth of Puritanism which we have noted in Elizabeth and James I's reigns, and the views of the Methodists were not unlike those of the Puritans. This movement had a great effect on the Church. It roused both clergy and people from the state of careless indifference into which they had fallen. A new era of religious life and zeal in good works was begun, and it has continued to the present time. John Howard spent his life in securing reform in the prisons of England and on the Continent. Sun-

day Schools were opened later on by **Robert Raikes**, 1781. Compassion for the poor and the suffering led to the raising of hospitals and the founding of charities. Love for their fellowmen brought about the abolition of the slave trade in 1807, and of slavery in the British possessions in 1833.

CHAPTER IV.

George III.

1760 A.D.—1820 A.D.

301. **George III.**—In 1760 George II. died. His grandson, **George**, son of **Frederick Prince of Wales**, succeeded. George III. was only twenty-two years old, and he had a will of his own. His predecessors of the House of Hanover had interfered but little in politics. The great Whig families had really governed England. George III. would not have this. His mother used to say to him, "Be a King, George." And a king, having the chief power in the state, George made up his mind to be. To accomplish this he felt it necessary to break down the Whig ascendancy. His first step was the appointment of **Lord Bute**, a Tory who had been his tutor, Secretary of State. Pitt and Newcastle soon found that they were no longer able to carry out their policy. Pitt having learnt that the family compact between the two **Bourbon** families of Spain and France had been renewed, urged that the Spanish ships that were on their way from the Indies, laden with treasure, should be seized; that the **Isthmus of Panama** should be occupied; and the **Spanish Colonies** in America attacked. 1761 A.D.

His council was not attended to and he resigned office. Not long after Newcastle also resigned as he had ceased to be consulted by his fellow-ministers or the King. Bute was made Prime Minister.

302. **The Peace of Paris.**—All parties to the war wished for peace. England and Prussia were the only powers which had got much credit in it. This was owing to the policy of Pitt. He had conquered America in Europe. That is, by supporting Prussia, chiefly by *Subsidies*, i.e., grants of money, he had prevented France helping her colonists in America. Helped by these subsidies, Frederick the Great had been able to maintain himself against the combined attacks of Austria, Saxony, France, and Russia. France was bankrupt and Austria had been unable to recover Silesia. Pitt thought that England had a right to a very advantageous peace. The King and Bute were willing to make peace on almost any terms. A treaty was signed at Paris between England, France and Spain by which Spain lost Manilla and Havannah. France gave up Nova Scotia and Canada. The same year the continental war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Hubertsburg by which Frederick retained Silesia.

303. **Fall of Bute—The Grenville Ministry.**—The terms of the Peace of Paris were received with indignation. People thought that England ought to have obtained far more. It was also said that large sums had been spent in bribing members of Parliament to vote for the peace. The blame of it all was laid on Bute who was hated as a Scotchman, the king's favourite, and the supplanter of Pitt. There were riots against him all over the country and he resigned office. George Grenville who had been Secretary of State succeeded him.

1763 A.D.

304. **John Wilkes.**—Grenville remained in office two years, 1763-5. His Ministry is well remembered (1) for the prosecution of John Wilkes and (2) for the forcing of *Stamp Duties* on North America. Wilkes was a member of Parliament. In a paper called "*The North Briton*" he denounced the Peace of Paris, and attacked the King and Lord Bute. Wilkes was arrested on "a general warrant," that is, a warrant in which no person was named. General warrants were declared by the courts to be illegal and they have never been used since. Wilkes was set free.

305. **The Stamp Act.**—The cost of the late wars had been great. The national debt had increased to one hundred and forty millions. Part of this money had been spent in protecting the American Colonists from the French. Grenville thought the Colonists should pay a share of it, and he levied a *Stamp duty* on them. The colonists were willing enough to bear their share of the expense of the war. But hitherto their taxes had been levied by their own Assemblies. If England were to levy taxes on them, they said they ought to have representatives in the English Parliament. A Congress consisting of delegates from all the Assemblies of the Colonies met. They refused to have any thing to do with the stamps. Documents were to be considered legal without them. When the stamps arrived at Boston they were seized by the magistrates. Grenville resigned. Lord Rockingham was made Prime Minister. He formed a ministry of the old Whig families and helped by Pitt repealed the Stamp Act. His Ministry however had not much influence in Parliament and the King disliked it. He therefore soon resigned and to break up this purely Whig administration the King called on Pitt to form a Ministry.

1765 A.D.

306. **Pitt, Earl of Chatham.**—Pitt's first administration had been most successful. His second was a failure. He was created **Earl of Chatham**, and so had a seat in the *House of Lords*. His taking a title displeased many. The people especially did not like it. They could look upon him no longer as their friend but as one of "the King's friends." His health too had begun to fail. His mind for a time gave way. In 1768 he resigned office. **The Duke of Grafton** and subsequently **Lord North**, 1770, were nominally at the head of affairs for the next fourteen years. During this period the King was in reality **his own Prime Minister**. He had broken down the Whig ascendency, appointed Ministers without regard to party and used the royal "influence" himself instead of entrusting it to a Minister.

1766 TO 1768 A.D.

307. **Wilkes, Parliament and the Press.**—Wilkes returned from France in 1768 and was elected member for Middlesex. He had been outlawed, so he was now for a time thrown into prison. In 1769 the Commons expelled him from the House. The people of Middlesex immediately re-elected him as their representative. Parliament declared, that as he had been already expelled, he could not take his seat. Another election followed. Wilkes was again returned by a triumphant majority over his oppponent **Colonel Luttrell**. The House of Commons, in spite of this, admitted Luttrell, and thereby took on themselves the right of election, which belonged alone to the people of Middlesex. The whole country was indignant. **Junius** issued his celebrated letters. But the House of Commons had done what George wished, and for the rest George did not care. The excitement in the country about Wilkes showed that the nation was getting dissatisfied with Parliament.

We have seen that two grievances especially were felt, the House of Commons was not really representative of the people because many members were nominees of government or of the nobility, and others bought their seats. The proceedings of Parliament were also kept secret. From the time of Wilkes efforts were made more or less often to secure a reform of Parliament, and that subject will be treated later on. In 1771 the second cause of complaint was removed. The newspapers began to give reports of the speeches in Parliament. The Commons tried to stop this; but there was such a commotion in London, that they had to yield. Since that time the speeches have been published, and now we sometimes read of members of Parliament complaining that their speeches have not been reported fully enough. The publication of what was daily taking place in Parliament was a great thing for the nation. It caused the people to take an interest in politics such as they had never had the opportunity of doing before, and, from seeing the votes given by their members, they could learn whether their members were really representing their wishes.

308. **Causes of the American War of Independence.**—The Stamp Act introduced by Grenville had been withdrawn, and peace might have been maintained between England and her American Colonies. But in 1767, while Chatham was absent from public life from sickness, his foolish colleagues imposed duties in America on tea and five other articles. The Colonists grumbled. They maintained that their own assemblies alone had the right to levy taxes. The duty was, thereupon, removed from all the imports except *tea*. But if the British Government had power to impose a duty on tea it had the power to impose duties on other things as well.

English troops too were sent to **Boston** and, though they were again withdrawn, this only increased the irritation. The Colonists would not buy tea so long as there was a duty on it. Still for a time there was no out-break. But in 1773 a mob dressed as Red Indians boarded the English ships laden with tea at Boston, and threw the tea into the sea. Conciliation might still have done much to prevent war, and Lord North wished to be conciliatory. But the King would not hear of it. An Act of the English Parliament was passed closing the port of Boston. The **Charter** was taken away from **Massachusetts**, and the people were thus deprived of the liberty they had enjoyed since the days of the "*Pilgrim Fathers*." A cry of alarm ran through all the States. If one Colony could be deprived of its privileges, so might all the rest. There was the greatest excitement. Chatham spoke strongly against the taxation. So did **Burke**. The great commercial towns in England sided with them. But the King would have his way. Troops were sent from England to enforce the orders of the English Government. A Congress of delegates from the American Assemblies met. Money was voted. An army was ordered to be raised. **George Washington**, who had fought well against the French, was appointed commander. Nothing could prevent war now.

