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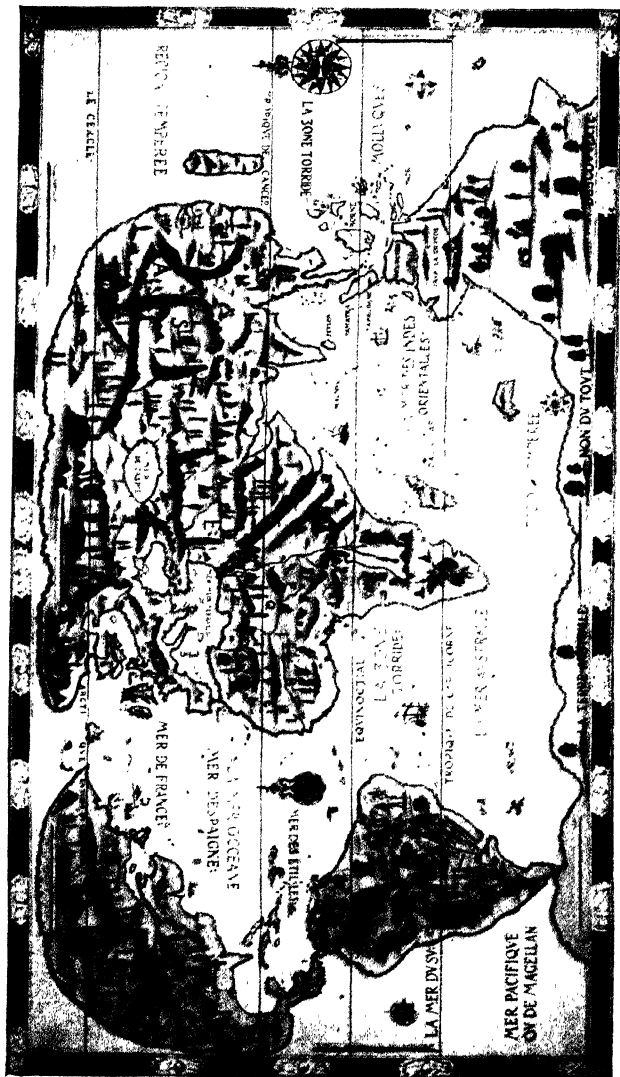
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MAP OF THE WORLD. MADE BY PIERRE DESCIELIERS. 1546.

This map gives a remarkably clear and interesting view of geographical knowledge in the first half of the sixteenth century. (It is to be noted that all objects on one side of the Equinoctial are reversed.)

# THE HOUSE OF HISTORY

## THE SECOND STOREY

EARLY MODERN HISTORY

BY

MURIEL MASEFIELD, M.A. (OXON.)



THOMAS NELSON AND SONS, Ltd.

LONDON, EDINBURGH, NEW YORK

TORONTO, AND PARIS



# THE HOUSE OF HISTORY



## THE BASEMENT

FROM THE EARLIEST MEN TO THE FALL OF ROME

## FIRST STOREY

THE MIDDLE AGES—EARLY DAYS TO 1485

## SECOND STOREY

EARLY MODERN HISTORY—FROM 1485 TO 1714

## THIRD STOREY

LATER MODERN HISTORY—FROM 1714 TO 1939

## FOURTH STOREY

MODERN SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL HISTORY TO THE  
PRESENT DAY

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# THE HOUSE OF HISTORY

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## THE SECOND STOREY—EARLY MODERN HISTORY

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### THE TUDOR AGE (1485-1603)

#### 1. The World before Tudor Times

**W**HEN the Wars of the Roses were over, the England which was to do such great things under the new line of Tudor kings was still a country of few people and rough living, despite the rich dress and feasting in the halls of the barons' castles.

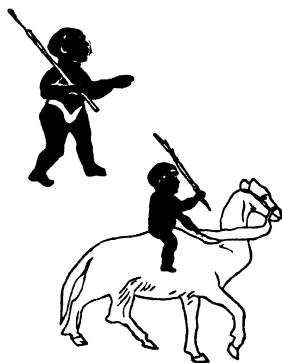
The number of people in England under the first Tudor king was probably between two and three millions, of whom eleven out of every twelve lived in villages, working on the land.\*

In 1485 the European peoples had not yet found out the size of the world. For long they had been held back from adventuring on unknown seas in their small, unsteady sailing ships, because they had no good compasses to show them which way they were

\* The population of England and Wales to-day is over 39 millions, and the greater part of the people live in towns.

going. Fear of unknown terrors held them back too. Yet the brave Portuguese sailors ventured forth to explore the South Atlantic Ocean at the bidding of their famous seafaring prince, Henry the Navigator, cousin of our Henry V.; but they believed that if they passed Cape Bojador (N.W. Africa) they might turn from white to black, and find themselves in seas of boiling water. After this cape of terror had been rounded it was another seven years before Prince

Henry's sailors ventured farther south, and longer still before they brought back cargoes of gold dust, ivory, and black slaves from Guinea.



Negro boys.

(From "*Cabot's Map*," 1544.)

In a map of the world drawn in 1485 there was no America—only parts of Greenland—no South Africa, no Australia, no New Zealand; but Vasco da Gama, Christopher Columbus, John and Sebastian Cabot, and Amerigo Vespucci (who gave his name to America) were already dreaming of new worlds awaiting the adventurous discoverer. Before the year 1500 some of them were to make their dreams come true.

Until the later part of the fifteenth century the chief traders on the sea were the sailors of Venice and Genoa, whose largest ships were long galleys with row upon row of great oars, pulled by slaves chained to benches on each side of the vessel. The Venetian and Genoese galleys were loaded at Alexandria and Constantinople with the treasures of the East—silks, gums, ivory,



King Henry VII. (1457-1509).  
(Painted in 1505 by an unknown Flemish artist.  
National Portrait Gallery.)

diamonds, and much-prized spices,\* such as pepper and ginger, which had been brought by camel caravans across the desert from the Persian Gulf. Laden with the precious wares of the caravans, Venetian galleys visited the southern ports of England, especially Southampton and the famous Cinque Ports (Dover,

\* In those days there was only salt meat all the winter, and very few vegetables, so spices were much used.

Romney, Rye, Sandwich, and Hastings) of those days, and prosperous Bristol in the west.

There were already signs of change when the first Tudor king, Henry VII., came to the throne in 1485.

During the long "Hundred Years' War" with France (1337-1453), the Cinque Ports had been harried by French raiders, and south coast towns were sometimes burned almost to ashes in a night.

Meanwhile trade with Flanders and the German cities on the Baltic had been growing up, as the cloth trade became more important in Yorkshire and busy Norfolk, which were well placed for shipping their goods to Antwerp, Bremen, Hamburg, Lubeck, Danzig, and the ports of Norway and Sweden. Early in the fifteenth century companies of Merchant Adventurers were formed to carry on the overseas trade in English manufactures, and received charters from various English kings granting them special trading rights.

Other traders sailed regularly to Venice and Lisbon, and so Englishmen began to learn the seamanship which later on made them able to take their part in discovering new worlds, and gave them the hardihood to battle with the great galleons of Spain for the mastery of the Southern Seas.

The name of Merchant Adventurers, which seemed such a natural one for fifteenth-century traders to take, shows that sound business sense alone was not enough to build up England's great trade in cloth—it needed as well the spirit of gallant daring.

## 2. England before Tudor Times

§ 1. The world which they knew was to enlarge startlingly for Tudor Englishmen, and at home, too, great changes were coming very soon, and the Wars of the Roses hastened them.

Before these wars the barons had great power, even over the king. Under the feudal system they owed military service to the king, and the men who lived on their land owed it to them. Thus the armies of England were formed by the barons, each with his own following of men wearing his colours, and as the king had no other army, he was powerless to resist if the greater number of the barons agreed to force their will upon him. The powerful Earl of Warwick was even known as the "King-Maker" during the Wars of the Roses.

In their stone castles, surrounded by deep moats which could not be crossed if the drawbridge was raised, barons who chose to rebel could stand long sieges, and in the castle hall there was always gathered a band of retainers (or serving-men) ready to form a bodyguard for their master, and fight if need be.

In days of peace the retainers feasted and drank at the lord's expense, and made his hall their home. A great log fire was always blazing, and the floor was strewn with fresh rushes from time to time; but benches and long tables were the chief furniture. It was a gay scene when the lord and his lady, with their guests and their children, came in to dinner at the table placed for them on a raised platform at one end of



the hall, which, with its lofty roof and stone-framed windows filled with coloured glass, was like the body of a church or a fine guildhall.

Both the lord and his lady would be dressed in gay colours, with elaborate hanging sleeves often lined with



Costume (lady and gentleman), time of Henry IV.

(*British Museum, Royal MS.. 15 D in.*)

another bright colour or edged with fur, and shoes with long points. During the reign of Richard II. the points of men's shoes were made so long that they had to be fastened to their knees with chains, sometimes made of silver and gold. In Henry IV.'s time a law (1403) was actually made to forbid all those who were

not of high rank to wear hanging sleeves ; and since these elaborate fashions of the barons were so costly the saying arose, "Because pride hath sleeves, the land is without alms."

Another law forbade men below the rank of nobleman to wear "bolsters and stuffing under their clothes." The ladies, however, continued to wear tall head-dresses of linen and richer stuffs, stretched over a framework which towered high above their heads.

The baron would sit at his table until dusk, drinking and with his knife chopping off pieces from the joints, pies, roast swan, pheasants, boar's head, and hares, which his squires and pages brought to him. Until the end of the sixteenth century only those who had travelled and learned the table-manners of Italy or France used forks.

After dusk torches and candles were lit, and perhaps a minstrel played and sang. At the end of the day the lord went to his bedchamber, but the retainers slept in the hall amongst the rushes, where the dogs were still nosing for the bones and waste food that had been swept off the tables on to the floor.

During the Wars of the Roses a great number of barons were killed, and others grew poorer, and their castles were no longer strongholds, because the new guns of the fifteenth century could make breaches in stone walls.

Henry VII. was thus able to keep the barons in better order, and show them that he would not have "over-mighty subjects" under his rule.

At the same time the old feudal order was fast giving place to the new system. Many of the peasants or villeins who held land from their lord on

condition that they worked for him so many days in the week, with extra "boon-work" at the seasons for ploughing and harvest, had been allowed to buy their freedom and pay a yearly rent to the lord of the manor instead of working on his land. Many villeins had been able to do this after the Black Death (1348) had made labourers so scarce that those who survived were able to earn money by working for others besides the lord. Consequently, by the end of the fifteenth century, the barons were no longer such powerful masters of the land and of the men on it, as they had been in the great days of feudalism.

While the barons spent their time and energy in fighting, and, when peace came, on hunting and the mimic battles of joust and tourney (in which they rode at one another in heavy armour, with blunted lances), the government of the country passed out of their hands.

§ 2. Henry VII. looked to the great churchmen—archbishops, cardinals, and bishops—to be his chief advisers in affairs of state. These men were learned and spoke with authority, and the great wealth and power of the Church accustomed them to the management of land and money, and the ruling of men. One such churchman, Cardinal Wolsey, who was also Archbishop of York, ruled England during the years when the second Tudor king, Henry VIII., was too young and too fond of sport, music, and learning, to trouble himself with all the cares of government.

Again, the abbots and priors at the head of the big monasteries were more like princes or nobles with great estates than priests or monks. Beautiful abbeys

and priories were to be found all over England, and they provided guest-houses for travellers, rich and poor, bread and broken meat for the starving, hospitals for the sick, and schools for the children. At that time there were no other hospitals, and no workhouses.

In the cloisters where the monks sat or walked, looking out between the slender stone pillars on to quiet, grassy courts, some learning and art was kept alive. Here the monks read Latin manuscripts, and wrote and painted the beautiful old books now found in our museums, with their capital letters in gold or colours, and the pictures of men and angels, flowers, birds and beasts, bordering the pages.

By Henry VII.'s time many monks were no longer so devoted to the service of God as those earlier Brothers who had longed to build abbeys and spend their time in praise and prayer, and in the care of the sick and poor. There were still good monks, but



A cloister corner.

(From the etching by Charles Meryon.)

many sought the life of the monastery only because it was safe and comfortable and free from care.

§ 3. Already the great days of monk and friar were past. The Reformation was at hand, when they would be driven out into the world, their lands pass to king and nobles, and many of their beautiful buildings fall into decay.

First was to come the Renaissance, or New Birth of Learning, spreading from Italy, where some forgotten books of the great Greek teachers had been brought before and after the fall of Constantinople (1453).

England was ready to welcome the New Learning, and there was now a wonderful new power in the land, by which ideas were to be spread more rapidly and widely than ever before. This was the art of printing.

In 1476 Caxton set up the first printing-press in England. The progress was slow; Caxton bound some of his first books between boards almost as thick as panels for a door, and fastened on the leather covers with brass-headed nails. Before he died he had printed eighty books.

Men's minds had also been stirred earlier still by the Wycliffe translation of the Bible into English (completed about 1384). Before this the Latin Bible had been known to few except priests and monks, and as the services were in Latin too, the people were not accustomed to think for themselves in matters of religion. Instead they showed their religious feeling more by their respect for relics of dead saints, and pilgrimages to their tombs.

The Church thought it dangerous to allow untaught people to think for themselves, and forbade the use,

without special permission, of the English Bible of Wycliffe, but his followers—known as Lollards—used to meet secretly for Bible reading and worship. Some of these Lollards were burned to death for teaching doctrines forbidden by the Church.

Wycliffe has been called the “Morning Star of the Reformation.” Both his Bible and Caxton’s printing-press helped to prepare the way for the changes which made the time of the Tudor kings and queens one of the greatest periods in English history.

### 3. The Great Discoverers

#### *Vasco da Gama and Christopher Columbus*

§ 1. The year after Henry VII.’s accession, in 1486, a great age of discovery began, for in that year the Portuguese sailor Diaz sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, and so showed that it was possible to reach a sea beyond Africa. His two gallant little ships were battered by wind and waves, and when he came home he told the King of Portugal that the Cape ought to be called “the Cape of Storms.” The king did not like this name, and he thought the voyage of Diaz had given men hope of finding a new way to India and the East, so he said it must be called the Cape of Good Hope.

The Portuguese were now eager to find this new way to the East, so that they could bring home Indian spices and silks in their own ships, instead of the old way of trading, by which the Eastern merchants sent their goods up rivers and over deserts to the Mediter-

anean Sea, where the galleys of Venice took them on board.

In 1497, a Portuguese of a noble family, named Vasco da Gama, set out with three strong ships to sail to India. For four months they sailed without a sight of land, and when they were rounding the Cape the stormy seas frightened the sailors so much that they all cried, "Turn back! turn back!" Vasco da Gama answered sternly that the next men who spoke those words should be thrown into the sea.