1765 TO 1775 A.D.

309. **America declares its Independence.**—The war began with a skirmish at **Lexington**, 1775. In May of the same year General Gage stormed **Bunker's Hill** near Boston, and succeeded in capturing it, but with heavy loss. An American army under **Arnold** invaded **Canada** and took **Montreal** but had to retire beaten from **Quebec**. The following year the Eng-

1775 A.D.

lish General, **Howe**, was driven back from **Boston**. Thereupon, the celebrated **Declaration of Independence** was issued. The **Congress**, assembled at **Philadelphia**, declared that the "**United Colonies** are, and of right ought to be, **Free and Independent States**." 4th July 1776 A.D.

Still, for a time, success followed the English. In August, **Howe** cleared **Long Island**, and Washington was forced to retire from **New York**. In the beginning of the next campaign, 1777, Washington was defeated at **Brandywine**, and **Philadelphia** fell into the hands of Howe. On the other hand, **General Burgoyne** with a force of seven thousand men, many of whom were Indians, was surrounded on the heights of **Saratoga** and forced to surrender. The winter saw Washington's forces, shoeless and half-starved, at **Valley Forge**, in front of Howe's army, bearing their sufferings with all the calmness and determination of their great leader.

310. **France and Spain join America.**—France and Spain saw an opportunity of vengeance for the losses of the Seven Years War and formed an alliance with the States. There was despair in England. Lord North was now ready to grant all that the Americans had ever asked for. Lord Chatham, who had all along taken the side of the colonists, might still have saved the union. But with him there could be no peace, while France was in alliance with the States. Sick and dying he was carried to the House of Lords. "Shall we fall prostrate before the House of Bourbon?" he exclaimed, and he was carried out only to die. The nation, however, drew their inspiration from him. And though the Government remained as weak as ever, some brave deeds were done abroad. For three years **General Elliot** held **Gibraltar** against the Spaniards. **Charles-**

ton was captured by Sir Henry Clinton, 1780. But the end was near. In 1781 **Lord Cornwallis** was hemmed in at **York Town** and forced to surrender. When the news reached England, Lord North, holding up his hands exclaimed "All is over," and resigned. England was truly in a sad way. Her American Colonies were clearly lost to her. **France** and **Spain** were combined against her, and **Holland** now joined them. **Russia, Sweden** and **Denmark** had formed an *Armed Neutrality*, that is to say, they were ready to fight with her at any moment. But **Admiral Rodney** saved England from a dishonourable peace. He destroyed the **Spanish** fleet off **Cadiz**, crossed to the **West Indies** and scattered the **French** fleet there, and returned to the Mediterranean and relieved **Gibraltar**. In November 1782 the **Peace of Paris** put an end to the war in America. The independence of America was acknowledged. In the same year the peace of **Versailles** closed the war with France and Spain. England restored her conquests.

1782 A.D.

311. **The English in India.**—While England was losing the loyalty and affection of her children in the West, **Clive** and **Warren Hastings** were adding to her possessions in the East. In 1765 Clive returned to India, and during a residence of two years added **Bengal, Bihar** and **Orissa** to the British possessions. Warren Hastings took Clive's place in 1772. He introduced the most salutary reforms into the Government of the country, set up new law Courts, and framed a Code of Laws which showed him to be a great law-giver. By his genius and ability he thwarted a league that had been formed between the **Mahrattas, Nizam Ali** and **Hyder Ali** for the overthrow of the English power, and secured the

island of Salsette. On his return to England he was impeached. The impassioned and exaggerated speeches made against him by Burke and Sheridan injured his reputation for a time. His treatment of the Begums of Oudh can hardly be justified. But Lord Cornwallis, on his return to England, was able to bear witness to the beneficent results of Hastings' rule. He was acquitted. Certainly no greater Englishman has ever governed India.

312. Lord Rockingham's and the Coalition Ministries.—After the resignation of Lord North the old Whig party returned to power, Lord Rockingham being Prime Minister. The famous orator Burke was a member of this Ministry, and passed bills intended to secure Economical Reforms. By these the pension list was reduced and some useless offices were abolished. Persons holding Government Contracts were excluded from the House of Commons, and Revenue Officers were forbidden to vote at elections. The object of these acts was not so much the saving of public money as the reduction of the "influence" of the crown. Rockingham died in 1782 and Lord Shelburne, the chief of that section of the Whig party which had followed Chatham, came into power. This Ministry made the Peace of Versailles. It was succeeded very soon by one called the Coalition because it contained Lord North and Fox, who had previously been opposed to one another, and members of both their parties. This Ministry had for its object still further limiting the power of the crown, and the King accordingly hated them. Fox brought in his India Bill, to take the government of India from the Company and give it to a committee of Parliament for seven years. The King was excessively angry and allowed two peers to show a paper to the other peers stating that

whoever voted for the India Bill was not only not the King's friend, but would be considered by him as an enemy. Many of the Lords were influenced by this and the bill was thrown out. This incident shows how great the power of the crown was and also that George III. did not scruple to use it even against his own Ministers. Soon after he dismissed the Coalition.

313. **William Pitt, Prime Minister.**—The King was determined not to have any of the Whig leaders as Minister, so he chose **William Pitt**, *second son of the great Lord Chatham*, although he was only twenty-four years old, as Prime Minister. The majority of the House of Commons was opposed to him. But he was supported by the royal "influence" and the country disliked Fox and his party and admired the courage of the young Minister.

1784 A.D. An election took place in 1784. A great number of Fox's party lost their seats and supporters of Pitt were elected in their places. This was the end of the **Whig ascendancy**. Pitt's party included many Tories and in a few years, he and his followers came to be regarded as a new Tory party, which for nearly fifty years governed England.

314. **William Pitt, as a peace Minister.**—Pitt inherited much of his father's ability and nobleness of character. He cared little for gain for himself, and he would not stoop to corruption. He was an able debater, a thorough man of business, and a great financier. A good Finance Minister was needed now. The late wars had run up the national debt to two hundred and forty millions, and the taxes bore heavily on the people. Peace was needed. Pitt, like Walpole, was essentially a peace Minister, and for nine years he was able to keep the country out of war. This was a great time for the manufacturing and

commercial interests of England. The potteries first established by Wedgewood in Staffordshire in 1763 had become so prosperous, that in 1783 there were not fewer than 20,000 potters in that county alone. The invention of the steam engine by Watt in 1765, and of the spinning-machine by Arkwright in 1768, led to the rapid growth of manufactures. All that was needed was the establishment of the public credit. Pitt soon secured that. A rigid economy was introduced into every part of the service. Customs duties were reduced. An Excise was introduced. Many taxes were abolished. But so much did the commercial prosperity of the country improve that notwithstanding the reduction of taxation, the revenue continued rapidly to increase. Pitt was in favour of *Free Trade*. He succeeded in passing a measure to have free trade between Ireland and England. But the Irish Parliament, led by Grattan, foolishly would not agree to it. A commercial treaty, however, was made between England and France in 1787 to the mutual advantage of both countries.

CHAPTER V.

George III.

1760 A.D.—1820 A.D.

The First French Revolution War.

1789—1802.

315. The French Revolution.—Pitt would have continued his peace policy; but events were taking place in France that were to force him, however unwillingly, to go to war. For generations the people in France had been ground down by despotism. The peasantry were oppressed by the feudal nobility, Heavy taxation pressed hard on the working classes.

but owing to the extravagance of the Court and disastrous wars the country was bankrupt. The people had no voice in the government of the country. They now began to say that the whole government of the country ought not to rest in the hands of the king and his nobles, and that the people had a right to have a share in making the laws under which they were to live. In 1789 things came to a head. Louis XVI. summoned the *States-General* (a kind of Parliament) to meet at Versailles. The
1789 States-General formed itself into a *National*
A.D. *Assembly*. Riots broke out in Paris. The Bastille, the state prison in Paris, was destroyed. The King was made prisoner. The nobles fled. The Revolution was, accomplished. In England the news of the Revolution was, for the most part, received with gladness. A century before this, there had been a revolution in England against despotism, and in defence of civil and religious liberty, and much good had come to the people from it. The hope was, that in France too, a better government would be established. Pitt regarded the Revolution with satisfaction, Fox with the greatest joy. "How much is this the greatest event that ever happened in the world," cried he "and how much the best." Not so Burke. He looked on the Revolution with horror. And, because of this, the long friendship that had existed between him and Fox was brought to an end. But though Pitt hoped for good from the Revolution he would not in any way interfere with French politics. The French people had a right to change their government; and it was best to leave them alone to do it. So said Pitt, and, so hopeful was he of maintaining peace, that in the beginning of 1792 Parliament resolved to reduce the army. In that year Austria and Prussia attack-

ed France, but suffered defeat after defeat. The next year King Louis XVI. was tried and executed by the French Republicans, who had just before published the '*Decree of the 19th of November*' offering to assist any nation that desired to recover its freedom, that is, to overthrow monarchy. These events showed that no monarchy was safe from the influence of French lawlessness, and made war between England and France certain. The direct cause of it however was a French attack on Holland, England's ally. 1793 A.D.