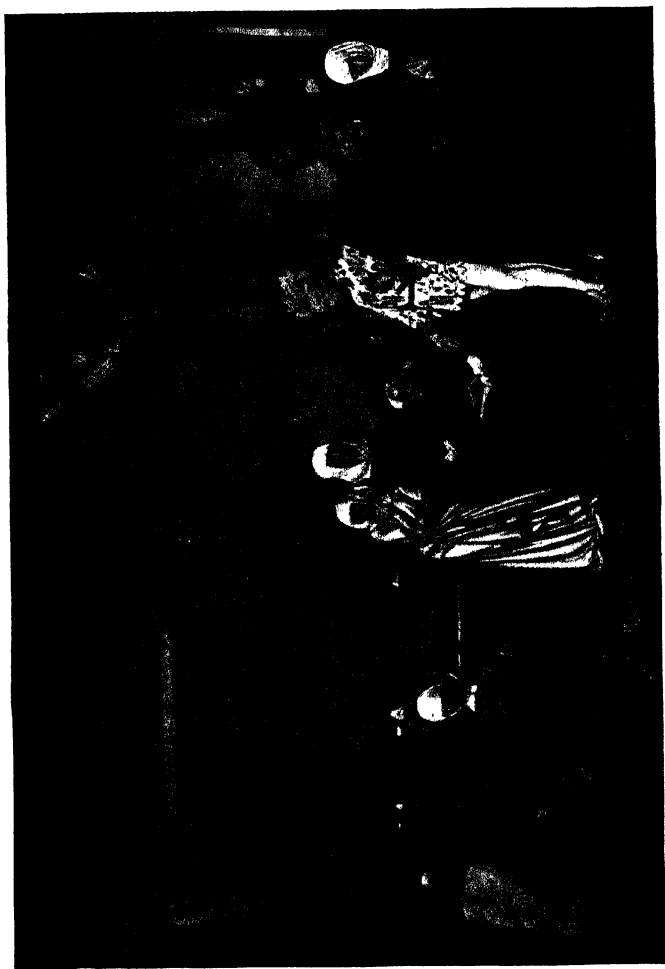


Vasco da Gama.  
(From a contemporary  
portrait.)

At last they reached calm water beyond the Cape, and on Christmas Day were sailing up the east coast of Africa, which they named Natal, because they saw it on the natal day (or birthday) of Christ.

From Africa they boldly set sail for the East once more, and after nearly a year of tossing on the sea, they reached Calicut on the west coast of India. Here they made friends with an Indian king, and loaded their ships with cloves, cinnamon, ginger, and mace, which were all of great use in the cooking of the salt meat and other dishes of that time. They reached Lisbon again after a voyage of two years and eight months, and were welcomed as heroes.

The Portuguese followed up this voyage by capturing Goa (a city south of the Bombay of to-day)



READING THE ENGLISH BIBLE—GEORGE CLAUSEN, R.A.

(From the paintings in St. Stephen's Hall, Palace of Westminster.)

[The elderly scholar reads to a group, including all classes, ages, and occupations—a ploughman with his wife and child, a young student, a boyish squire, two women of rank, and others of more rustic breed. The reality of the danger incurred by these people is shown by the fact that at this time many people were burned for heresy, and



and making it the centre of such a rich trade that it was known as Golden Goa. They also sailed to the town of Ormuz on the Persian Gulf, from which the treasures of the East started on their journey to the Mediterranean Sea, and which was called "the richest jewel set in the ring of the world." Here a Portuguese fortress was built, and the jewels, silks, and spices which used to go to Venice were now shipped to Portugal.

§ 2. While the eastern course round the Cape (in search of India) was still considered the high road of adventure, one of the world's greatest discoverers was dreaming of finding yet another way from Portugal to the East by the startling course of sailing west! The world is said to be round, he explained to the King of Portugal, and so if ships sail west they are bound to reach the Far East in time.

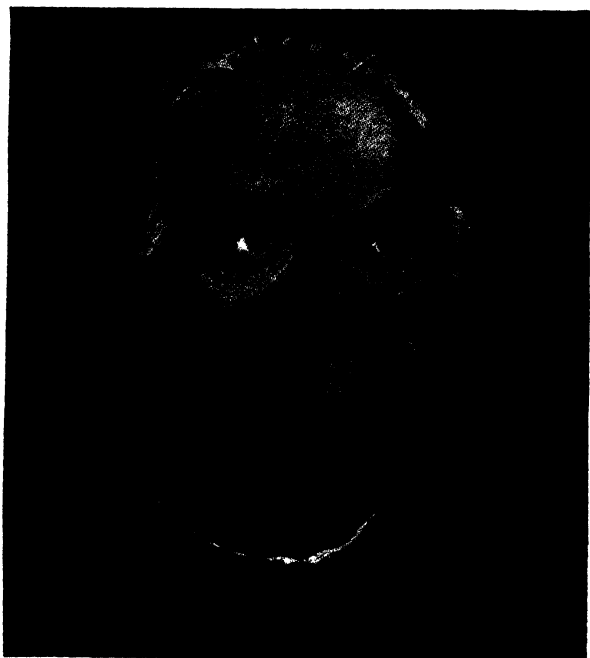
Adventurous though the Portuguese had been, since the days of their famous Prince Henry the Navigator, they would not fit out ships for so mad a plan as this. So Christopher Columbus and his little son Diego sadly left Portugal and made their way to Spain.

Footsore and hungry, Columbus and his boy were given food and shelter by Spanish monks, who listened eagerly to the wonderful plan, and bade Columbus leave Diego with them and go to beg for ships from the King of Spain.

King Ferdinand at first refused; but at last Queen Isabella persuaded him to give Columbus the ships which he required.

So in 1492 Columbus started on his great voyage. It was hard work to keep the Spanish sailors from

mutiny on the long voyage with no sight of land, but when at last they reached an island it was so beautiful, with green plants and woods, bright flowers and gaily



The best portrait of Columbus.

*(From the original painting, by an unknown artist, in the Naval Museum at Madrid.)*

coloured parrots, that they felt as if they had found fairyland. Columbus, in his joy, kneeled on the new earth and kissed it before he declared Ferdinand and Isabella king and queen of the island.

On this voyage the Bahama Islands, Cuba, and

others were discovered, but Columbus thought that China lay just beyond them; he never dreamed of a whole continent and another ocean lying between them and Asia, and so he called the islands the Indies.

Columbus had a splendid welcome when he returned to Spain, and presented to the king and queen six natives decked in gold ornaments, and forty bright parrots, and many rare plants and skins of animals.

He sailed west again and discovered more islands, and saw the coast of South America; but still he never dreamed that here was a new continent.

The end of his life was sad. He roused the complaints of the little Spanish colony he had founded and governed on the island of Hayti, and a new governor, who was sent out from Spain, ordered him to be imprisoned in chains. When it was decided that he should be sent home, the captain of the ship tried to take off his chains, but Columbus said he would wear them until the king and queen ordered them to be taken off, and then he would keep them to show as the reward of his services to Spain.

Columbus made one more attempt to reach India by the west, but he failed, and at last he died a poor man, saying sadly, "After twenty years of toil and peril I do not own a roof in Spain."

#### 4. More Great Discoverers

*Cabot, Amerigo Vespucci, Balboa, and Magellan*

§ 1. In the same year that Vasco da Gama set sail for the Cape of Good Hope and India (1497), a small

ship manned by eighteen sailors started out from Bristol on a bold attempt to cross the Atlantic. It was under the command of John Cabot, an Italian sailor, and he succeeded in reaching the American coast in the neighbourhood of Newfoundland or Nova Scotia.

Cabot and his son Sebastian also visited Labrador and other parts of the coast of North America, but as these discoveries all lay in the snow-bound North they did not lead to the founding of colonies, or open up new trade for the English. Like Columbus, Cabot thought that he had found a part of China, of which Marco Polo had brought back such wonderful tales to Italy just two hundred years before.

It was another Italian, a native of the city of Florence (which has such a proud record in history), who discovered that America was a separate continent and not part of Asia. He was Amerigo Vespucci, and the new continent was called America after him.

Vespucci started from Spain, and he made his discovery by sailing down the coast of South America



*(From the sculpture by Grassini in the Uffizi Gallery, Florence.)*

until he was south of the equator. Hitherto men had believed that there was no land beyond the equator on that side of the Atlantic, and so now they agreed that Vespucci had found a New World.

The first South American town that Vespucci saw was built on big tree-trunks with bridges from one to the other, and when he saw it rising out of the water, as Venice does, he called it Little Venice, and that part of the continent has kept the name which he gave it—Venezuela—to this day.

§ 2. Still men had no idea what lay beyond America, and no one had yet sailed all round the world.

The first white man who saw the great ocean which lay beyond America was a Spaniard named Balboa. He longed to go and settle in the colony which Columbus had founded at Hayti, but because he was in debt he was forbidden by law to leave Spain. So he hid in a large cask which was carried with others on board a west-bound ship, and when he came out of his hiding-place he persuaded the captain to forgive him.

The ship was wrecked on the rocks off Panama, but most of the party reached the shore, and Balboa soon made himself their leader. They made friends with the native Indians \* and found that they had gold to offer them, and soon they heard of a rich land where men drank out of gold cups, on the shores of another great sea.

Balboa determined to find this sea, and after a long, adventurous journey he climbed the last mountain peak in the isthmus of Darien between east and west,

\* The natives of America were called Indians because the first discoverers thought they had reached land near to India.

and saw the great ocean which lay beyond America. As soon as he reached the shore he waded waist-deep into the sea, waving his sword, and claimed it for the King of Spain.

§ 3. Now there was still more eagerness to find the way to India from America, and in 1519 yet another Portuguese explorer, Magellan, started out on this great adventure.

Once again the King of Portugal refused to help the venture, and it was the King of Spain who gave Magellan five ships. They were old ships, not really fit to make the first voyage round the world, but Magellan sailed with a stout heart nevertheless, and in his crew there was one Englishman.

When Magellan's little fleet reached South America it sailed down the coast, looking eagerly for some way through to the ocean on the west. The crews suffered from cold, and were afraid of venturing farther in such old ships ; before long Magellan had to quell a mutiny, and put one of the captains on shore—to die, or live as best he could.

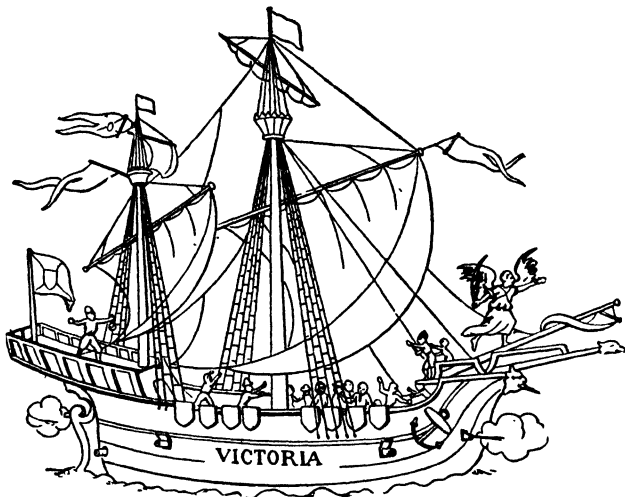


Ferdinand Magellan, the first circumnavigator of the world.

(After the engraving by Selma in Navarrete's  
"Colección de los Viages.")

At last they entered the straits between South America and the large island of Tierra del Fuego, which have been known as Magellan Straits ever since.

They battled their way through these straits for five weeks, in constant danger from the swift currents



The first ship that sailed round the world : Magellan's *Victoria*.

(From L. Hulsius's "Collection of Voyages," 1602.)

and the number of small islands amongst which it was hard to steer. When at last they came out into the great open sea, its waters seemed so quiet and peaceful after what they had gone through that Magellan named it the Pacific Ocean.

Only three of the ships made ready to cross the Pacific. Magellan said he must cross even if the crew had to eat the leather on the rigging before they

reached land again. None of them dreamed that it was such a mighty ocean, they expected to reach Asia in a few weeks at most ; but they sailed on and on for three and a half months, and were so short of food that they had to eat the skins which had been wound round the ships' ropes for protection.

The first land they reached was an island, and they came next to the group of islands later known as the Philippines, after King Philip of Spain. Now they found natives offering them spices, and so Magellan guessed that they were near the well-known spice islands of the East Indies, and his excitement was great.

Unhappily Magellan himself did not live to complete the voyage round the world. He spent some time amongst the islands, and tried to turn the natives into Christians. He made one native king set up a cross and a crown of thorns on the highest peak in his island for his subjects to worship. In another island he summoned the king to pay a tribute to Spain ; but this king resisted him, and in the fight that followed Magellan was killed.

Only one of the five ships, named the *Victoria*, struggled back to Spain ; but her crew had a wonderful tale to tell, for they were the first men who had sailed right round the world.

Spain's conquests in the New World were not yet finished. Before the middle of the sixteenth century the famous Spanish adventurers Cortes and Pizarro had one of them conquered Mexico and the other Peru, and found stores of gold, silver, and pearls which set all the nations of Europe on fire with eagerness to seek for treasure in the Southern Seas, and on



the northern coast of South America, which came to be known as the Spanish Main.

## 5. The Renaissance, or Re-birth of Learning

*Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Copernicus,  
Galileo*

§ 1. In 1453 the Turks stormed, with their great guns, the wonderful old city of Constantinople, and the scholars who had made it a refuge for the literature and teaching of ancient Greece and Rome fled to Italy, carrying with them some of their precious manuscripts.

Some found shelter in Florence, a city already proud of its history in literature and art. The poet Dante was a native of Florence, and there in the midst of fierce fighting between rival families and parties, "Giotto, tranquil and silent . . . worked out the plans for his church with pencils and compasses. . . . And Fra Angelico, on his knees in his cell, painted those heavenly angels who got him his name."

Now beside Giotto's beautiful tower the keen-spirited citizens of Florence drank in the poetry of Homer and the great Greek plays, while the searching thought of the old Greek thinkers, Plato and Aristotle, set them discussing what they meant by justice and goodness, and what was the best kind of government.

The great revival of learning which was then spreading through Europe came to be known as the Renaissance, from the Latin for a *New Birth*.\*

\* There had been Greek scholars in Italy earlier in the century, but the Greek language was not a general study before 1453. The *Renaissance* also included a revival in art and science.

Italian noblemen whose highest hope had been to be feared and honoured for their power, wealth, and bravery, now longed to be known as scholars, or as the patrons who protected and supported men of genius in learning and art. Great ladies, too, were no longer content to outshine others in rich dress and jewellery; they also vied with one another in the study of Greek and Latin and in writing verse and collecting manuscripts and pictures.

Art and science woke to new life, as well as learning and philosophy.

§ 2. One wonderful man of this time of enthusiasm for all knowledge taught himself to be painter, musician, scientist, and engineer. This was Leonardo da Vinci, whose few beautiful pictures are still amongst the treasures of Europe; one of them, *The Virgin of the Rocks*, may be seen in London, in the National Gallery. Another, of *The Last Supper*, painted on a monastery wall, still draws many visitors to Milan, and in Paris there is his portrait of a lady, *Mona Lisa*, whose eyes seem to follow her many present-day admirers with a smile that they cannot easily forget.

Leonardo da Vinci had great dreams of the future of science and he made a vast flying-machine, but he could never get it to rise from the ground.



Leonardo da Vinci.



Michael Angelo.

amongst the boys sent there, and so delighted the "Magnifico" with his progress that he made him one of his own household.

Later Michael Angelo was summoned to Rome by the Pope and painted the ceiling of his private chapel. He had many an argument with the fiery old soldier-Pope, Julius II., who even threatened to throw the proud artist down from the high scaffolding on which he had to work.

Both Florence and Rome were enriched by the paint-

§ 3. Another famous painter, sculptor, and builder of this flowering time of art was Michael Angelo, a son of a noble family of Florence. It is a proof of the reverence which was then paid to art that he was allowed to go to train at an artist's workshop at the age of fourteen.

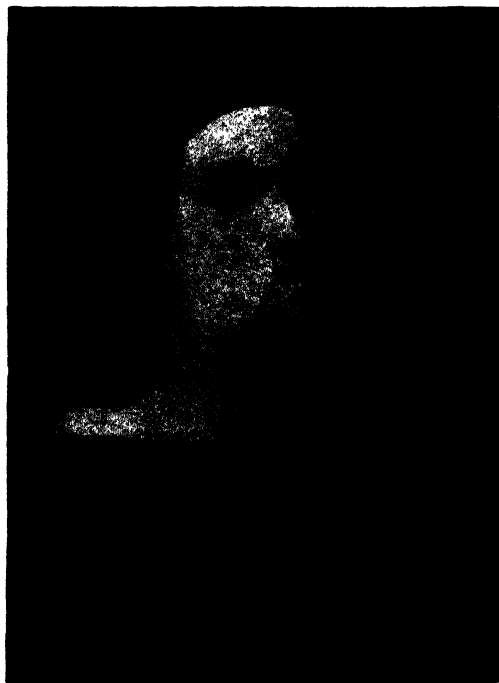
At this time Lorenzo the Magnificent ruled Florence, and he set apart a place in his garden where young artists could learn sculpture, and engaged a teacher for them. Michael Angelo was



Nicolaus Copernicus  
(1473-1543).

(From an engraving after the painting in the possession of the Royal Society. See page 32.)

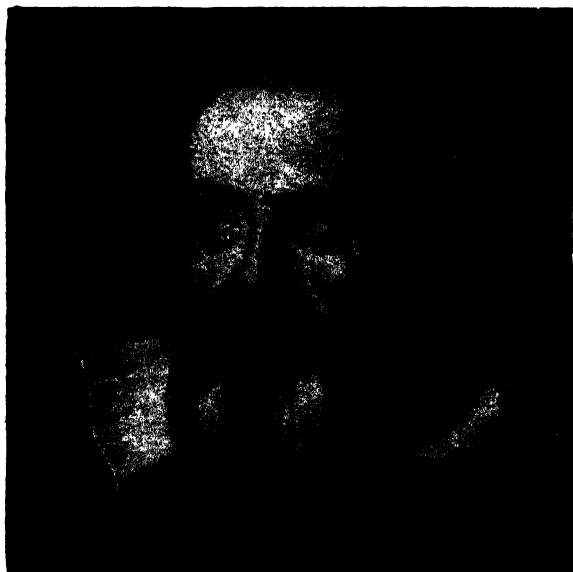
ings and statues of Michael Angelo, which are still their pride to-day. He also helped the builder Bramante to complete the dome of the vast Church of St. Peter at Rome.



Raphael's portrait of himself.

Only a little younger than Michael Angelo was Raphael, another Italian painter whose soft and gracious pictures of the Virgin and Child are familiar wherever the history of art is known.

§ 4. In the midst of all this activity in learning and art, science was not neglected, and great advances were made through the discoveries of Copernicus, a studious Polish monk, who was the first scientist to declare that the earth and other planets revolve round the sun.



Galileo.

*(From the painting by Susterman in the Uffizi Gallery, Florence.)*

Hitherto men had taken it for granted that the earth stood still in the centre of the universe and that the sun, moon, and stars travelled round it. Copernicus discovered that an old Greek writer had believed, as he himself did, that the earth moved, and he set himself to prove this fact by scientific methods.

The idea shocked and even enraged many people, and attempts were made to destroy the book which Copernicus had written while it was being printed at Nuremberg, and it is said to have been guarded by men with loaded guns. He just lived to take the first printed copy of it into his hands before he died (1543).

After Copernicus came Galileo, with his amazing development of the telescope, which seemed like a magic power suddenly placed in the hands of sailors and astronomers.

In fact, it seemed to men who lived through the Renaissance and the age of discovery that wonders would never cease. Probably it is true that this period saw more advance in man's knowledge than any other until the opening of the twentieth century, when the motor-car, the submarine, the telephone, the aeroplane, and wireless broadcasting all became commonly known and used within twenty-five years.

### 6. The New Learning and the Church

#### *Erasmus, Colet, and More*

The New Learning not only changed manners and habits in the homes of kings, nobles, statesmen, and other men throughout Western Europe. It also set them to discuss things that they had not questioned before, especially the great power of the Church, which controlled the daily lives of the people more closely than any king.

The Church was, indeed, by far the greatest power during the Middle Ages—those thousand years when all were children of the one great Church, with the Pope

at its head, and when the wonderful cathedrals and abbeys, that are still the pride of nations, were built.

Now a change was to come. During the revival of learning, a great scholar collected together the writings of St. Paul and published (1516) a complete edition of the New Testament in Greek, as it had been originally written. By his writings he helped to bring about such a change of spirit towards religion that in the Reformation that followed many of the ideas and habits of the Middle Ages were swept away altogether, and there seemed to be a new world as well as a new Church. This scholar, who was said to have "laid the egg" from which the Reformation burst out was a Dutchman named Erasmus.

Erasmus grew up with a bitter feeling against monasteries, because he had been made a monk, very unwillingly, at the age of sixteen, when he had lost father, mother, and money, and his friends saw no other way of providing for him.

At first the prior allowed him to spend his time in the library, as he was known to be a promising scholar, but later on all books were taken from him, in order to train him to obedience and submission. He was a delicate boy and could not bear the fast days without being ill, and even the smell of the salt fish eaten in Lent made him sick; he said he could not "stuff himself" to last two days, as some monks did. All the monks were aroused from their sleep at midnight for the first morning prayer in the chapel, and often Erasmus could not go to sleep again afterwards as the others did.

At last Erasmus was set free by a bishop, who had heard of his knowledge and talents, and this bishop obtained the Pope's permission to take him from the



DESIDERIUS ERASMUS (c. 1466–1536).

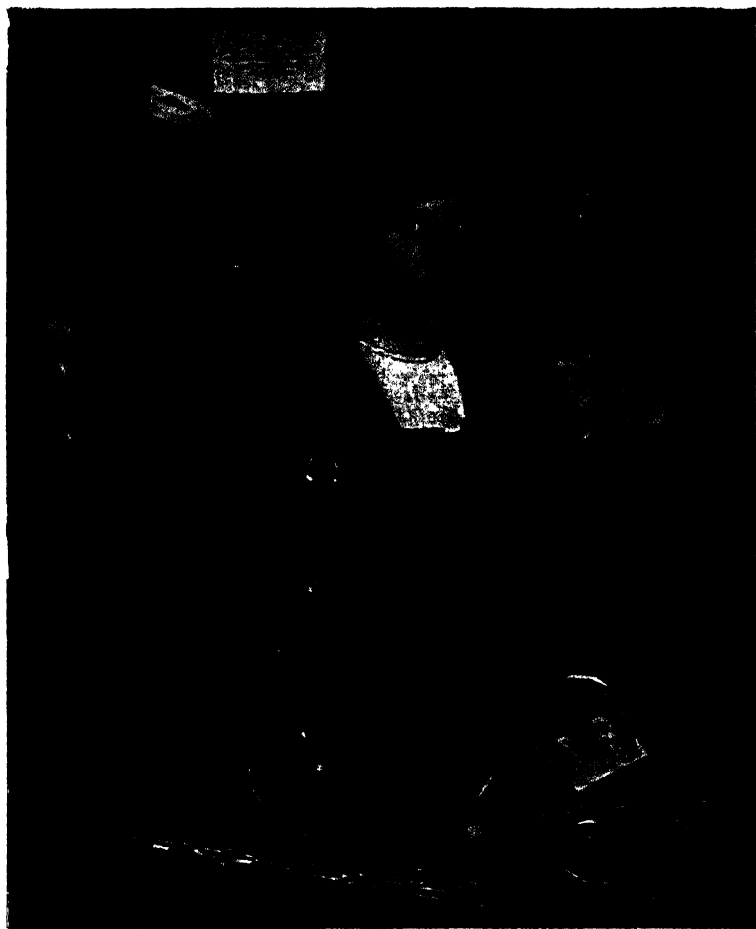
(From an engraving by Hieronimus Cook [1510–70] of the woodcut by Albrecht Dürer.)



monastery to be his secretary. Erasmus never went back, although years later, when he was the most famous scholar in Europe, the prior tried to re-claim him. He then appealed to the Pope, who again gave him leave to live outside the monastery. The bishop who had befriended him allowed Erasmus to study at the University of Paris, and he worked eagerly at his studies, and soon made a name for himself as scholar and teacher. Amongst his admirers was the English lord, Mountjoy, through whom he visited England, and was presented to the young Prince Henry (later Henry VIII.), then nine years old. Erasmus much admired the prince's knowledge and the grave way in which he received him, with the two little princesses, his sisters, seated on either side of him.

At Oxford Erasmus was delighted to find men who were as eager in study as himself; the students, he said, "rush to Greek letters; they endure watching, fasting, toil, and hunger in pursuit of them." When he listened to Colet, who had studied in Italy, he felt as if Plato were speaking; and of Thomas More, one of the finest of the leaders of the New Learning in England, he said that "Nature never formed a sweeter and happier disposition."

These men's ideas helped to make a new England. Colet became Dean of St. Paul's, London, and founded the famous school of St. Paul's. It was Erasmus who suggested that beneath the picture of the child Christ which had been placed over the headmaster's chair, there should be written the words: "Hear ye Him." Colet asked the scholars of St. Paul's to pray for him: "For me which prayeth for



THE MERCHANT OF THE STEELYARD—HANS HOLBEIN.

[This portrait of George Gisze, a merchant of the period, reminds us of the great and increasing trade which was being done in London while princes and those associated with them were chiefly concerned in matters of high policy. Gisze was one of the Hanse merchants (see *The House of History—The First Storey*, page 164), whose London headquarters, known as the Steelyard, were situated on the banks of the Thames.]

you to God.” Churchmen of the old way of thought were shocked by Colet’s preaching from St. Paul’s Epistles, and afterwards accused him to young Henry VIII. of dangerous teaching, but Henry said : “ Let each man choose his own doctor. Dean Colet shall be mine.”



The monument to John Colet at the new St. Paul's School in London.

The scholar Erasmus visited some English monasteries and the shrine of St. Thomas Becket, where he noted the rich decorations : “ The meanest part was gold, every part glistened, shone, and sparkled with rare and very large jewels, some of them exceeding the size of a goose’s egg. . . . The chief of them kings had sent as offerings.” Erasmus and his friends

thought that a saint who had been so good to the poor in his lifetime would have been better pleased if some of this wealth had been spent on the sick and needy.

Such learned men as Erasmus and Colet and Thomas More longed to see reforms, although they



William Tyndale.

had no wish to break away from the great Catholic Church. Erasmus always acknowledged the Pope's authority, and More, as will be seen, went to his death rather than admit that a king could be head of the Church instead of the Pope. Nevertheless they were eager to see evils and abuses swept away, and the priests devoting themselves to teaching the people.

As Erasmus worked at translating the Gospels

and Epistles, he was filled with the hope that this true New Testament would be translated again into all languages. "I long for the day," he wrote, "when the husbandman shall sing portions of them to himself as he follows the plough, when the weaver shall hum them to the tune of his shuttle, when the traveller shall while away with their stories the weariness of his journey."

Erasmus lived to see part of this longing fulfilled. From his Greek Testament the monk Luther made a German translation, and the Englishman Tyndale an English one, the forerunner of the Bible of 1611, which has been familiar to English people for more than three hundred years.

Erasmus, however, was shocked and unhappy when the vigorous Luther defied the Pope and brought about the Reformation by creating a new Protestant Church. When the saying reached Erasmus that he himself had "laid the egg" of the Reformation, he said, both sadly and humorously, that he had laid a hen's egg, but that Luther had hatched from it a "fighting cock"!

## 7. A Leader of the Reformation

### *Martin Luther*

§ 1. Martin Luther, whose demonstrations against the actions of the Pope Leo X. brought about the Reformation and the rise of a Protestant Church, was the son of a German peasant. He had a very hard upbringing. Luther's parents had to struggle for

their living, and his mother collected wood for their fire in the forest and brought home heavy loads of it on her back. They were determined that their children should be honest and careful like themselves, and Martin Luther was once beaten till he bled for taking one nut from his mother's store.

Hard work and good sense helped Luther's father to improve his position in the world, and the boy was sent to school in a town.

In those days poor scholars who could not pay for their schooling were given leave to beg in certain towns. The boy Luther, who had a sweet voice, used to sing in the streets, and the townspeople gave him pieces of money as they passed by, and at last one rich citizen's wife offered him free lodging in her household. Later on, when his father was more prosperous, Martin Luther went to a university, where he won high honours.

His father now hoped that he would become a lawyer and make his fortune, but Martin Luther had determined to be a monk.

The monastery which Luther entered was a far better one than that which poor Erasmus had joined. The monks were expected to lead strict and earnest lives, and to make a close study of the Bible and religious writings of learned men. For the first year, however, Luther, as "Brother Augustine," had to sweep and scrub, and beg for the monastery in the streets. All his spare time was spent in examining himself to discover his sins, and making confessions of them and gladly undergoing punishment.

Fortunately he at last met with learned monks and priests who taught him to think more of the love of

God and not so much of His wrath. After some years Luther himself became a great religious teacher and preacher, and lectured to students at Wittenberg University. He still kept to the strict rules of the monastery, and when his work prevented his saying all the daily prayers he used to shut himself into his cell on Sundays and say all those he had missed during the week.

Luther learned Greek, and read the New Testament as Erasmus gave it to the world, and his teaching began to differ from that of the older churchmen.

In the year 1516 his indignation was aroused by the sale of "Indulgences." \* A friar was sent to sell indulgences in Germany, and the custom was that when he was expected in any town all the bells were set ringing, and the mayor, citizens, and even the school children went out in a procession to meet him. He came with a great red cross, on which were the arms of the Pope, carried before him, and led the people to a church, where the cross and a chest containing the indulgences were placed before the altar. Then the friar preached a sermon, urging the people to buy the indulgences.

On this occasion the friar sent to Germany was so anxious to raise money that he spoke very little of the repentance that the Church expected to be shown before an indulgence was granted. Luther was disgusted by his methods, and on the eve of All Saints' Day (1517) he summoned the teachers and students

\* *i.e.* the granting of a remission of punishment due for sin committed, to such as, having confessed their guilt, were truly sorry for what they had done, and had fulfilled certain conditions for obtaining an indulgence.

of Wittenberg to a discussion—by the customary manner of nailing to the church door an essay (or written sermon) on the subjects he wanted them to discuss. Luther's famous summons consisted of a number of objections to the sale of indulgences.