316. War with France.—France now had to fight against England, Holland, Spain, Austria, Prussia, Sardinia and Saxony. At first however the Republic was successful. The English fleet was driven from Toulon by a young artillery officer named Napoleon Buonaparte, who was afterwards to become so famous. In the North of France, the army of the Republic drove the English before them, and entered Amsterdam in triumph. Spain and Prussia, thereupon, hastened to make peace. In 1795 Spain joined France. In the following year Austria was glad to purchase peace by surrendering the Netherlands. England was now without an ally. Her credit was low. The Bank of England suspended payment. The sailors in the Nore mutinied for more pay. Still the nation would not have peace. Their desire for the prosecution of the war was increased, and their hatred for the French intensified, by the latter threatening to invade England. England, however, was still maintaining her supremacy on the see. The Spanish fleet was put to flight with heavy loss by Admiral Jervis off Cape St. Vincent. The Dutch fleet was annihilated off Camperdown by Admiral Duncan. The next year, 1798, Nelson destroyed the French 1797 A.D.

fleet in the Battle of the Nile fought in Aboukir Bay. This was very important because Napoleon had led an army into Egypt hoping thence to attack the English in India, and the destruction of his fleet prevented this army returning to France. He failed to take Acre and returned to France alone, his army having been defeated by Sir Ralph Abercromby near Alexandria in 1801, soon after surrendered. The success of England in Egypt brought her again an ally in Austria. Italy and the Rhine Country were taken from the Republic.

317. Napoleon, First Consul.—On the arrival of Napoleon at Paris in 1799, he found that the Republican Government by mismanaging the war had become unpopular. With the help of the soldiers, who worshipped him, he made a new revolution and established a new constitution, in which he was really supreme though only called First Consul. Meanwhile Pitt had formed a Second Coalition against him of which England, Austria and Russia, were the chief powers. Napoleon attacked Austria, won the battle of Marengo, and forced Austria to make a separate peace. Under the influence of the Emperor Paul, who had a great admiration for Napoleon, Russia also deserted the Coalition. In 1800 the English secured Malta and thereby got the command of the Mediterranean. Displeased with this, and with the English insisting on examining the cargoes of neutral vessels, Russia, Sweden and Denmark formed an *Armed Neutrality*. But Nelson destroyed the Danish fleet at Copenhagen, and broke up the coalition.

1799 A.D.

318. Peace of Amiens.—Peace was now desired by both the French and the English. In March 1802 the Peace of Amiens was concluded. Napoleon promised to retire from

1802 A.D.

Italy. England promised to give up her newly conquered colonies, except Ceylon and Trinidad.

319. Ireland under the Georges.—By the Treaty of Limerick,* considerable privileges had been granted to the Irish Roman Catholics. This treaty had not been carried out, so that the Roman Catholics were shut out from all share in the Government of the country. No Roman Catholic could sit in the Irish Parliament, nor hold any office under Government. Roman Catholics could not be officers in the army or Civil Service nor barristers. They could not exercise certain professions and trades nor inherit land. And yet the immense majority of the people of Ireland were Roman Catholics. The Presbyterians, who formed the bulk of the population of Ulster, were equally disqualified from Government service by the *Test Act.* All offices under Government were thus held by the members of the *Established Episcopal Church*, and they formed only about one-twelfth of the population. All political power was vested in the hands of the great Protestant Episcopal landlords. They themselves formed the House of Lords, and the House of Commons was made up of their nominees. "For more than a century Ireland was the worst governed country in Europe." By the Navigation Act, Ireland could not trade direct with the English Colonies. All her produce had to pass through England on its way thither. The fine pastures of Ireland afforded great scope for the rearing of sheep and cattle. Irish wool became popular on the Continent. This interfered with the profits of the English farmers, so laws were made forbidding the Irish to sell their wool to any country except England. To England no cattle or sheep might be

* See p. 161.

exported, for this again would lower the price of food, and the English farmers would be losers. The Irish had nothing to look forward to but poverty. Large numbers left the country. But when England was hard pressed during the American War of Independence and France threatened an invasion, Ireland was called on to defend itself. Forty thousand Volunteers, mostly Protestants, took up arms. The country had been called on to defend itself and therefore claimed to legislate for itself. The people, led by Grattan, demanded a Parliament entirely free from the English Parliament, and the Rockingham Ministry, 1782, granted their request. Ireland was thus made independent in every thing. The only bond between it and England was, that both were governed by the same King.

1782 A.D.

320. Pitt and Ireland.—The Union of Ireland and Great Britain.—This "Independence," that was to do so much for Ireland, was only throwing the Government entirely into the hands of the few rich Protestant landlords. The Roman Catholics and the Presbyterians expected to get their disabilities, removed. No such privileges were granted them. Pitt, as we have seen, in 1783 passed a Bill in the English Parliament to establish free trade between Ireland and England and her Colonies, but this wonderful Parliament, which, when free, was to do so much for Ireland, would not agree to it. Things could not go on like this for ever. Both Roman Catholics and Presbyterians was roused. Pitt tried to quell the discontent, by forcing the Irish Parliament in 1792 to admit Roman Catholics to the franchise, and to offices in the civil and military services. But it was too late. The excitement grew to a frenzy. The Protestants in Ulster formed themselves into an association.

"*The United Irishmen,*" and began to correspond with France. The Roman Catholics became frantic and began to commit outrages on the landlords. The landlords formed themselves inro **Orange Societies,** so called after William of Orange. The most frightful outrages were committed on both sides. In 1798 the rebels, fifteen thousand strong, assembled on **Vinegar Hill,** but they were put to rout by the English forces. **Lord Cornwallis,** of Indian renown, crossed to Ireland, and, by his wise and humane measures, put down the insurrection. Pitt saw it would never do to have an independent Parliament in Ireland. Arrangements were made to unite the two Parliaments. Ireland was to send thirty-two Peers to the house of Lords and one hundred Members to the House of Commons in London. All the trading privileges of Great Britain were to be extended to Ireland. This union of the Irish and British Parliaments was accomplished in 1801. **1801 A.D.**

321. **Pitt resigns.**—Pitt had gained the assent of the Roman Catholics to the Union by promising to bring in a Bill to free them from their disabilities. In 1801 he did so. But George said that to assent to a *Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill* would be contrary to the oath taken by him when he assumed the crown, and George was a very obstinate man. When Pitt found he could not get George to assent to his Bill, he resigned. Most of his colleagues resigned with him. **Addington,** who had been for years *Speaker* of the House of Commons, was appointed his successor. It was during his ministry that the Peace of Amiens was signed.

CHAPTER VI.

George III.

1760 A.D.—1820 A.D.

The Second French Revolution War. 1803—1815.

322. **War with France renewed.**—Peace had been concluded. But it was soon evident it would not be lasting. Napoleon had been made sole Consul for life. His ambition was unbounded, he was determined to make France supreme in Europe. He already practically ruled Holland, Belgium and Germany west of the Rhine, and now seized **Elba** and **Piedmont**. In October 1802 he occupied **Switzerland**. In May 1803 England declared war. Napoleon resolved to invade England. The French ports along the Channel were busy getting ready a fleet that was to sail from **Boulogne**. In England the excitement was intense. Three hundred thousand volunteers were enrolled for the defence of the country. Addington had proved an incompetent minister and the King was glad to recall Pitt to office on his promising not to bring up the Catholic question.

1803 A.D.

323. **Pitt's second administration. 1804-6.**—Pitt did everything he could to strengthen the navy. **Russia, Austria** and **Sweden** entered into an alliance with him. Meanwhile, Napoleon had been made **Emperor of France**. One hundred thousand men were encamped at Boulogne ready to be taken over to England. The French fleet had gone to the **West Indies** and **Nelson** had followed in pursuit. Napoleon hoped that his fleet would return while Nelson was far away seeking for it. "Let us be masters of the Channel for six hours," he said, "and we are

masters of the world." Nelson however understood his enemy's plans. He followed the French fleet back to Europe and fought a great battle against it, united with the Spanish fleet, off Cape Trafalgar. He himself was killed in the moment of victory. The result of this battle was the destruction of the French fleet, and Napoleon dared not attempt the invasion of England. Meanwhile Napoleon left Boulogne and entered Bavaria against the Austrians. At Ulm he forced an Austrian army of thirty thousand men to surrender, and entered Vienna in triumph. Coming up with the united armies of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz (Nov.), he gained a complete victory, inflicting heavy loss. Austria had to yield. The coalition formed by Pitt was brought to an end. 1805 A.D.

324. Death of Pitt.—"Austerlitz killed Pitt:" so writes Wilberforce. On the 23rd January 1806 he died, and was buried in the same grave where lay his great father, Chatham. "What grave" exclaimed Lord Wellesley, "contains such a father and a such a son! What sepulchre embosoms the remains of so much human excellence and glory!" 1806 A.D.

325. The Berlin Decree.—Napoleon next turned his arms against Prussia, and by a victory at Jena, Nov. 1806, North Germany was brought to his feet. From Berlin he issued a *decree* forbidding all nations to have any intercourse with England. As England was the great carrying country of the world he hoped by this to ruin her trade. England in turn, declared all French ports, including the ports on the Baltic and in Italy, under blockade, and claimed the right to search neutral vessels.

326. The Peace of Tilsit.—From Berlin Napoleon advanced into Poland; and Russia was glad to

make peace at Tilsit, 1807. Sweden, thereupon, left the English alliance. England now stood alone. The Danes had a considerable fleet at Copenhagen. They might again be induced by Russia to join a northern league. An English fleet was sent to Copenhagen. The Danes were forced to deliver up their fleet, which was taken to England to be kept there till the war was over.

1807 A.D.

327. The Peninsular war.—Napoleon was now at peace with Russia. Western Europe was his own. His brother Louis was King of Holland. Another brother, Jerome, was King of Westphalia. A third brother, Joseph, who was King of Naples, was now placed on the throne of Spain. The Spaniards rose in arms. Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent to their aid with about twelve thousand men. Landing at Mondego Bay, he advanced to Vimiero, 1808, drove the French army from the field and forced it to leave Portugal. But a few months later Sir John Moore had to retreat to Corunna before a French army under Soult. Moore was killed in battle at Corunna. Wellesley, thereupon, took the command. Crossing into Spain, he defeated the French at Talavera, and for this he was created Viscount Wellington (July, 1809). Two months later, the victory of Wellesley was more than counterbalanced by the failure of an expedition to Walcheren. Of the forty thousand men sent on this expedition only about one-half returned. The next year, 1810, Wellington had to retire to Portugal, and take shelter within the lines at Torres Vedras. Massena, the French General, at the head of sixty-five thousand men, tried to dislodge him, but finding it impossible, he withdrew.

1809 A.D.

1810 A.D.

328. The King mad.—In this year the King be-

came insane and blind and remained so for the rest of his life. A Regency Bill was passed appointing the Prince of Wales, **Prince Regent** with almost all the powers of king. The English continued to gain successes in the Peninsula; in 1812 Wellington stormed and captured **Cuidad Rodrigo** and **Badajoz**, gained a great victory at **Salamanca** and entered **Madrid.**

329. **Napoleon Invades Russia.**—Meanwhile Napoleon had again declared war against Russia, and, with nearly half a million men, was on his way to **Moscow**, the Russian capital. At **Borodino** he defeated the Russians and entered Moscow. The inhabitants set fire to their houses. As these were built of wood, the city was soon in ashes. Napoleon had to retreat. It was October and the winter was coming on, which in Russia is very severe. His men dropped off on the march to perish in the snow. Only a few thousands of his army lived to cross the Russian frontier. 1812 A.D.

330. **Fall of Napoleon.**—The retreat from Moscow let to the downfall of Napoleon. **Prussia** joined Russia. The French had to retire to the **Elbe.** In the Peninsula Wellington had been making great preparation for a final and decisive campaign. With an army of ninety thousand men he again entered Spain, and at **Vittoria** put the French to rout, and drove them across the Pyrenees. Entering France he came up with Soult at **Toulouse**, 10th April 1814, and defeated him. But by this time the war had really been brought to an end. **Austria** had joined Prussia and Russia, and, having thoroughly routed Napoleon in the battle of **Leipsic**, Oct. 1813, had crossed the Rhine. On the 31st March 1814 Paris had surrendered. There a peace was made. 1813 A.D. 1814 A.D.

Napoleon was forced to abdicate and was sent to the island of Elba. Louis XVIII, a member of the old royal family, was placed on the throne.

331. Battle of Waterloo—.A Congress of statesmen assembled at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe, but their deliberations were interrupted by the news that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and had landed in France. Soldiers and veteran generals flocked to his standard. In three weeks he was in Paris once more Emperor of France. In an amazingly short time he had an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men under him. The allies put their forces into the field. Wellington took the command in Flanders to attack France from the north and the Prussians under Blucher were also in the same country. Napoleon wished to prevent them uniting. He fought the Prussians at Ligny and the English at Quatre Bras with this object. Wellington fell back from Quatre Bras towards Brussels and took up his position about eight miles from that town to defend it. Blucher knew of his plans and had promised to join him the next day. Napoleon sent one of his generals with a body of troops to intercept Blucher but the general did not succeed in doing so. Napoleon began the attack on Wellington at eleven o'clock and till five kept up alternate heavy cannonading and charges of cavalry on the English troops. They stood firm and at length the Prussians began to arrive on the field and attack the French on the right flank. Napoleon seeing this made a last attempt on the English position. He had kept his finest troops, the Old Guard, in reserve, now he sent them up the hill against the English centre. Wellington ordered his men to lie down and reserve their fire till the French came to the crest of the

1815 A.D.

hill. Then they sprang up and poured a terrible fire on the advancing column. The Old Guard broke and fled and soon the whole French army was in complete disorder and flying towards the French frontier. Napoleon escaped to Paris, but soon after, finding his cause hopeless, surrendered to the English. The allied armies entered Paris. Louis XVIII. was restored. Napoleon was banished to the Island of *St. Helena*, where he died in 1821.

332. War with America.—This war with France led to a war with America. England claimed the right to search American ships for seamen to serve in the navy. America would not have this and declared war. The Americans were unsuccessful in an attempt to take Canada. On the other hand an English army captured Washington and burnt its public buildings. With the close of the French war, the necessity for a *right of search* ceased, and peace was made at Ghent. 1814 A.D.

CHAPTER VII.

George III.

1760 A.D.—1820 A.D.

England after the French war.

333. State of the country.—War unsettles the trade of a country. It brings wealth to the few. It presses hard on the poor. And so it was now. The blockade of the European ports, and still more of America, shut out foreign produce from England, and bread rose to famine prices. The rents of farms rose with great rapidity. In many cases the landlord's income was doubled. The farmers became rich. The

poor became poorer. The discoveries of Watt and Arkwright* had given a great impetus to manufactures. At the same time weaving and many other small trades which had been before carried on at home had been crushed out, and many people had lost their means of living. Riots broke out in 1811 and the military were called out to suppress them.