§ 2. Luther's protest raised a storm of excitement all through Western Europe. The Pope at last published a Bull (document sealed with the Pope's *bulle*, the Latin for " seal ") in which he accused Luther of false teaching, and ordered him to deny within sixty days many things which he had taught. Amongst these was Luther's declaration that it was against the will of God to burn heretics.

If Luther refused to obey he was to be excommunicated, which meant that he and all governments or people who gave him shelter would be punished by not being allowed to enter any church or receive the sacraments or Christian burial, or any other Church privileges.

It was now that Luther summoned all the teachers and students of Wittenberg University to a place outside the town where a bonfire had been prepared, and before their eyes he threw the Pope's Bull into the flames.

Europe seemed to hold its breath in dismay, indignation, or the thrill of pride in such courage.

The Pope demanded that the Emperor Charles V., who was then head of the German states, should sentence Luther to punishment. Accordingly, Luther was summoned to a great trial at Worms, in which the Emperor promised that he should speak in his own defence. Many of his friends wished him to fly



from the country instead of going to Worms, but he said, "I will go, though every tile in the city were a devil."

At Worms Luther spoke of his faith before the greatest sovereign of the times, and a brilliant gathering of princes, bishops, priests, monks, and nobles from every part of Germany. One of the knights touched



Boxwood medallion portrait of Charles, King of Spain (1516-56): afterwards the Emperor Charles V. (1519-58).

Luther as he passed to his place and whispered in his ear, "Pluck up thy spirit, little monk. Some of us here have seen warm work in our time, but never knight in this country more needs a stout heart than thou needest it now. If thou hast faith, little monk, go on; in the name of God, forward!"

Luther was condemned, and the emperor ordered that he should be an outlaw, and no man in the empire should shelter him or help him in any way whatever. Luther's last words at Worms were: "Here stand I. I cannot act otherwise. So help me, God!"

After this great scene Luther was in hiding for a year, during which time he translated the New Testament of Erasmus into German. His great work had been done. In after years he grieved many people by attacks on the Church of Rome which were often

coarse and shocking. He had, however, brought freedom of thought into the Church.

The Northern States of Germany followed his teaching. When the emperor ordered them to restore the services of the Roman Church, their princes drew up a "protest," and in time these states formed a "Protestant" Church, quite apart from the Pope and the old Church governed by the Pope.

Unfortunately men were not yet ready to follow that part of Luther's teaching in which he declared that burning heretics was against the will of God, and in the sixteenth century there were burnings of both Protestants and Catholics in more than one country. The Reformation indeed was followed by persecutions and wars. There was war between North and South Germany—until it was agreed that each prince should settle the religion of his own state. In the next century the terrible Thirty Years' War (1618-48) raged in central Europe between Protestants and Catholics, but neither Church could suppress the other.

## 8. A Soldier Saint

### *Ignatius Loyola*

§ 1. The story of the Protestant Reformation, which began with Luther and which led to the foundation of new Churches, is only one part of the history of religion in the sixteenth century.

At the same time saints and heroes arose in the old Church too; their work brought new life into religion in the Catholic countries of Europe, and encouraged missionaries to set out on long and danger-

ous journeys to spread Christianity in new lands. Amongst these heroes of religion in the sixteenth century is the Spanish soldier-saint Ignatius Loyola, who founded the Society of Jesus. His followers, who became known as Jesuits, were soon famed for



Ignatius Loyola.

their courage and patience in teaching and preaching in every country. At the risk of their lives some came to England in Elizabeth's reign,\* to minister to English Roman Catholics.

Ignatius Loyola was born in a fine old castle in Spain about the same year that Christopher Columbus†

\* See Chapter 17.

† See Chapter 3.

set sail for America. He was brought up to be a soldier and a courtier, and he spent some years in the palace of King Ferdinand of Spain, where he learned to ride a horse and use a sword with great skill ; to take a winning part in tournaments ; to dress splendidly and to sing love songs to a guitar. When his training in arms was complete, he left the palace for the active life of a soldier.

Loyola soon became a fine commander of men, bold and proud, and able to hold his soldiers back when they had stormed a town and were rushing on in wild excitement to sack a church or a convent.

A turning-point came in Loyola's life when he had to defend the poorly protected old town of Pamplona against a French force, in 1521. It was soon clear that even the bravest soldiers could not hold Pamplona long ; but when Loyola had a parley with the French commander, the terms offered to him for surrender were so humiliating that he determined to fight on to the end. When the French at last stormed Pamplona, Loyola was found lying badly wounded in both legs and taken prisoner.

His French conquerors gave their brave enemy what care they could and set him free in a short time ; but when he reached his own castle, he found that one of his legs had been so badly set that he would be deformed. Twice over he went through the agony of having the leg broken again, in order to be set afresh—there was no chloroform in those days—because he was so much afraid of being unfitted for the life he loved, that of a soldier in war and a smart young courtier in time of peace.

Whilst he was lying for week after week, weary

with pain and fever, he asked for a book to read. The only books in the castle were a Life of Christ by a monk and a volume of stories of saints. As Loyola read these books and thought about them for long hours, his whole mind was changed. He longed to prove himself as brave in the cause of God as he had done in the wars of his country, and he wanted to win hard battles over his own pride and desires, such as these saints had won.

When Loyola was able to leave his castle he did not return to the army or the court ; instead he started out on a mule to make a pilgrimage to the mountain shrine of Our Lady at Montserrat. When he arrived at the mountain monastery, he gave his fine clothes to a beggar and his mule to the monks, and prepared to start life afresh.

A hard time lay before him. He spent long hours grieving over his sins and praying ; he ate nothing but black bread and water once a day ; he slept on the bare floor with a stone for a pillow, and wore prickly haircloth next his skin. He learned to keep down his pride, even when he was jeered at by boys as a strange figure dressed in unshapely sacks. He forced himself to give loving care to the sick and dirty beggars who swarmed round the monastery.

When this part of Loyola's training was over, he spent more weary years learning Latin and the other subjects priests had to study, although sitting over books for long hours was very trying to one who had so much loved an active and exciting life.

§ 2. In time Loyola became known as a saint and a man with a great power over others, although it was

many years before he won the full trust of the leading men of his Church. At last he found his true work. He had gathered about him a band of followers who were ready to give up everything else in order to spread and strengthen the teaching of their Church. They founded the Society of Jesus, and pledged themselves to obey Loyola as head of the society just as soldiers must obey their commander. First Loyola gave them a hard period of training, and then he sent them out to all parts of the world to teach and to preach ; but they were not allowed to hold high places in the Church.

It was not often that Jesuits failed to finish their training, but some of them had to win hard battles over themselves. One boy who had all that he could wish for at home, and spent his time in riding, sword-play, and dancing, begged Loyola to train him as a Jesuit. At first he found the rules terribly severe ; so much did he hate getting up before dawn, that he went to bed in his clothes so that he could take a few more minutes sleep in the morning. But he won through his training in the end.

The Jesuits were fine teachers, and their work improved education all over Europe. But it was not only in Europe that Jesuit influence bore fruit. One of Loyola's first and greatest followers, known as Francis Xavier, prepared the way for many Christian missions in far-off lands. He made heroic journeys, in which he was often shipwrecked, attacked by pirates, forced to hide in caves and woods from threatening natives in lonely islands, and once tossed at sea in bad weather for a whole year in making one voyage. He taught and preached in India, the islands of the East

Indies, and Japan, and in his eagerness he sometimes begged the rulers to use force to establish the Christian religion.

Where Saint Francis Xavier led the way, many Jesuit missionaries followed, and soon their mission settlements began to stretch across the world.

## 9. The First Tudor King

*Henry VII. (1485-1509)*

§ 1. Whilst the Renaissance in Italy was kindling art, science, and literature to fresh life—whilst Dutch Erasmus and English Colet were bringing the light of the New Learning to bear on religion—and whilst Vasco da Gama, Columbus, and the Cabots were finding new worlds, Henry VII. was reigning as the first Tudor King of England. The new king kept steadily to the one task that he had set himself—that of restoring order in England after all the change and confusion of the Wars of the Roses. Henry VII. was not one of the romantic or heroic figures of that period of adventurous and eager spirits, but he was just the kind of king England needed then ; he was like a capable and kingly policeman, making it his duty to set the nation in order.

First Henry VII. had to check the lawlessness of the barons, who, with their little armies of retainers, were often a terror for miles round their castles and manors.

One earl in need of money had actually surrounded Exeter cathedral with 5,000 men, robbed it of various

treasures, and held the canons prisoners until they paid him large sums to set them free !

Sir Thomas More described how many barons “ not only live in idleness themselves, but also carry about with them at their tails a great flock or train



Exquisites of the time of Henry VII.

(*Harl. MS. 4425.*)

of idle and loitering serving-men, which never learned any craft whereby to get their livings.” And when they were dismissed on the death of their master or for some other cause, More said that “ no husbandman dare set them to work ; knowing well enough that he is nothing meet to do true and faithful service to a



poor man with a spade and mattock, for small wages and hard fare, which being daintily and tenderly pampered up in idleness and pleasure, was wont with a sword and buckler by his side to strut through the street with a bragging look, and to think himself too good to be any man's mate."

The only time when these retainers were of real service to the country was in war, and More makes one of the characters in his story speak in their favour: "This kind of men we must make the most of. For in them, as men of stouter stomachs, bolder spirits, and manlier courage than handy-craftsmen and ploughmen be, doth consist the whole power, strength, and puissance of our army, when we must fight in battle."

This makes it clear to us why the wars of the Middle Ages did not affect the daily lives of ordinary citizens and peasants very much; even the Wars of the Roses, fought in England itself, did far more harm to the barons and their followers than to townsmen and villagers. Nevertheless, as More pointed out, the craftsmen and peasants were just as capable of becoming good soldiers, "if they are brought up in good crafts and laboursome works, whereby to get their livings," which gave them "stout and sturdy bodies," unless their "bold stomachs should be discouraged by poverty."

Henry VII. was more anxious to prepare the way for peace than for war, and he passed a law which forbade barons to keep bands of retainers.\* Soon afterwards he paid a visit to the Earl of Oxford, who summoned all his old retainers to appear in his livery

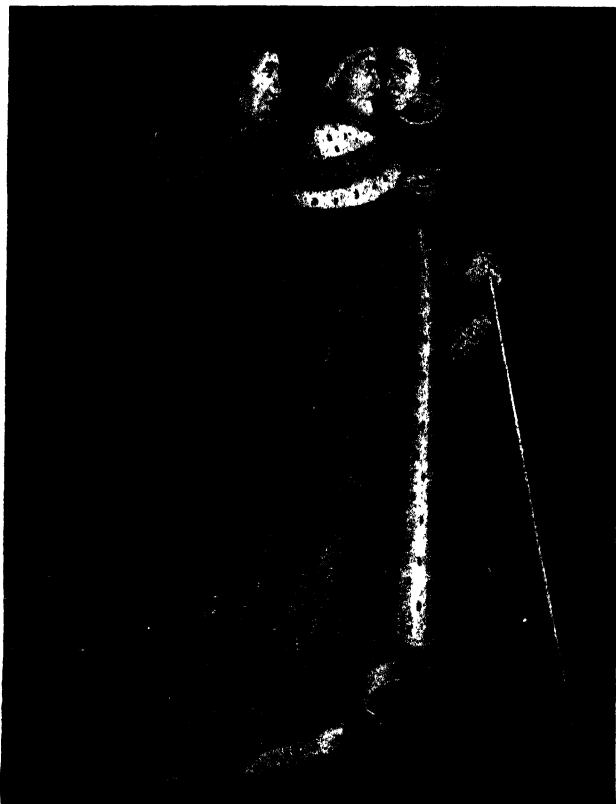
\* The Statute of Livery and Maintenance.

to do honour to the king. After thanking Lord Oxford for his hospitality, Henry said that he must send a lawyer to arrange what fine the earl should pay for breaking the new law !

§ 2. Henry VII. re-established a court for trying cases which the law courts in the country could not deal with strictly enough, especially where some strong baron overruled the judge. Members of the King's Council were judges of this court, and they sat in a room of which the roof was decorated with stars, and so it came to be known as the Court of Star Chamber.

Under Henry VII.'s rule trials were conducted more justly all over the country. The justices of the peace, who were magistrates appointed to see that "the King's Peace" was kept throughout the land, were chosen from amongst men of upright and honourable name in their own counties, who undertook those duties as an honour, without payment.

Henry VII.'s great difficulty was to raise money for the expenses of government. The English people were unused to high taxes, and in 1497 a body of Cornishmen marched to Blackheath with threats and protests against the burden of taxation. Henry had no army, only a bodyguard of "Beef-Eaters" (the Yeomen of the Guard, whose picturesque old uniform is kept up at the Tower of London). But gentlemen of town and country, citizens of towns and yeoman-farmers, rallied at his summons to meet the Cornishmen at Blackheath. There was a battle in which about two thousand were killed, and the leaders of the rebellion were put to death as traitors.



Henry VII. with two of his ministers, Sir Richard Empson (*d.* 1510) and Edmund Dudley (*c.* 1462–1510).

(*From a picture at Belvoir Castle. Painter unknown. Engraved by Hugh Robinson [c. 1775–90].*)

In order to raise money without increasing taxes, Henry made the barons and rich city men pay him sums of money as “gifts.” His chief adviser, Cardinal

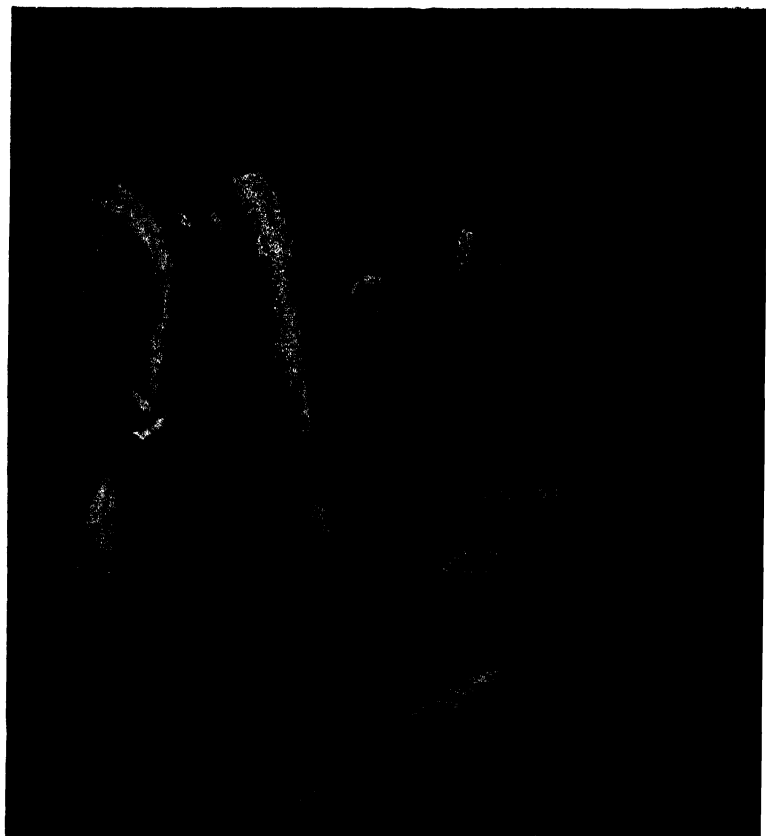
Morton, a good statesman (in whose fine household Thomas More was a page), saw nothing wrong in this, and one of his ways of making men pay was called "Morton's fork." If a man who took good care of his money complained that he had been asked for too much, Morton's lawyer said that he must have savings, since he did not spend his money carelessly. If a spendthrift complained that he had nothing to spare, he was told that this could not be true, since he spent so freely!

Henry's favourite servants, Empson and Dudley, who collected most of the money, came to be hated throughout his kingdom.

§ 3. All these years Parliament was very weak, and not called together regularly as it is to-day. Henry VII., however, made it his custom to summon Parliament fairly often to give its approval to his measures. It was during his reign that the House of Commons became used to hearing the king's ministers (chosen from his Privy Council) explain their schemes and thus give Parliament some share in the government of the country.

Before his death Henry had made the Tudor family firm on the English throne. There had been two pretenders,\* who said in turn that they were Yorkist princes; the second pretended to be the younger of the boy princes who are believed to have been murdered in the Tower in the days of Richard III. The risings in their support were not serious, and Henry was strong enough to forgive one of them,

\* Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck.



THE AMBASSADORS--HANS HOLBEIN.

[The figure to your left is that of an Ambassador to the Court of Henry VIII. from Francis I. of France. The other figure is that of a friend of the Ambassador. This double portrait was painted in 1533, and is now in the National Gallery, London.]

the son of a baker in Oxford, and to make him a kitchen-boy in his palace.

Henry's queen was the sister of the murdered Yorkist princes, and he also strengthened his position by other alliances. His daughter Margaret was married to King James IV. of Scotland, and his eldest son, Prince Arthur, to a Spanish princess, Catherine of Aragon, to secure the powerful friendship of Spain.

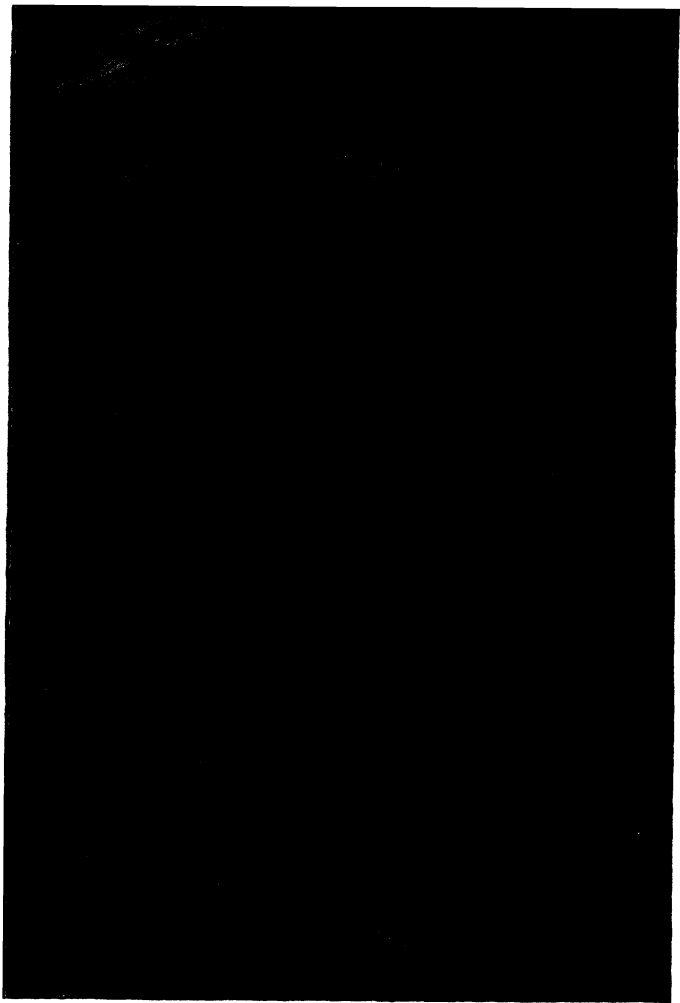
Henry tried to avoid wars, and encouraged England's trade with Flanders and Holland. Under him England began to realize itself as a nation, in which all classes had their rights and duties, and consequently the English people were ready to support the strong Tudor kings.

Henry showed that he was not altogether unmoved by the enthusiasm for art and beauty which followed the Renaissance, for he built the beautiful chapel behind the altar in Westminster Abbey, still known as Henry VII.'s Chapel. (See page 58.)

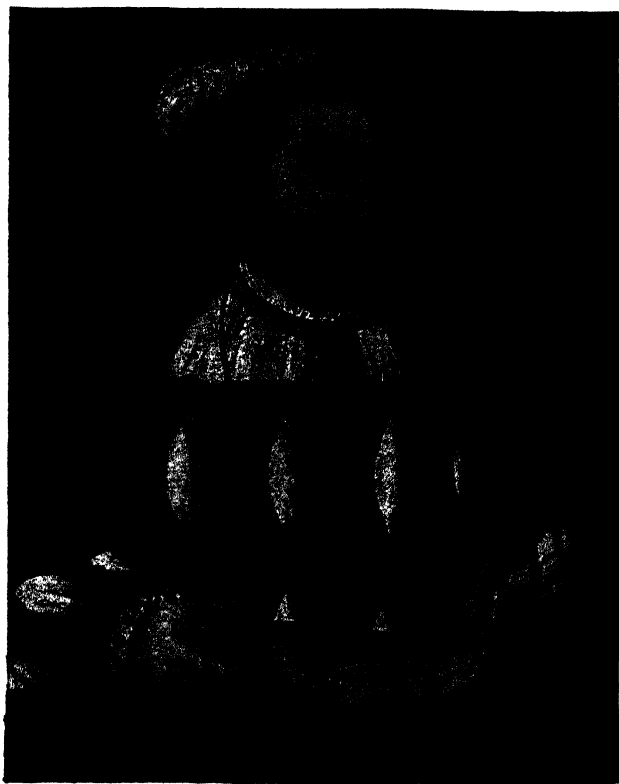
## 10. Henry VIII. and Cardinal Wolsey

### *Henry VIII. (1509-47)*

§ 1. Henry VIII. was only eighteen when he came to the throne, but he was the pride and darling of the nation, for he was handsome, learned, strong and skilful in jousts and sports, a good musician, and an earnest churchman. The Venetian ambassador of the time wrote of him later that "Nature could not have done more for him," that he was "handsomer than any other king in Christendom, with a fine beard that



FAN TRACERY ROOF, ROOF OF HENRY VII.'S CHAPEL, WESTMINSTER ABBEY.  
(*Photo, G. W. Wilson and Co.*)



Henry VIII. as a young man.

*(From a picture at Hampton Court. Painter unknown.  
Engraved by Henry Shaw [1800-73].)*

looked like gold, and his skill in music and languages was remarkable."

As an example of his strength and energy, the Venetian reported that when he went out hunting he usually tired out eight or ten horses, which were



always sent before him so that fresh ones were waiting at a number of places. In addition, he proved that he was really religious by hearing the service of mass five times a day when he was not out hunting, and whatever the doings of the day, he seldom missed attending evening prayers in the queen's room.

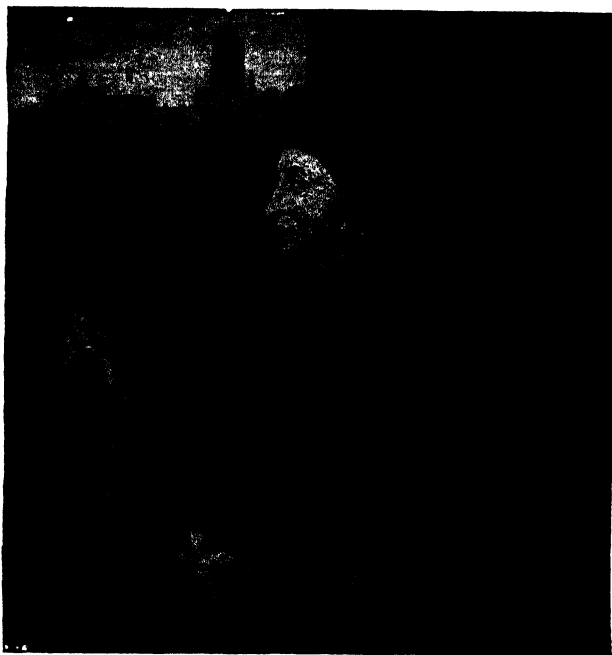
Henry's queen was the Catherine of Aragon who, as we have already noted, had first been married to his elder brother, Prince Arthur. Arthur died before Catherine was grown-up, and so she had been married to Henry, as his father was anxious to secure the friendship of Spain.

Henry added to his popularity at the beginning of his reign by ordering the execution of Empson and Dudley, whose means of wringing money out of people had set half the nation groaning and grumbling. Looking back in later years, men may have thought it strange that Henry VIII. first won his subjects' hearts by cutting off the heads of two men who had served his father well. Before the end of his reign no one's head was safe if he crossed the will of the heartless and determined king.

Henry was not heartless at first ; he chose his friends and ministers well, too, and treated them with generous trust and affection. He did not realize his power at once ; he was too much occupied in sports, music, and learning to submit to the daily cares of government. Cardinal Wolsey, who managed affairs of state for him, was content that it should be so—“ If a lion knew his own strength,” he said, “ hard were it for any man to rule him.”

§ 2. Very early in Henry's reign war was declared

on France ; the ambitious young king had dreams such as those of Edward III. and Henry V., and really



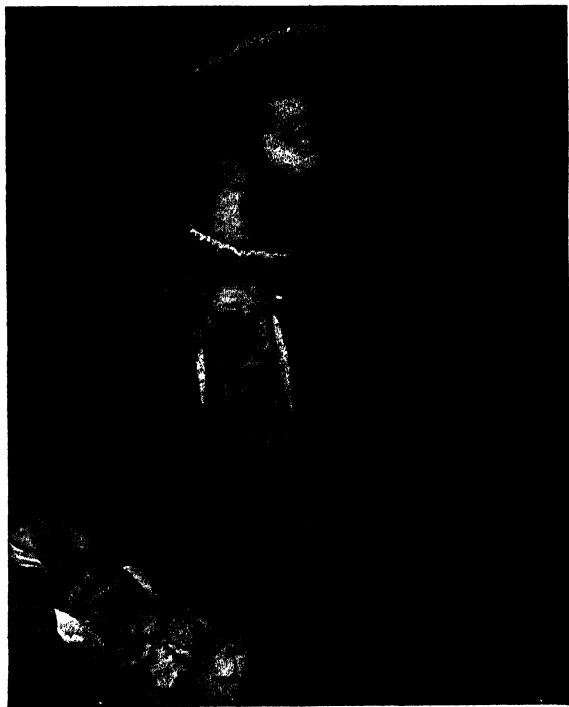
Cardinal Wolsey (c. 1473-1530) in biretta and robe, hand raised in benediction. View of Christ Church, Oxford, through window.

*(From the engraving by Charles Picart [1780-1837] of the picture in Christ Church, Oxford, formerly ascribed to Holbein.)*

believed he might at least win one province of France. He did win one battle, known afterwards as the Battle of the Spurs.

Meanwhile James IV. of Scotland took up arms in

the French cause and marched over the border, but he was defeated in the tragic battle of Flodden (1513), in which James and almost all his nobles were killed.



Francis I. (1494-1547).

*(Portrait by Titian. The Louvre.)*

Peace was made with France a year after Flodden, and a few years later the two young kings, Henry of England and Francis I. of France, met with great splendour amidst richly furnished tents and golden

fountains spouting wine at the famous meeting-place, afterwards called The Field of Cloth of Gold. Here all the glory of the old days of chivalry were revived for the last time, and Henry and Francis, in the finest of armour, rode out into the lists prepared for a great tournament and challenged all the knights of France and England to attack them.

Yet directly after this friendly meeting Henry was persuaded to support another ambitious young ruler—the Emperor Charles V.—in schemes to humble France.

Charles V. was King of Spain and the Netherlands, overlord of Austria and many other German states, and of part of Italy, and lord of the Spanish colonies in the New World. He had twenty-five crowns in all. He was the emperor who condemned Luther, although later he himself made the Pope a prisoner. He was, however, generous and just in many of his actions, and he ended his life in a monastery, weary of reigning over such a wide empire.

§ 3. While Henry was engaged in war Wolsey ruled in England as if he were king himself, and the magnificence of his household and the number of his servants startled the country even in those days. His secret ambition was to become Pope.

Yet Wolsey was the first to prove how ruthless the “roused lion,” Henry VIII. could be when even the mightiest of his subjects ventured to try to turn him from his will.

Henry was distressed because he and Catherine had no son, and he wished to divorce the queen, and take a lady of the court called Anne Boleyn as his wife.

As Catherine had been married to his brother, it was really against the laws of the Church for her to be Henry's wife afterwards, but the Pope of that time had given leave because the first had only been a childhood marriage.

Now Henry appealed to the new Pope (Clement VII.) to give him leave to divorce Catherine. He expected no difficulty, especially as the Pope who was ruling when the Reformation began had been very pleased with a book which Henry had written in condemnation of Luther, and had bestowed on him the title of *Fidei Defensor* (Defender of the Faith), the first letters of which (*fid. def.*) still stand after the king's name on our coins to-day.

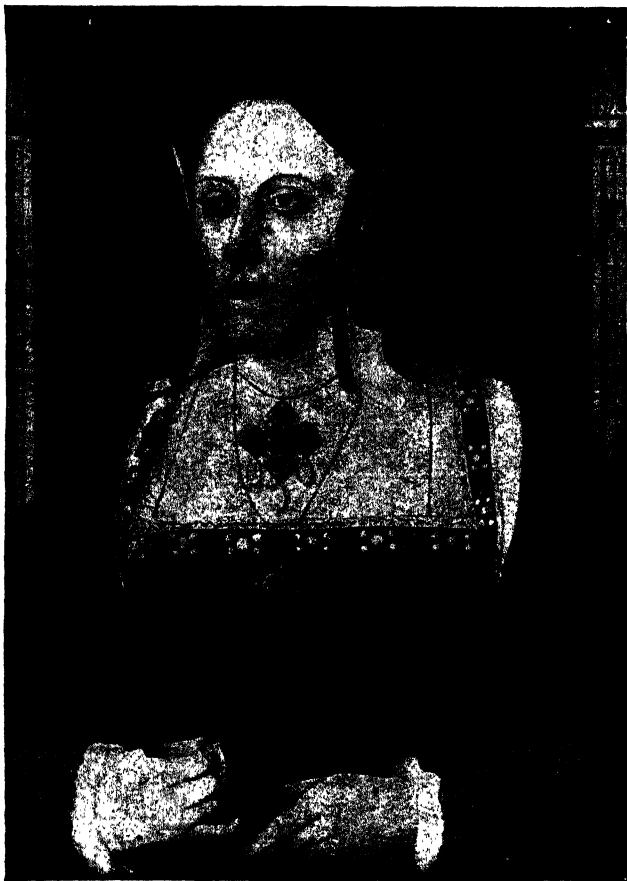
Wolsey supported Henry because he hoped to persuade him to marry a French princess, and so strengthen the friendship with France.