1816 A.D. Poverty went on increasing, and with it *crime. At the close of the French war* England was in a miserable condition. Her debt had increased to the vast sum of £860,000,000. Heavy taxes were levied to pay the interest on this. For several years there had been bad harvests. The manufacturers had made more goods than they could sell, many mills had to be stopped, and the workers were thrown out of employment. As if things were not bad enough, Parliament, in the interests of the landlords and farmers, passed a Corn Law, prohibiting the import of grain except when it had reached famine prices. This was more than the nation could endure. Men began to band themselves together to secure "a radical reform" in the constitution. Danger and distress drove them to riot, and serious disturbances broke out all over the country. A serious of acts of Parliament was passed to give the government more power in dealing with sedition. These came to be known as the Six Acts. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended. A meeting held at Manchester

1820 A.D. for the purpose of advocating reform was dispersed by the military. The ministry became more and more unpopular. Plots were being laid to take their lives. At this time George III. died.

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* See p. 193.

CHAPTER VIII.

George IV.

1820 A.D.—1830 A.D.

334. The Cato-street Conspiracy.—George IV., the Prince Regent, succeeded. The soured temper of the nation and the bitterness against the Ministry soon showed themselves. A conspiracy, known as the **Cato Street Conspiracy,** was formed to murder all the Ministers at a dinner they were to attend. The plot was discovered. Twenty-five conspirators were found in a hay-loft in **Cato Street. Thistlewood,** the leader of the gang, and four others were executed. The days of the Gun powder plot were recalled. Terror spread through the country.

335. Trial of Queen Caroline.—The great unpopularity of the Ministry was shown in another way. The King led a notoriously shameless life. He took no pains to conceal his dislike for his wife **Caroline.** He refused to allow her the honours of her rank and set spies to watch her private life. At length she withdrew to the Continent. In obedience to the King the Ministry brought in a Bill of "*Pains and Penalties*" to deprive her of her title and honours as Queen and to dissolve the marriage on the ground of unfaithfulness. The people were convinced of her innocence and regarded her as the victim of persecution. The King and the Ministers were insulted whenever they appeared in public and in consequence of the strong feeling against them the bill was withdrawn.

336. Canning.—One of the most unpopular members of the Ministry was **Lord Castlereagh.** In 1822 he committed suicide, and in his place **Canning** was made **Secretary of State for Foreign**

Affairs. Canning was a disciple of Pitt. He had rare ability and could command the House of Commons by his brilliant oratory. He had favoured the abolition of the slave trade. He had laboured to carry Pitt's Catholic Emancipation Bill, and in 1812 had succeeded in obtaining a majority for it in the House of Commons, though it was afterwards thrown out by the House of Lords. His first act, now that he was Foreign Secretary, was to break with the Holy Alliance, as it was called, an alliance formed between all the great powers of Europe, against any movements of the people in their countries to obtain freedom. Canning held the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of other states. He acknowledged the independence of Mexico when it revolted against Spain. And when the liberties of Portugal were threatened by France in 1826, he sent an army to the assistance of the Portuguese.

337. Commercial prosperity.—In 1823 Canning's friend, Mr. Huskisson, joined the ministry. The Navigation Act* as completed under Charles II., intended to benefit the English shippers and make England the chief carrying country in the world, was still in force. Other nations had begun to act in the same way, and to put such heavy duties on goods brought to them by English ships, that it became impossible to carry on trade. In 1823 Huskisson carried a "Reciprocity of Duties Bill," which made the duties on all goods alike, whether they were imported by English or foreign vessels. He reduced the import duties on silk and wool. The results of this measures were soon seen. Trade flourished and the wealth of the country rapidly increased. But as in the days of the *South Sea Scheme*† the people

* See p. 142. † See p. 171.

were in too great haste to become rich. All kinds of companies were started. The same result followed. Thousands were ruined. Riots broke out. The new machines introduced into the factories were smashed to pieces, as if they were the cause of the misery.

338. Greece obtains its freedom.—In 1827 Canning was made Prime Minister on the resignation of Lord Liverpool who had held that office for fifteen years. The Greeks were struggling to free themselves from the Turks. The whole English nation was in sympathy with them. The poet Byron was spending the last days of a shattered life in their behalf. Canning greatly desired the Greeks to get their freedom but he wished, if possible, to keep peace. When, however, a force was sent from Egypt to over-run the Morea and carry off the Greeks as slaves, Canning interfered. Russia and France joined England. The Turkish and Egyptian fleets were destroyed by the allies in the bay of Navarino. Greece obtained its freedom. Oct. 1827

339. Death of Canning.—Before the news of Navarino reached England, Canning was in his grave. He died in August 1827 after being at the head of the Government only a few months. He was only fifty-seven. But he had served his country well. On the roll of English statesmen there is no greater name than George Canning.

340 Catholic Emancipation Bill.—After a short interval the Duke of Wellington became Prime Minister. Wellington had been created a duke for his success in the French war. He was a Tory, and neither he nor Sir Robert Peel, his Home Secretary, was in favour of reform. But they had to bend to the times. In 1828 the Test and Corporation

Acts were repealed. Catholics had not been allowed to sit in Parliament since the reign of
1829 A.D. Charles II.,* Pitt and Canning had laboured in vain to get this disability removed. In 1829, notwithstanding this restriction, the Irish elected Daniel O'Connell a Roman Catholic, member of Parliament for the county of Clare. O'Connell was an eloquent speaker, and he roused the Roman Catholics to assert their rights as citizens. There was likely to be a civil war. A Bill was passed by Parliament, giving Roman Catholics the same political privileges as Protestants. In 1830 George IV. died.

CHAPTER IX.

William IV.

1830 A. D.—1837 A. D.

341. **The Reform Movement.**—William, Duke of Clarence, a brother of George IV., succeeded. He was much more popular than his predecessor, and the first year of his reign is memorable for the opening of the Railway between Liverpool and Manchester, the carriages being drawn by a locomotive steam engine, the invention of George Stephenson. In France another revolution took place. The king, Charles X., and his ministers were ruling with a high hand. They wished to stop the liberty of the Press, and to alter the constitution. The people rose against them. Charles abdicated and fled to England.
1830 A.D. Louis Philippe was placed on the throne. The revolution in France had the sympathy of the English people, and an impulse was

* See p. 150.

given to the movement for the Reform of Parliament, such as it had never had before. Wellington was against reform, because it would diminish the power of the crown. But before the end of the year, the feeling against him was so strong that he had to resign. For the first time since 1784 a purely Whig Ministry came into office under Earl Grey as Prime Minister. His policy was "Peace, Retrenchment and Reform."

342. The Reform Bill.—In March 1831, Lord John Russell introduced the Reform Bill into the House of Commons. The Bill proposed (1) to take away the right of representation from *rotten boroughs*,* that is, from places with very few electors and in some cases, notoriously Old Sarum, with none; (2) to give the franchise to large towns that had grown into great importance, but which were still without representation; (3) to give more members to the counties (4) to give a vote to all house-holders in boroughs who paid a rental of £10 a year, and to those in counties who owned land worth £10 a year, or who paid a rental a £50 a year. The Bill passed the House of Commons, but was rejected by the House of Lords. The ministry appealed to the country. A general election took place. A large majority was returned in favour of the Bill. The Bill again passed the House of Commons. It was again rejected by the Lords. The agitation throughout the country became intense. Riots broke out in several places. There was likely to be a civil war. Lord John Russell and Brougham did all they could to calm the people, by promising to remain faithful to the cause of reform. A third time the Bill was introduced and passed the

1832 A.D.

* See p. 170.

House of Commons. The Lords were determined to throw it out. The Ministers represented to the King that if they did so there would be a great rising in the country, and he consented if necessary to create fresh peers and so obtain a majority in the House of Lords for the bill. When this was made known to the Lords they withdrew their opposition and the bill was passed. The passing of the Reform Act was the most important change that had been made in the system of Government since the Revolution of 1688. We have seen that since that time the country had been governed by the Ministry, which by the use of "influence" could secure a majority. One great result of the Reform Act was to destroy this "influence," both that of the King and of the great nobles. Parliament from that time has been really representative, and the sovereign has always been obliged to choose Ministers from that party which had a majority in the House. Another most important result was that the *Middle Classes* were represented in Parliament, and the Government ceased to be purely *aristocratic*. On the 7th June 1832 the Reform Bill became law.