To Henry's dismay Clement refused to allow the divorce. One of his reasons was fear of the powerful Emperor Charles V., who was Catherine's nephew.

The quarrel between Henry and Clement which followed led to a very great change in the Church, but one of the first consequences was the fall of Wolsey.

Wolsey supported the divorce, and was ready to agree that the marriage with Catherine should be declared unlawful. But when Henry announced his intention of marrying Anne Boleyn, Wolsey protested, on his knees, and neither Henry nor Anne could forgive him for that protest. Before long he was dismissed from the Privy Council and sent away to York, where he continued to be archbishop until Henry had him accused of treason.

Wolsey was a sick man by this time, and on his



Catherine of Aragon (1485-1536), first queen of Henry VIII.  
(After J. Corvus. *National Portrait Gallery.*)

journey to London for his trial he took shelter at Leicester Abbey. As he was carried in, he said to

the abbot, "I am come to lay my bones amongst you."

He was right ; he died in this abbey, and it was here that he said the words so often quoted : " If I had served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs."

The chief memorial of Wolsey's greatness is the fine college he had begun to build at Oxford. Wolsey called it Cardinal College, and his cardinal's hat is carved in stone over the gateway (you can see the actual hat in the college library), but it is now known as Christ Church.

## 11. Henry VIII. and the Reformation

§ 1. After the fall of Wolsey, Henry found in Thomas Cromwell, whom the Cardinal himself had trained in the management of state affairs, a counsellor who pleased him much better. Cromwell was the son of a poor man ; he had served as a hired soldier in Italy in his youth, and he had been a good servant to Wolsey, who had raised him to a high position. Now he was bold enough to advise Henry to declare that the Church in England should no longer submit to the rule of the Pope, and that henceforth the king should be its head.

Henry was delighted with the advice, and he found Parliament willing to support him in defying the Pope, as the nation had for some time felt it burdensome to pay constant taxes to Rome, and had often objected to the Pope's interference in English political affairs.

Accordingly Henry decided that an English court, under the Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Cranmer, should settle whether his marriage with Catherine had been lawful or not, and when Cranmer decided that it was unlawful Henry at once married Anne Boleyn.

The Pope thereupon excommunicated him. This meant that he must not enter a church, and could not even have Christian burial when he died, unless the English clergy disobeyed the Pope. The Pope also called upon all Christian people to refuse to have anything to do with King Henry.

Upon this Henry demanded that Parliament should put an end to the Pope's powers in England, and the famous Reformation Parliament (1529-36) passed Acts by which the English Church was set free from the Pope's control. In the year 1535 an Act of Supremacy was passed, by which Henry was declared "Supreme Head of the Church of England." Henceforth England had an independent national Church, separate from the ancient Church; but as yet no changes were made in the services. Neither Henry nor the clergy wanted to bring Luther's teaching or reforms into the new Church of England.

An order from Henry VIII. prepared the way for greater changes. Cranmer asked the king to command that an English translation of the Bible should be placed in every church, so that the people might come and read it for themselves. These first Bibles were large and precious volumes, and were generally chained to a reading-desk in the church.

§ 2. Very few of the bishops and clergy protested against the new Acts of Parliament. But there were



about six thousand monks and friars in the country, and Henry, supported by Thomas Cromwell, began




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Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex (c. 1485–1540).

(From a picture at Tyttenhanger by Hans Holbein the Younger.  
Engraved by Robert Cooper [fl. 1800–36].)

to think their lands and riches might be used for other purposes. They belonged to great “orders,” whose followers—Benedictines, Carthusians, Cistercians, and

the preaching brotherhoods of Franciscans and Dominicans—had monasteries and friaries where the same rules were kept in every Christian country.

Henry was encouraged in his wish to “suppress” the monasteries and take their lands by the fact that in some of them the rules were no longer kept with strictness. This was not, of course, the case in all the monasteries. The Carthusian monks, especially, still kept their rules strictly. They spent ten hours a day in prayer and meditation, ten in sleep and work, and four in exercise and reading. They lived separately, each monk in his own little three-roomed house, and with his own small garden, closed in by high walls, in which he walked or dug for exercise. The houses were built round a courtyard, and there was a second court where the lay brothers lived, and carried on the business of the monastery; they took meals to each monk twice a day, placing them in a “hatch” or cupboard, so that the monk might not be disturbed by seeing any one. On Sundays and saints’ days the monks all dined together in a hall, but no conversation was allowed.

The most famous Carthusian monastery was the Charterhouse in London. Sir Thomas More watched some monks of the Charterhouse, in the white serge robes of their order, being led to execution in the Tower because they had refused to admit that Henry VIII. was head of the Church in England. Their calm faces, as if their hearts had long done with this world, gave him strength in his own hour of waiting for the same death.

Henry set Cromwell to carry out the task of suppressing the monasteries, and very thoroughly he

did it. "Visitors" were sent to make "reports" of the state of each, and some reason was always found for dismissing the monks and taking away their lands. Amongst Cromwell's papers there was found a note :



Illumination in a Psalter at beginning of Psalm lii. : "*Dixit insipiens in corde suo non est Deus*" (The fool hath said in his heart there is no God).

Henry as David, and Will Somers, his jester, as the fool.

(British Museum, Royal MS., 2 A. xvi., f. 63b.)

"The Abbot of Redyng to be Sent Down to be tryed and excecutyd at Reding."

The monks under twenty-four years of age were set free from their vows ; older monks received small pensions from the king. Some abbots and priors received good pensions, others were brought to trial and executed or disgraced. Nuns were treated in the same way, although some of those turned out of their

convents only received a gown from the king with which to face the world.

Some of the land and money was used for founding new bishoprics, some for building colleges ; much went to enrich the king, and some estates were given or sold to noblemen, ministers of the crown, or country gentlemen.

§ 3. In the north a number of people rose in revolt at the suppression of the monasteries, where they had found help in sickness and distress, and had looked to abbot or prior as kindly landlords and good farmers. This rebellion was called the Pilgrimage of Grace, but Henry put it down and ruthlessly punished the nobles who had been its leaders.

It was tragic to see how soon many of the fine buildings of the monasteries fell into ruin. The roofs were stripped of lead at once, and the country people all came with their carts to see what they could carry away, from stones for building to vegetables from the gardens and fish from the ponds.

The artist-monks, who had made such beautiful books with painted borders in rich red, blue, and gold as they sat in peaceful cloisters, gave place to printers and the printing-press. No longer did poor friars go barefoot or sandalled from door to door and beg for meals, by giving which their hosts hoped to win the grace of God ; and never again could rogues play at being friars. No longer was there a continual chant of psalms and prayers rising from dawn to midnight from a chain of beautiful abbeys and priories across the length and breadth of England.

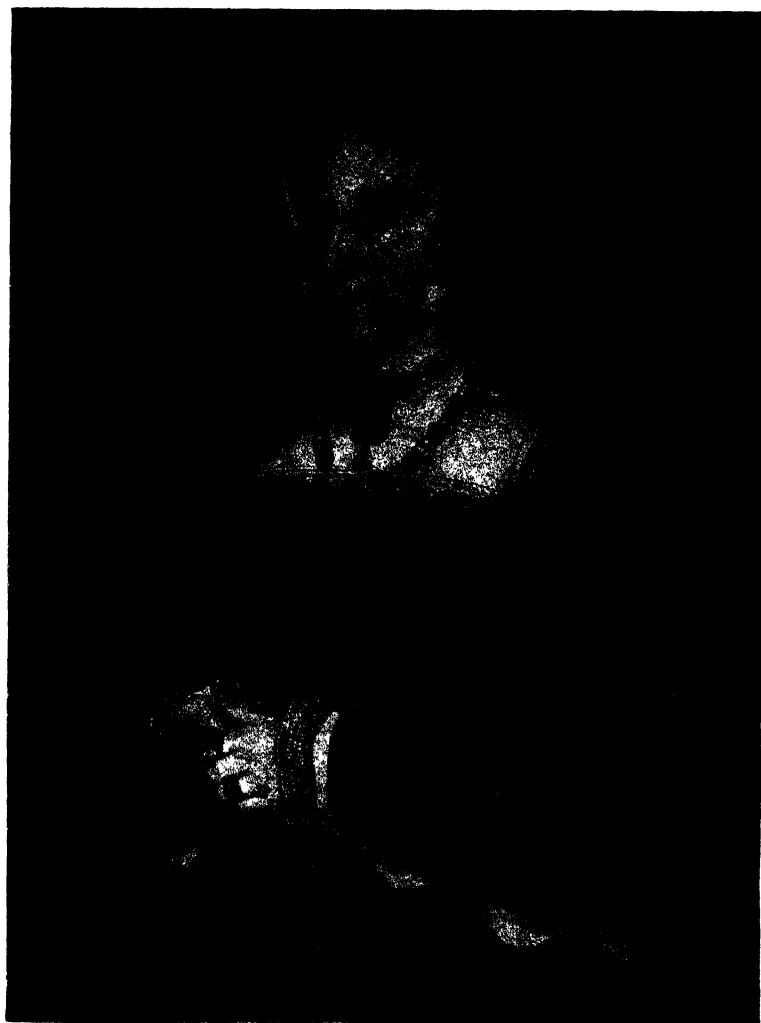
**12. Sir Thomas More***Scholar, Statesman, Saint*

§ 1. The best-loved name that has come down to us from the England of the Renaissance and the Reformation is that of Sir Thomas More. Even in his boyhood his lively mind and sunny nature won high praise from Cardinal Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury and trusted counsellor of Henry VII., in whose household he was a page. One day, when the boy was waiting upon the archbishop and his guests at dinner, Cardinal Morton said: "This child here waiting at table, whoever shall live to see it, will prove a marvellous rare man."

A few years later the young Thomas More won the hearts of Colet and Erasmus, and Erasmus wrote to one of his friends that nature never made a sweeter and happier character than More's.

Yet this young man with his great talents, his many friends, and his love of fun, longed to give his life to the service of God, and thought of becoming a Carthusian monk. It was Dean Colet who persuaded him that he could also serve God in the world of men of learning and affairs; but More always wore a hair-shirt next his skin, and spent part of every day alone in prayer.

At the wish of his father, who was a judge, he became a lawyer, and soon made an honourable name in his profession. Later, when he was Lord Chancellor, the highest lawyer in the kingdom, he went every morning to the court where his father was judge,



JANE SEYMOUR—HANS HOLBEIN.

[Jane Seymour was the third queen of Henry VIII., and was the mother of the prince who afterwards became Edward VI. (See page 83.)]

and kneeled down to receive his blessing before he began his own day's work.



Sir Thomas More (1478-1535).

*(From a drawing at Windsor Castle by Hans Holbein the Younger.  
Engraved by Francesco Bartolozzi [1725-1815].)*

More's marriage was very characteristic of him. He fell in love with the second of a family of pretty sisters, but he knew that in those days it was a disgrace

to an elder sister if a younger one married first, and so he "framed his fancy" to the eldest instead.\* The marriage was very happy, and More taught his wife, a country girl who had not learned very much, to love literature and practise music. Their happiness only lasted six years, when the wife died, leaving him with a son and three daughters.

He married again, and it was the second wife who was mistress of the charming house at Chelsea, of which Erasmus wrote (to a friend in Holland) that "his whole house breathes happiness, and no one enters it who is not the better for the visit."

His son-in-law describes it as a fair house by the riverside, with a garden and orchard, and in the garden a building known as the gallery, to which More could withdraw when he wished to be alone for prayer.

This same son-in-law reports that in sixteen years spent in his house he "never perceived him so much as once to fume." More himself wrote gaily to his children: "I have given you kisses enough, but stripes hardly ever." He taught them that they must "take virtue and learning for their meat and play but for their sauce."

Erasmus tells us that even the birds of Chelsea loved him and flocked about him to be fed, and in his garden he kept a tame fox, a monkey, a ferret, and a weasel.

Every day, after morning prayer together, his children went with him to the riverside to give him a last kiss as he stepped into the boat which carried him down London's great highway, the Thames, to his work.

\* From the Life of More written by Roper (his son-in-law), often quoted in this chapter.



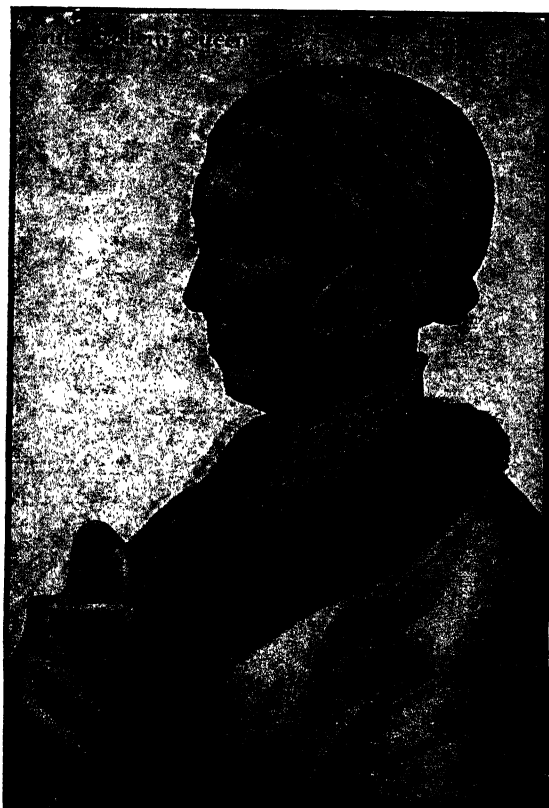
Love of books and fun did not prevent More from being a most capable lawyer, and his strict justice won him great honour in days when judges and statesmen were not always ashamed to take bribes. When he was Lord Chancellor a lady whose case he had to try sent him a glove filled with gold coins. More poured out the gold and told her messenger to take it back to her, but added that he would keep the glove, as it would be rude to refuse a lady's present.

§ 2. Such a rare man could not long escape the notice of young Henry VIII., with his keen love for scholars of the New Learning. Soon the king insisted upon More becoming one of his Privy Council, and also made him Lord Chancellor. Erasmus says that no man ever struggled harder for a high place in the king's service than More struggled to escape. When the king found his talk so delightful that he would scarcely let him leave him to go home, More pretended to have grown dull and stupid, until the king was willing to part with him for a time.

But Henry followed More home ; he, too, felt the charm of the house at Chelsea, and he would walk in the garden with his arm round More's neck, and insist on staying to dine with him.

When his son-in-law congratulated him on the king's friendship More replied wisely : " Son Roper, I may tell you I have no cause to be proud thereof, for if my head would win him a castle in France it should not fail to go off."

§ 3. At last a time came when More felt it his duty to cross the king's will. He did not think it right for Henry to divorce Queen Catherine, and because of



Anne Boleyn, second queen of Henry VIII.

*(From an engraving by Francesco Bartolozzi [1725-1815] of the original drawing by Hans Holbein the Younger [1497-1543].)*

the disagreement he gave up the office of Lord Chancellor. Then he was summoned to attend the king's wedding with Anne Boleyn, and he would not go, and so fell into great disfavour.

Now Henry determined that he would make all the leading men in the kingdom bow to his will and accept him as head of the Church. Accordingly a number of bishops and others were summoned to Lambeth, More amongst them, and ordered to take an oath declaring the king to be Supreme Head of the Church of England.

More refused ; he did not believe that any man who was not a priest could be head of the Church.

Very soon he was sent as a prisoner to the Tower of London ; as he entered he had to take off his coat and put on a coarse (and not very clean) one provided at the gate. After a while even his beloved books were taken from him, and the Lieutenant of the Tower told him, with tears in his eyes, that he dare not give him anything better than the rough food of ordinary prisoners.

From his wife poor More had little comfort. " Son Roper " describes how she went to scold him, beginning briskly, " Tillyvally, Mr. More ! " And she asked him how he, who had always been thought so wise a man, could " now so play the fool as to lie here in this close, filthy prison, and be content to be shut up amongst the mice and rats," when he might so easily take the oath and be set free.

To this More quietly replied : " I pray thee, good Mrs. Alice, tell me one thing."

" What is that ? " quoth she.

" Is not this house as nigh Heaven as mine own ? "

His daughter Margaret, the wife of " Son Roper," was his greatest comfort. On hearing from her how Anne Boleyn kept the court merry with dancing and

sporting, he said that she might dance until she spurned off men's heads like footballs, but he feared her own head would dance the same dance some day. "Alas, Meg, alas!" he exclaimed, "for it pitieth me to remember to what misery she, poor soul, shortly shall come."

The day came when More was condemned to be executed for treason. The night before his death he wrote a last letter to his daughter Margaret, although all he had to write with was a piece of coal, and also sent her the hair-shirt he had worn, as he did not wish to make a show in public of his private penance.

At the last his sense of fun was uppermost. He found the steps to the block shaky, and said to the Lieutenant of the Tower: "Assist me up, and in coming down I will shift for myself."

His last act was to push aside his beard which he had grown in prison, saying gently: "Pity that should be cut—*that* has not committed treason."

At the news of his death a shock ran all through Europe, and the Emperor Charles V., who had finer feelings than Henry VIII., declared that if he had possessed such a servant he would rather have lost the best city in his empire than him.

More's chief memorial is his book *Utopia*, a name formed from Greek, and meaning "nowhere," in which he tells the story of an imaginary land whose people ordered their lives far better than in the old countries of Europe.

There was a king in Utopia, but his crown was taken from him if he tried "to enslave his people"; the children all went to school, no one who could work need be poor, men were not hanged for stealing (as

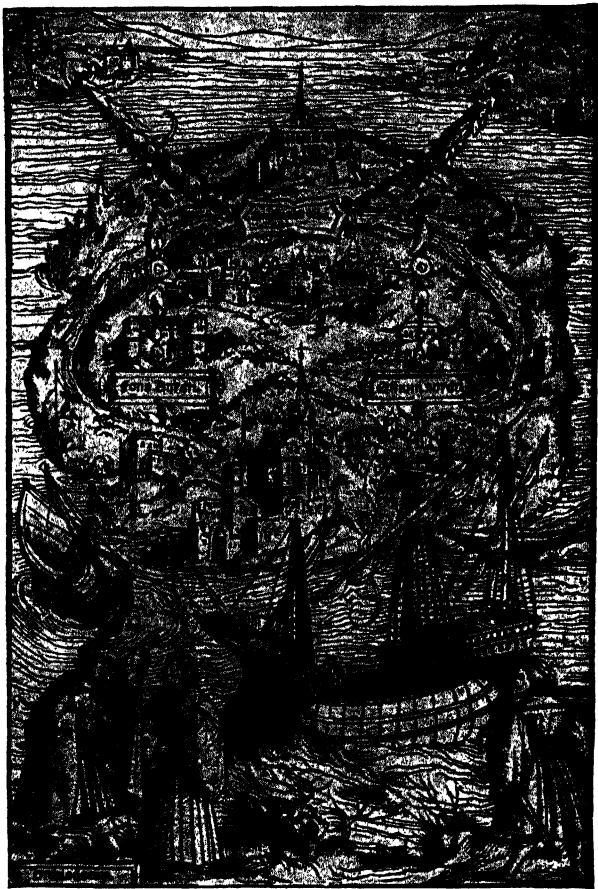


Illustration for More's *Utopia*.

(From an engraving by Ambrosius Holbein [c. 1494–1520].)

they were in England in More's time), so that they were tempted to murder as well if it would save them from

discovery ; and all were free to worship God in the way they thought best.

More's book was read in many countries, and set men thinking. To this day we speak of ideas which are almost too good to be carried out in this world as " Utopian."

### 13. Henry VIII. and the " Great Harry "

§ 1. It is pitiable to read how Henry VIII. failed to fulfil the bright promise of the first years of his reign. The young king, whose cleverness, strength, and skill in arms and sport had been the delight of his people, soon grew fat and heavy from over-eating, and became a cruel tyrant to his counsellors and to his wives.

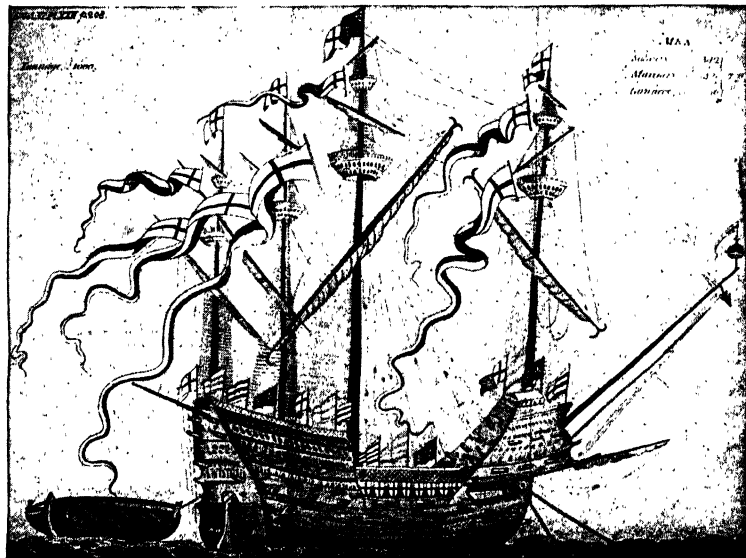
Sir Thomas More was right in pitying Anne Boleyn. After a few years Henry believed that she was not true to him, and she was first imprisoned in the Tower, and then beheaded there. She left him a little daughter named Elizabeth, the great queen of the days of Shakespeare and Sir Francis Drake.

Henry's next wife, Jane Seymour, died soon after the birth of his only son, Prince Edward. After this yet another wife was divorced, and the fifth beheaded. Henry's sixth queen, Catherine Parr, was probably saved from divorce or losing her head by Henry's own death.

§ 2. In spite of self-indulgence and heartlessness in his private life, Henry VIII. remained a great king. To him England owes the real beginning of

her navy of battleships, and but for his bold naval plans the English fleet would probably have been swept off the sea by the Spaniards in Queen Elizabeth's reign.

Henry VII. had also taken an interest in ship-building, and in his reign fine new merchant ships



*The Henri-Grace-à-Dieu.*

*(From a drawing in Magdalene College, Cambridge.)*

were built for the North Sea and Baltic trade, so large that the old harbours were too small for them, and the first dockyard was opened at Portsmouth. Henry VIII. determined to arm these ships with heavy guns that could drive the light-armed galleys of pirates and enemies off their course.

At first engineers told Henry that if ships carried

such large guns they must either sink or be top-heavy and unsteady, but at last they found that if they were placed low in the ships, where merchant vessels carried cargo, the balance was not upset. So for the first time in history guns were placed right down in the body of a ship, and holes were cut in the vessel's side through which the muzzles of the guns were to be thrust for firing.

The model of this new man-of-war type of ship—which could fire a “broadside”—was called the *Great Harry* \* after the king. Henry sent some ladies from his court to see the new ship, and they wrote to him after their visit : “The new great ship is so goodly to behold, that in all our lives we have not seen (excepting your royal person and my lord the prince, your son), a more pleasant sight.” †

#### 14. Edward VI. (1547–53) and the Prayer-book

§ 1. When Henry VIII. died (1547), his only son, Edward VI., a boy of ten, succeeded him.

Prince Edward was a true schoolboy of the Renaissance. His father, like other parents who were eager about the New Learning, believed that children should begin the study of Latin and Greek as soon as they could read. One gentleman who wrote a book on the training of children ‡ at this time even suggested that a boy's first nurse should be taught Latin words to say to him instead of the usual baby talk.

\* Officially called the *Henri-Grace-à-Dieu*.

† *Life of Sir Humphrey Gilbert*, by W. G. Gosling.

‡ *The Booke named the Governour*, by Sir Thomas Elyot (1531).



When Edward was about five years old, Henry VIII. had a book, called *An Introduction to the Eight Parts of Speech*, drawn up for the children of his kingdom, and in a preface he urged them to vie with their young prince, who was already pressing forward in the "race of learning" !

Edward and his half-sister Princess Elizabeth are described as so fond of their lessons that they called for their books as soon as it was light. They began the day with the study of the Bible, and the rest of the morning was spent on languages, science, and history. It is pleasant to hear that as a girl the great Queen Elizabeth loved to read history.

When Edward became king at ten years old the Duke of Somerset, his uncle (brother of Jane Seymour), ruled for him as Lord Protector. Edward continued his studies, and he and the Protector's little daughter wrote beautiful letters to each other in Latin.

Edward VI. died at the age of sixteen, but during his short reign the Reformation was carried much farther in the Church of England.

The Latin services of the old Church were given up, and Archbishop Cranmer drew up the first English Prayer-book (1549), and three years later a second and fuller one. These were written in beautiful, noble English, and much of both books remains in the English Book of Common Prayer which is used to-day.

With the Latin services other old customs were given up ; many images of saints were destroyed, and even stained glass windows were smashed. Sometimes destruction of this kind led to the use of churches for purposes which shocked all who cared for reverence and good order. Edward VI. himself had to forbid



King Edward VI.  
*(From a drawing by Hans Holbein.)*

quarrelling and shooting in churches, and “the bringing of horses and mules through the same, making God’s house like a stable or common inn.”

In other places people were shocked by the use of

everyday language, which they could understand for themselves, in church services, and in Cornwall there was even a rebellion against the English Prayer-book. Cornishmen, who spoke their own Cornish language among themselves, and were used to Latin in church, demanded the restoration of the old Latin service. This demand was refused.



Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of  
Canterbury (1489-1556).

(From a painting by Gerbarus Fliccius  
[1546].)

§ 2. By the end of the reign the English Prayer-book had been accepted by the greater part of the people. Edward VI.'s reign was, however, an unsettled time in England. The peasants of the country-side were suffering because so many landowners had enclosed the open fields with hedges, and although this made it possible for them to look after their farms better,

many poorer men who had had a share in the land before lost their little holdings or were persuaded to sell them. Sometimes the commons, on which every villager had been able to keep a cow, a pig, or a flock of geese, were enclosed too and became part of a big farm.

Then, too, the cloth trade was so prosperous that it paid farmers to give up growing corn and have large flocks of sheep instead. Flocks needed fewer men to

look after them, and so many labourers lost their work. This is what Sir Thomas More means when he says at the beginning of his book *Utopia* that in England "your sheep that were wont to be so meek and tame and so small eaters, now, as I hear say, be become so great devourers and wild that they eat up and swallow down the very men themselves. They consume, destroy, and devour whole fields, houses, and cities."

The misery of the labourers in Norfolk, a great sheep and wool country, was particularly hard to bear, and there were now no monasteries where starving men could be sure of a meal, and as yet no Poor Law relief to take their place.

It is not surprising that at last rebellion broke out in Norfolk, and under a leader named Ket the rebels marched to Norwich and took it. The Duke of Northumberland, who was then in power, had to hire foreign soldiers in order to suppress Ket's army of peasants.

Northumberland was an ambitious, treacherous man. When he saw that the young king was dying, he persuaded him to draw up a "plan," to take the place of Henry VIII.'s will by which Princess Mary (daughter of Henry and Catherine of Aragon) was to succeed her brother, and then Princess Elizabeth. By Edward's plan these two princesses were to be set aside (because the one's mother had been divorced and the other's beheaded), and the crown was to pass to a granddaughter of Henry's sister Mary, a young girl named Lady Jane Grey. Northumberland arranged a marriage between Lady Jane and his son, Lord Guildford Dudley, and so hoped to remain the leading man in the kingdom himself.

In 1553, at the age of sixteen, Edward died. It is fitting that the most lasting memorials of the reign of this studious boy king are the English Prayer-book and the grammar schools which were founded with



Lady Jane Grey (1537-54).  
(*National Portrait Gallery.*)

money left from Church lands, which had supported schools in the days of the monks. Edward himself took a great interest in these schools, especially Christ's Hospital, the scholars of which still wear the long, full-skirted coats of his day, with leather belt, little white bands at the neck, and bright yellow stockings.

**15. Queen Mary (1553–58) and Philip of Spain**

§ 1. On the death of Edward VI., Northumberland at once proclaimed Lady Jane Grey Queen of England, and gathered together an army of ten thousand to protect her. The English people, however, were not ready to see the daughters of Henry VIII. unjustly set aside and another queen placed on the throne, and a large body of men gathered in the eastern counties and prepared to fight in the cause of Princess Mary. In London Northumberland was still in power, but not a man joined his army or cheered his soldiers as they marched out of the city to meet Mary's supporters. Northumberland soon saw that he would not be strong enough to make Lady Jane queen, and so he changed sides and declared himself ready to be loyal to Mary.

Mary was now accepted as queen, but Northumberland's treachery could not be pardoned, and he was executed in the Tower. Lady Jane Grey and her husband were imprisoned there, and later on, after a rebellion which was raised because Mary intended to marry the King of Spain, it was thought safer that this young queen of a few days should die, and so she too was beheaded. She was only seventeen, and the whole plot had been forced on her by her husband's father. Lady Jane herself was a studious lover of the New Learning, like Edward VI., and was a wonderful scholar in Latin and Greek at the age of fourteen. A year later she was learning Hebrew. She delighted in quiet hours of reading, when she could forget the sternness with which her parents treated her. The

story of her death is one of the most pathetic in English history.

Queen Mary had spent an unhappy girlhood, and



Mary Tudor (1516-58).

(*Painting by Antonio Moro [1512-c.1582]. Engraved by  
Frans Huys [fl. 1550-70].*)

a very lonely one. She had remained loyal to the old Church, and had not taken much part in the life of her father's household under her five stepmothers. Princess Elizabeth, who was younger and prettier,

had been a much greater favourite with Henry and his queens. Mary, however, had been educated just as thoroughly as Elizabeth and Edward, and was said to be very studious and learned as a young girl.