343. **Abolition of Slavery.**—The first reformed Parliament met in 1833. Earl Grey was Prime Minister. His policy of reform was continued. In India the monopoly of trade enjoyed by the East India Company was done away with. Abuses in the Irish Church were put right. A grant was given for education. But, more important still, slavery in the British possessions was abolished. Wilberforce had worked many years for this. Now it was accomplished. The slaves were set free, the Government paying £20,000,000 for their freedom. The same year Wilberforce died.

1833 A.D.

344. **The Poor Laws.**—In 1834 the Poor Laws were amended. Out-door relief had hitherto been given to the able-bodied poor. As a result there were many lazy idle men and women receiving aid from the poor rates, who ought to have been working for their livelihood. The amended laws put an end to this. Work-houses were erected, and the able-bodied, to get relief from the rates, had to reside in them and work. The effects were soon seen. The lazy and idle preferred to labour outside the work-house. Less money was needed for the poor. The poor-rates were reduced, and the people were more contented and happy. 1834 A.D.

345. **Lord Melbourne.**—At the end of 1834 the King dismissed the Whigs fearing that they wished to attack the Irish Protestant Church and Sir Robert Peel, a Tory, was called to form a Government. But within four months the Whigs were again in office with Lord Melbourne as Prime Minister. In 1835 the **Municipal Act** was passed, which made **Local Self-Government** a reality. The rate-payers of each Municipal town were to elect a *Town Council* which was to elect a *Mayor* or *Chief Magistrate*. The Town Councils were to carry on the ordinary business of Local Government. Government was still to appoint *Justices of the Peace*. 1835 A.D.

346. **Death of William IV.**—William died in 1837. He was honest and was, on the whole, loved by the people. His reign is memorable for the passing of the Reform Bill and the other domestic reforms we have mentioned. Commerce too flourished and a great impulse was given to the extension of railways and the building of steam-ships.

CHAPTER X.

VICTORIA.

Began to reign 1837 A. D.

347. Hanover and England separated.—Victoria, a daughter of the Duke of Kent, brother of William IV., was only eighteen years old when she came to the throne. The *Salic Law** prevailed in Hanover, so that kingdom was separated from England.

348. The Chartists.—Lord Melbourne continued Prime Minister, but his ministry was already losing its popularity. The working classes were extremely discontented. They saw that the country since the Reform Act was being governed by the Middle Classes, among whom were their masters. In order to obtain a share in the government themselves they demanded what they called the **People's Charter** which contained the following six points. (1) Universal suffrage; (2) Annual Parliaments; (3) Vote by ballot; (4) Abolition of property qualification for members of Parliament; (5) The payment of members; (6) Equal electoral districts. The men who wished this charter to be passed were called **Chartists.** Their agitation was carried on for ten years and at last ended in failure. A petition containing a million and a half of signatures was presented to Parliament. But many of the signatures were found to be fictitious and Parliament therefore refused to take any notice of the petition. Of the six points the third† and fourth ‡ have been since made law, and the first§ and sixth‖ have been almost carried out.

1838 A.D.

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* See p. 73. † See p. 219. ‡ In 1858.
§ By the Representation of the People Act of 1884.
‖ By the Redistribution of Seats Act of 1885.

349. Foreign Policy.—There were wars abroad. **Mehemet Ali**, the Pasha of Egypt, attacked Turkey. Turkey asked and obtained the aid of England. **Acre** was bombarded and taken. The Pasha, thereupon, withdrew his troops from Syria. The **Afghan war** (1839-41), terminating in the massacre of the retreating English in the **Khyber Pass**, and a war with **China** to force opium into that country, turned the people against the Whigs. At the general election of 1841, the Tories, who now began to call themselves **Conservatives**, were placed in power with a majority of ninety-one in the House of Commons.

350. Sir Robert Peel.—A Tory Ministry was formed with **Sir Robert Peel** at its head. The Duke of Wellington was the chief member of the Ministry in the House of Lords. Sir Robert Peel was a great statesman and financier. The nation had confidence in him. He took advantage of this to remove many taxes that bore heavily on the poor, and in their place to levy an **income tax**. He made a treaty with **China** by which certain Chinese ports were opened for trade with all nations. In **Ireland** he put down a seditious movement led by **Daniel O'Connell**. In **India** the massacre in the **Khyber Pass** was avenged by the triumphant entry of the English into **Cabul**, and the burning of the **Bala Hissar**. The **Amirs** of **Sindh** were punished by their province being taken from them, 1843. The battle of **Sobraon** forced the **Sikhs** to sue for peace, 1846.

351. Repeal of the Corn Laws.—The great political event with which Sir Robert Peel's name will ever be associated was the repeal of the Corn Laws. In 1815, as we have seen, an act was passed imposing a heavy duty on corn imported into the country. Ever since then, the country had been divided into two parties—one in favour of an import duty, or

Protection as it is sometimes called—the other in favour of *Free* Trade. In 1839 a society called
1846 the **Anti-Corn-Law League** was formed.
A.D. The leading members of the league were **Richard Cobden** and **John Bright**. The object of the league was to use every constitutional means to enforce the principles of Free Trade. Sir Robert Peel was at first in favour of Protection, but gradually he became convinced that Free Trade was necessary. In 1846 the potato crop failed in Ireland. The potato was the chief food of the Irish. Consequently there was a famine in Ireland. Sir Robert Peel felt that under such circumstances it would be wrong to keep up the price of food by having a duty on corn, and that under any circumstances it was better to have no duty on food. He brought in and passed a bill abolishing the Corn Laws. Immediately after he resigned. The elections resulted in favour of the Whigs. **Lord John Russell** was called on to form a ministry.

352. **The Russell Ministry.**—Lord John Russell remained at the head of the Government till 1852. Few events of importance are associated with his ministry. The **Navigation Laws**, however, were repealed in 1849. In 1851 the Great Exhibition was held in London. Thither were brought the products of all nations, and for months the building was crowded with visitors from every land. The design and execution of the exhibition were largely the work of **Prince Albert**, the Queen's husband. Its object was to bring different nations together in friendly rivalry, and thereby to promote peace in the world.

353. **The Crimean war, 1854-6.**—But the peace of Europe was a few years afterwards broken by the ambition of **Russia**. She attacked **Turkey**, ostensibly

to relieve from the tyranny of the Turks the Slavonic Christians of **Moldavia** and **Wallachia** who were of the same race as the Russians themselves; but really that she might extend her empire to the **Dardanelles**. In France **Louis Napoleon**, a nephew of the great Napoleon Bonnaparte, had made himself Emperor, 1848. France joined England and Turkey against Russia, and a large force of English and French troops was sent into the Black Sea in 1854. The object was to seize **Sebastopol**, a very strong fortress in the **Crimea**. The allied armies landed at **Eupatoria**, drove the Russians from the heights of **Alma** and advanced towards **Sebastopol**. The celebrated **charge of the Light Brigade** of six hundred men at **Balaklava**, and the battle of **Inkerman**, in which the Russians were repulsed, were the principal events of the first campaign. The winter in the Crimea was very severe. The English commissariat was badly managed. The soldiers were exposed to the greatest suffering from want of clothing. The people in England became indignant. **Lord Aberdeen**, who was Prime Minister, had to resign. **Lord Palmerston** took his place. The war was prosecuted with much greater vigour in the second campaign. Sebastopol was taken. The war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Paris, March 1856. Russia was not to re-fortify Sebastopol nor to keep men-of-war in the Black Sea. But in 1870 Russia refused to be any longer bound by these conditions, and Russian ships of war are no longer excluded from the Black Sea.

1854 TO 1856 A.D.

354. The Indian Mutiny.—In the following year the sepoy mutiny broke out. It began at **Meerut**. For a time **Delhi** was in the hands of the rebels. The frightful massacres of Europeans at **Cawnpore**

and Jhansi, the heroic defence of Lucknow by Sir Henry Lawrence, the brilliant march of
1850 Havelock and Neill to its rescue and the
A.D. triumphant entry of their army into the Residency, the re-capture of Delhi and the final quelling of the rebellion by Sir Colin Campbell, will be found more fully related in the History of India. The Mutiny was followed by a great political change. The Government of India was transferred from the East India Company to the Crown, 1858.

355. Lord Palmerston.—Lord Palmerston, with the exception of a brief period in 1858-9, continued Prime Minister till his death in 1865. His Home policy, like that of Sir Robert Walpole was to make no changes. His foreign policy was to preserve an English neutrality, and to keep England out of war. In this he was successful.

356. Disraeli's Reform Bill.—On the death of Lord Palmerston, Lord John Russell, who had been created Earl Russel, came into power Mr. Gladstone being leader of the House of Commons. But as they were unable to pass a new Reform Bill which they brought forward, they resigned, and were succeeded by a Tory Government, with Lord Derby as Prime Minister, and Mr. Disraeli as leader of the House of Commons. Mr. Disraeli introduced a much
1867 more radical measure than that introduced
A.D. by Mr. Gladstone. By his Reform Bill, which was passed in August 1867, the borough franchise was extended to all who paid rates, and the county franchise to those who paid a rental of £12 a year.

357. The Gladstone Ministry, 1868-74.—The elections under the New Reform Bill returned a Liberal majority of one hundred members in the House of Commons. Mr. Gladstone became Prime

Minister. The period during which he held office (1868-1874) is marked by great legislative enactments. In Ireland the **Episcopal Church** was disestablished and dis-endowed, 1869. This was followed by an **Irish Land Bill**, 1870 which gave security to the tenant against unjust eviction, and placed the relations between landlord and tenant on a more equitable basis. The same year Mr. Foster succeeded in passing an **Education Act** by which a cheap education was provided for all. Under this act grants-in-aid were to be given to existing elementary school and *School Boards* were to be elected to establish and maintain similar schools in places where such were not in existence. These School Boards were empowered to levy a rate to provide money for keeping up their schools. In 1871 all *religious tests* for admission to Government offices or to degrees at universities were abolished. The following year another step was made in Parliamentary reform. **Vote by Ballot** at Parliamentary and Municipal elections was to be tried as an experiment for eight years and the system was afterwards established. The feeling of the country now began to turn against the Government. The people began to think they were getting too much new legislation. Next year, when Mr. Gladstone introduced a measure for Catholic University Education in Ireland, he found the feeling so strong against him that there was no use proceeding with it. In the beginning of 1874 he therefore appealed to the country. The Conservatives were returned with a majority of fifty members in the House of Commons and **Mr. Disraeli** became Prime Minister.

358. The Russo-Turkish War.—During the Ministry of Mr. Disraeli the attention of the nation was chiefly directed to foreign politics. Servia and

Bulgaria rose in revolt against Turkey. Russia led an army into Turkey and threatened Constantinople. England threatened to go to war if Russia tried to take that city. In support of this threat an English fleet was sent to the Bosphorus and Indian sepoys were taken to Malta. Peace was made by the Treaty of Berlin, by which Servia and Bulgaria were separated from Turkey.

359. **The Queen Empress of India.**—In 1876 the Queen took the title of Empress of India. Two years later a war broke out in Afghanistan; Kabul and Candahar were taken. A new Ameer was placed on the throne. Subsequently the British envoy Cavagnari was murdered. The English had again to invade the country and with a similar result. Meanwhile Mr. Gladstone had been using his great eloquence to rouse the English people against the foreign policy of the Government. In 1880 there was a general election. Mr. Gladstone was restored to power with a majority of 106 over the conservatives in the House of Commons.

360. **The Gladstone administration.**—Mr. Gladstone remained in power till 1885. A new party, known as the Home Rule Party, led by Mr. Parnell, had grown up in Ireland. They wished to have a Parliament of their own in Ireland. Tenants refused to pay their rents to their landlords. Crime increased throughout the country. Lord Frederick Cavendish, the Chief Secretary, was murdered. To put down this lawlessness Coercion Acts were passed, and the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended. Mr. Gladstone interfered in Egypt, where a certain Arabi had taken up arms. Alexandria was bombarded, and Arabi was defeated at Tel-el-Kebir. He is now a prisoner in Ceylon. Another insurrection headed by the Mahdi broke out in the Soudan.

General Gordon advanced to Khartoum, where he was besieged by the Mahdi, and no assistance having been sent to him, he was finally murdered there. The death of Gordon produced a great sensation in England, and Mr. Gladstone and his ministry were greatly blamed for not sending succour to him.

361. Reform Bill.—Meanwhile a Bill was introduced giving household franchise to the Counties, as was already the case in the Burghs. Mr. Gladstone was defeated on the Budget. He resigned and Lord Salisbury came into power. 1885 A.D.

LEADING DATES IN ENGLISH HISTORY.

I. THE ROMAN OCCUPATION.

B. C.

55. First invasion of Julius Cæsar.

A. D.

43. Conquest of Britain begun by Claudius.

61. Conquest of Mona and defeat of Boadicea by Suetonius Paulinus.

78-84. Governorship of Julius Agricola.

121. Hadrian's wall built.

211. Severus dies at York.

303. Constantine in Britain.

II. THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

449. Hengist and Horsa in Kent.

491. Ella the Saxon establishes the kingdom of Sussex.

419. Cerdic the Saxon establishes the kingdom of Wessex.

547. The Kingdom of Northumbria begun by the Angles.

597. Augustine lands in Kent.

607. Battle of Chester, Wales divided from Strathclyde.

627. Conversion of Edwin by Paulinus.

655. Death of Penda of Wessex.

664. Synod of Whitby.

685. Egfrith defeated and slain at Nechtansmere.

688. Ini of Wessex publishes his laws.

757. Offa king of Mercia.

802. Egbert, King of Wessex.

III. THE ANGLO-SAXON KINGS OF ENGLAND.

A. D.

827. Egbert, King of all England.
871. The Danes invade Wessex.
878. Battle of Edington and Peace of Wedmore.
937. Battle of Brunamburgh.
960. Dunstan Archbishop of Canterbury.
991. First payment of Danegeld.
1002. Massacre of the Danes.
1017. Canute, king of all England.
1051. Godwin and his sons outlawed.
1066. Battles of Stamford Bridge and Hastings.

IV. THE NORMAN KINGS.

1066. **WILLIAM I.**
1071. Conquest of England completed.
1086. Domesday Book.
1087. **WILLIAM II.**
1096. Robert of Normandy joins the First Crusade.
1100. **HENRY I.**
1107. Anselm and Henry I. agree about investitures.
1135. **STEPHEN.**
1138. The Battle of the Standard.
1153. The Treaty of Wallingford.

V. THE PLANTAGENETS.

1154. **HENRY II.**
1162. Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury.
1164. The Constitutions of Clarendon.
1170. Becket murdered.
1171. Henry II. in Ireland.

A. D.

1189. **RICHARD I.**
The Third Crusade.

1199. **JOHN.**

1204. Normandy conquered by Philip Augustus.

1213. John does homage to the Pope for his kingdom.

1215. Magna Carta signed.

1216. **HENRY III.**

1232. Fall of Hubert de Burgh.

1258. Provisions of Oxford.

1264. The Mise of Amiens and Battle of Lewes.

1265. Simon de Montfort's Parliament, Battle of Evesham.

1272. **EDWARD I.**

1282. Wales finally conquered.

1295. The model Parliament.

1296. The first conquest of Scotland.

1298. Battle of Falkirk. Second conquest of Scotland.

1307. **EDWARD II.**

1314. Battle of Bannockburn.

1327. **EDWARD III.**

1328. Independence of Scotland recognised by the Treaty of Northampton.

1338. Hundred Years War with France Begins.

1346. Battles of Crecy and Neville's Cross.

1349. The Black Death and the First Statute of Labourers.

1356. Battle of Poictiers.

1360. Peace of Bretigny.

1374. All French possessions lost except Calais, Bordeaux and Bayenne.

A. D.

1377. **RICHARD II.**

1381. The Peasants' Revolt.

1384. Death of Wicklif.

1399. Rebellion of Hereford.

VI. THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

1399. **HENRY IV.**

1401. The Rebellion of the Percies, Mortimers and Owen Glendower put down by the battle of Shrewsbury.

1413. **HENRY V.**

1415. Battle of Agincourt.

1420. Peace of Troyes.

1422. **HENRY VI.**

Regency of Bedford.

1429. Siege of Orleans raised by Joan of Arc.

1450. Death of Suffolk. Jack Kade's rebellion.

1453. Battle of Chatillon. France, except Calais, lost.

1454. York made Protector.

1455. First battle of St. Albans.

1460. Battles of Northampton and Wakefield, Death of York.

1461. Mortimer's Cross. Edward IV.

1471. Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury.

1475. Treaty of Pecquigny.

1483. **EDWARD V.**
RICHARD III.

1485. Battle of Bosworth.

VII. THE TUDORS.

A. D.

1485. HENRY VII.

1487. Lambert Simnel's rebellion put down.
1499. Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick executed.

1509. HENRY VIII.

The King marries Katherine of Aragon.
1513. Battle of Flodden Field.
1515. Wolsey, Cardinal and Lord Chancellor.
1520. Henry meets Charles V. at Canterbury, and Francis I. on the Field of the Cloth of Gold.
1527. Henry submits the lawfulness of his marriage to the Pope.
1529. Fall of Wolsey.
Reformation Parliament meets.
1535. Henry declared Supreme Head of the Church of England.
1539. Statute of Six Articles.
1540. Fall of Cromwell.

1547. EDWARD VI.

Somerset Protector.
1552. Fall of Somerset.

1553. MARY.

1554. Execution of Lady Jane Grey.
1556. Cranmer burnt.
1558. Loss of Calais.

1558. ELIZABETH.

1559. Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity.
Parker, Archbishop of Canterbury.
1568. Mary, Queen of Scots takes refuge in England.
1585. Leicester sent to the Netherlands.

A. D.
1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
1588. Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
1601. Insurrection and death of Essex.

VIII. THE STUARTS.

1603. JAMES I.

1605. Gunpowder Plot.
1613. The Princess Elizabeth married to the Elector of the Palatinate.
1616. Buckingham becomes chief favourite of James.
1618. The Thirty Years War begins.
1623. The Spanish match broken off.

1625. CHARLES I.

1626. Impeachment of Buckingham.
1628. The Petition of Right.
1633. Wentworth, Lord Deputy of Ireland.
Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury.
1637. Judgment given against John Hampden for refusing to pay ship-money.
1640. The Long Parliament meets.
1641. Execution of Strafford.
The Grand Remonstrance.
1642. Attempted arrest of the Five members.
Battle of Edgehill.
1643. First battle of Newbury.
Parliament makes an agreement with the Scots.
1644. Battle of Marston Moor.
Second battle of Newbury.
1645. The army of the Parliament remodelled.
The battle of Naseby.
1646. The king flies to the Scots.

A. D.

1647. The king given up to the Parliament.
The king seized by the army.
1648. Battle of Preston.
Pride's Purge.
1649. Execution of the King.

1649. THE COMMONWEALTH.

Sack of Drogheda.
1650. Battle of Dunbar.
1651. Battle of Worcester.
1652. War with the Dutch begun.
1653. Cromwell expels the Rump.
1658. Cromwell dies.
1659. Restoration of the Rump.
Monk marches from Scotland.
1660. Convention meets and invites Charles II. to occupy the throne.

1660. CHARLES II.

1661. The Corporation Act passed.
1665. The great plague of London.
1666. The great fire of London.
1667. Fall of Clarendon.
Beginning of the Government of the Cabal.
1668. The Triple Alliance.
1670. The Secret Treaty of Dover.
1672. The Declaration of Indulgence.
1673. The Test Act.
End of the Cabal Ministry.
1678. Treaty of Nimwegen.
Impeachment of Danby.
The Popish Plot.
1679. The Habeas Corpus Act.
1681. Parliament dissolved to prevent the passing of the Exclusion Bill.

A. D.

1685. JAMES II.

Insurrection of Monmouth.
1687. Declaration of Indulgence.
1688. Trial of the seven bishops.
William of Orange lands at Torbay.
James leaves the kingdom.
1689. The Declaration of Right.

1639. WILLIAM III. AND MARY.

War declared against France.
1690. Battle of the Boyne.
1692. Battles of La Hogue and Steinkirk.
1697. The ministry wholly Whig.
Peace of Ryswick.
1701. The Act of Settlement.
Death of James II.

1702. ANNE.

War declared against France.
1704. Harley and St. John join the ministry.
Battle of Blenheim.
Gibraltar taken.
1706. Battle of Ramillies.
1707. Union of England and Scotland.
1709. Battle of Malplaquet.
1710. Tory ministry with Harley and St. John at its head comes into power.
1711. Marlborough dismissed from all his offices.
1713. The Treaty of Utrecht.

IX. THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

1714. GEORGE I.

A Whig administration formed.
1715. Rebellions in favour of the Pretender.

A. D.

1720. The South Sea Company take over part of the National Debt.

1721. Walpole, Prime Minister.

1727. **GEORGE II.**

1733. Walpole's Excise Scheme.

1742. Resignation of Walpole.

1743. Battle of Dettingen.

1745. Battles of Fontenoy and Prestonpans.

1746. Battle of Culloden.

1748. Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1756. The Seven Years War begins.

1756. Pitt, Secretary of State, practically Prime Minister.

1759. Battle of Minden.
Capture of Quebec.

1760. **GEORGE III.**

Resignation of Pitt.

1763. The Peace of Paris.

1766. Repeal of the American Stamp Act.

1769. Wilkes kept out of the House of Commons.

1770. All American import duties except upon tea removed.

1774. Boston Port Bill.

1775. Battles of Lexington and Bunker's Hill.

1777. General Burgoyne surrenders at Saratoga.
The French send help to the Americans.

1779. Spain declares war against England.

1781. Surrender of Yorktown.

1782. Rodney defeats De Grasse in the West Indies.

1783. Peace of Versailles.

1784. William Pitt, Prime Minister.
India Bill passed.

A. D.

1788. Trial of Warren Hastings begins.
1789. Beginning of the French Revolution.
1793. War declared against France.
First Coalition formed.
1797. Battle of Camperdown.
1798. Battle of the Nile.
1799. Bonaparte Consul.
Second Coalition formed.
1800. Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland passed.
1801. Resignation of Pitt.
Battle of Copenhagen.
1802. Treaty of Amiens.
1803. War with France renewed.
1804. Pitt again Prime Minister.
Napoleon Emperor.
1805. Battle of Trafalgar.
1806. Death of Pitt.
1808. War in the Peninsular begins.
Battle of Vimiero.
1809. Battle of Corunna.
1811. Prince of Wales Regent.
Battle of Albuera.
1812. Storming of Badajos.
United States declare war against England.
1813. Battle of Vittoria.
1814. Battle of Toulouse.
Battle of Liepzig.
Napoleon abdicates and retires to Elba.
1815. Napoleon lands in France.
Battles of Ligny, Quatre Bras, and Waterloo.
Second Peace of Paris.
1819. Passing of the Six Acts.

A. D.

1820. GEORGE IV.

1823. Huskisson President of the Board of Trade.
1827. Battle of Naverino.
1828. The Duke of Wellington Prime Minister.
1829. Roman Catholic Relief Bill passed.

1830. WILLIAM IV.

Lord Grey Prime Minister.
1831. Reform Bill introduced.
1832. Reform Bill passed.
1834. Sir Robert Peel Prime Minister for the first time.

1837. VICTORIA.

1838. Chartist agitation begins.
1841. Free Trade agitation begins.
Peel's Second Ministry.
1846. Repeal of the Corn Laws.
1852. Napoleon III. Emperor of France.
1854. Crimean War begins.
Battles of Alma, Balaclava and Inkerman.
1855. Fall of Sebastopol.
1856. Peace of Paris.
1857. Indian Mutiny.
1858. India brought directly under the Crown.
1861. Death of the Prince Consort.
1866. Gladstone first leader of the House of Commons.
1867. Second Reform Bill passed.
1868. Disraeli, Prime Minister.
1869. Gladstone, First Prime Minister.
1870. The Elementary Education Act.
War declared by France against Prussia.
1872. Ballot Act passed.
1874. Disraeli a second time Prime Minister.

A. D.

1877. Russia makes War on Turkey.
1878. The Berlin Congress.
1880. Gladstone's Second Ministry.
1884. The Representation Act
1885. The Redistribution Act. These two reformed Parliament for a third time.

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