Mary remembered gratefully how the Emperor Charles V. had supported her mother, Catherine of Aragon, and how he made the Pope afraid to give his consent to her divorce, and now she was anxious to marry his son, Philip of Spain, and have the help of this great Catholic king in restoring the rule of the Pope in England.

The English people had already learned to be jealous of Spain both in Europe and the New World, and the marriage was so unpopular that a rebellion broke out in Kent, and the leader, Sir Thomas Wyatt, forced his way into London. Mary showed great courage, and herself went to Guildhall and called upon the citizens of London to protect her. The rebels were then driven out, and many were beheaded for their part in the rising.

Even the Princess Elizabeth was suspected, and sent to the Tower of London. She was shocked to find that she was to pass into the Tower by the famous Traitor's Gate, and as she stepped from her boat on to the stone stairway she declared : " Here stands as true a subject, being prisoner, as ever landed on these stairs." For a long time she sat on a damp stone and refused to pass through the gate.

§ 2. Mary now married Philip of Spain and began her work of making England a Catholic country once more. At a great service in Westminster Abbey





A DELEGATION FROM HOLLAND TO PHILIP II. OF SPAIN—ARCES Y MEGALDE SANTIAGO.

a representative of the Pope took the English Church under his rule again, and the order went forth that all



Philip II. of Spain.

*(From an original engraving by Jerome Wierix [c. 1553-1619].)*

heretics who refused to come back into the old Church should be burned at the stake.

There are many stories of the heroism of the Protestant martyrs in Mary's reign. One Protestant

vicar, Dr. Taylor, was condemned as a heretic in London, and then taken back to his own parish to be burned. His wife and daughters waited all night in the porch of a London church to hear what his sentence was, and in the early morning they saw him coming, under guard, on his way home to his death. He was allowed to stop and say the Lord's Prayer with them, and they bravely promised to meet him again "at home." When he got down from his horse in his own parish to walk to the stake he was more cheerful than ever. "God be praised!" he said, "I lack not but two stiles to go over, and I am even at my Father's House."

Very soon Archbishop Cranmer, who had drawn up the English prayer-book, was tried for heresy, and at first he said that he would give up the Protestant faith, and signed a document of submission to the Catholic Church. Nevertheless he was condemned to be burned to death, and when the hour of death drew near he was overcome by shame because he had signed this paper, which, he said, was "contrary to the truth which I thought in my heart." He then openly declared that he had signed it from fear of death, adding: "And for as much as my hand offendeth, my hand shall first be punished; for when I come to the fire it shall first be burned."

Accordingly, before the flames reached his body Cranmer held his right hand steadily in the fire without a cry.

Cranmer was burned at Oxford, and on the same spot two bishops, Ridley and Latimer, who had been leaders in the Protestant Church of England, had also suffered martyrdom. They went to their death with

the utmost courage and confidence, and the bishops cheered one another as they were fastened to the stake with the same chain. "Be of good cheer, Master Ridley," were Latimer's last words, "play the man, and we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England as I trust shall never be put out."

In Oxford a beautiful cross, known as the Martyrs' Memorial, commemorates the burning of Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer. In all, three hundred Protestants went to the stake in Mary's reign.

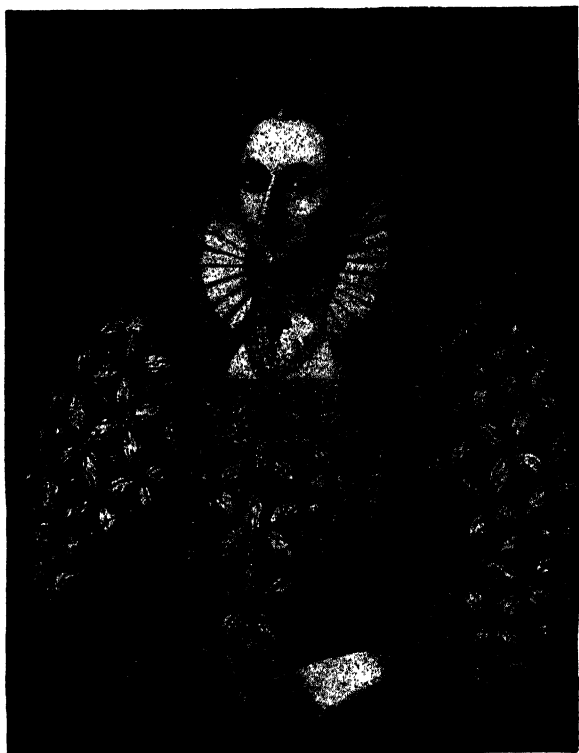
Mary died in 1558 after a short reign of five years. She had never been healthy or happy, and it was a great grief to her that she had no child, and that her husband, Philip of Spain, showed that he did not love her. Towards the end of her reign Philip drew England into a war with France, and the English had to give up Calais, their last possession on French soil. This was a bitter blow to Mary, who said that when she died the word *Calais* would be found engraven on her heart.

## 16. The Reign of Queen Elizabeth

### *Queen Elizabeth (1558-1603)*

§ 1. After Mary's death her half-sister, Princess Elizabeth, was at once declared queen. Elizabeth was now twenty-five years old, tall, fair, and handsome, although not beautiful; she had the lively and pleasing manners of her mother, Anne Boleyn, and the courage, energy, and cleverness of her father, Henry VIII. Her life had been difficult, as she had had one step-

mother after another, and had been separated by the Protector from Edward VI., the little brother



Queen Elizabeth in 1559.

*(From a portrait in Gray's Inn Hall. Artist unknown.)*

with whom she had learned and played ; and during Mary's reign she had been watched, suspected, and even imprisoned.

It was a great thing for England at this time to

have a queen with all the spirit of Henry VIII., but one who had not grown up like a spoilt child, or been surrounded by flatterers and admirers as Henry was when he became king at eighteen. Elizabeth's life had taught her to master her self-will and high spirit. She was a proud and strong queen, but she took the trouble to please both Parliament and people, and she really cared for England and not only for her own power and grandeur. Her people felt that she understood them, and that they had a queen whose chief pride was to be the greatest Englishwoman in the land.

She loved to show herself to her people, and to reply to their "God save your Grace" with a kindly "God save you all." Elizabeth's love of magnificence, such as rich dresses and jewels, fine processions, and feasts and pageants at the great houses she visited one after another, seemed to help the nation to recover its sense of pride, which had fallen low while Philip of Spain had treated England almost as if it were a dependency of Spain.

Under Elizabeth, Philip was defied, the Church was freed once more from the rule of the Pope, England took its part in the discovery of the New World, and especially showed her power upon the sea. These great times were matched by the greatness of English writers—Elizabeth's England was also Shakespeare's England.

§ 2. Queen Elizabeth rode into London for the first time in great state, but when she came to the Tower she remembered how she had sat in the rain on a wet stone outside the Traitor's Gate, unwilling to enter that way. Now she said: "Some have fallen from

being princes of this land to be prisoners of this place ; I am raised from being prisoner in this place to be prince of this land."

The queen was clever in her choice of ministers, and both she and England were well served by William Cecil (Lord Burleigh) who was Elizabeth's chief minister for forty years. When she appointed him she said : " This judgment I have of you, that you will not be corrupted with any manner of gifts, and that you will be faithful to the State ; and that without respect to any private will you will give me the counsel that you think best."

Henry VIII.'s ministers had learned that they would be in danger of losing their heads if they gave the king the counsel they thought best and it happened to cross his will. Elizabeth was wise enough to prefer to have honest advice, but she sometimes scolded her ministers sharply and even railed at them, and once she boxed an earl's ears. Once when the members of her Council displeased her she reminded them that, being their queen-sovereign, she had their lives and their heads in her hand.

Elizabeth dearly loved flattery, and she was too ready to pet and fondle her favourites, such as the handsome Earl of Leicester,\* but flatterers could not deceive her in any important matter.

## 17. Elizabeth and the Church

§ 1. At the beginning of her reign Elizabeth was faced with two great difficulties.

\* Scott's story of Leicester and the queen and Amy Robsart in *Kenilworth* is partly founded on history.

The first was how to treat Philip II. of Spain, who had been her sister Mary's husband and now wanted to keep England dependent on Spain and the Pope. He soon asked Elizabeth to marry him, but she refused. When her first Parliament ventured to send her a written address of advice about marriage, she drew her coronation ring from her finger and held it out to the members of the House of Commons who had brought the address, saying that when she received that ring she had bound herself in marriage to the realm of England.

The break with the powerful Philip of Spain was pleasing to the country ; but it meant that, as he was not to be England's friend (or master), he was likely to become her enemy.

The other and greater difficulty which Elizabeth had to face at once was the settlement of the Church. She had been brought up in the early years of the Reformation, and she believed that every country ought to take the religion of its ruler, as had been settled in Germany after the first Protestant War. Accordingly, on the first Christmas Day after she became queen, she left her chapel when the priests began to say the old service of the mass in Latin. On New Year's Day she ordered that certain services should be said in English again in all churches.

Elizabeth found that Parliament approved of these actions, and so the Church of England was once more declared independent by an Act of Parliament ; but in this new Act of Supremacy Elizabeth was called "supreme Governor" instead of "supreme Head" of the Church.

The Act of Uniformity followed, by which an



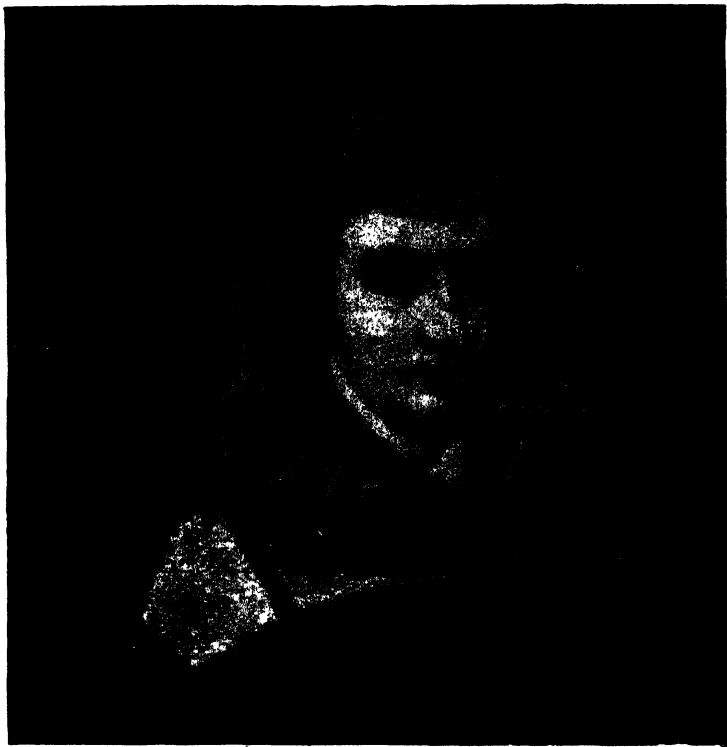
English Prayer-book (drawn up from the two of Edward VI.'s reign) was ordered to be used uniformly in all churches.

§ 2. Most people in England welcomed the Act of Uniformity, and the persecution of Mary's reign had made many of them hate the rule of Rome. Those who remained Catholics were not punished at first, except that they were fined twelve pence a week for not going to church, as it was the law then that every one must go every Sunday.

Later on the Pope excommunicated Elizabeth, as he had done Henry VIII., and declared that her subjects ought no longer to obey her, and Philip of Spain then began to threaten that he would force England to be Catholic once more. Many Jesuit priests came to England to keep English Catholics firm in their faith, and soon queen and Parliament began to fear plots and risings, especially when Mary, Queen of Scotland, who was a Catholic and next heir to Elizabeth's crown, fled to England under circumstances which will be explained later.

§ 3. Very severe laws were now passed against Catholics. The fines for not going to church were made so high that most men who paid them would be ruined; it was made high treason for a priest to say mass, or for any one to give shelter to such a priest. It was now that a "priest's hiding-hole" was made in many of the big houses owned by Catholics. This small secret room was opened by hidden springs which, when touched, caused a panel in the wall to slide back, or the frame of some great picture to open

inwards. These hiding-places became useful once more in the days of civil war in the next century.



Mary Queen of Scots.

(By Mytens.)

Many Catholics risked their lives attending the secret masses which the courageous Jesuits kept up wherever there were men of their faith, and many were discovered and hanged.

Elizabeth could not by an Act of Uniformity make all her subjects of the same mind about religion, and in spite of the example of Sir Thomas More's Utopians, who were said to allow every man to worship as he thought best, no Church then thought it right to allow others freedom of worship.

Laws against Catholics were followed by less severe ones against the new body of Puritans who wanted to sweep away every kind of ceremony in church services, even the use of music, surplices, and the ring in the marriage service.

In spite of some renewal of persecution, the Act of Uniformity settled the position of the Church of England as a national Church, independent of the Pope, with its own forms of service in English; and the greater part of the English people were members of it.

In the stirring times soon to come, men began to feel less hostile against those who differed from them in religion. But for over two hundred years Catholics could take very little part in English public life, except when there were kings who, for short periods, favoured them.

## **18. England and Scotland in the Sixteenth Century**

§ 1. In spite of Henry VII.'s attempt to draw England and Scotland together by marrying his eldest daughter, Margaret, to James IV. of Scotland, quarrels soon arose again between the two nations. Scottish history all through the sixteenth century was stormy and tragic.

When war broke out between England and France

early in the reign of Henry VIII., James promised to support France, an old friend to his country. He marched across the border with the finest army he could raise, but in a terrible defeat, at Flodden (1513), he was killed, and with him many of the highest and bravest of the Scottish nobles.

The king's young son, James V., grew up a Catholic, and he was drawn into war with England in much the same way, and defeated at the battle of Solway Moss (1542). Almost heartbroken, James V. lay dying when he was told of the birth of his child, Mary Stuart. The news was no comfort to the dying king, who murmured that "the kingdom came with a lass and it would go with a lass."

There were many plans about the baby Queen of Scots, whose French mother, Mary of Guise, ruled as regent. It was suggested that she should marry the boy-king Edward VI. History might have been very different if she had, but the plan was ended by another quarrel and another battle (Pinkie), in which the Lord Protector, who was governing for Edward, defeated the Scots.

Mary's mother sent the child, at six years of age, to be brought up in France, and with her went four little daughters of Scottish nobles, all named Mary, who were afterwards called "the Queen's Marys." Mary was married very young to the heir to the throne of France, and before she was seventeen she became Queen of France.

By this time Queen Elizabeth was reigning in England. But as she had no children, Mary was the next heir to the throne of England, because she was a granddaughter of Henry VII.'s eldest daughter. When

Elizabeth settled that England should be a Protestant country, the Catholics thought they were no longer bound to obey her, and they would have liked Mary to be queen. Mary and her husband even began to call themselves King and Queen of England.

Meanwhile, under the rule of Mary's mother, Scotland and England were quarrelling again. At last Elizabeth sent an army north, and then an agreement was made that the French were to leave Scotland and the Scottish Protestants to be free to worship in churches of their own.

Just at this time the King of France died, and the following year Mary, a widow of nineteen, with no children, came back to rule her own kingdom of Scotland.

§ 2. Mary Stuart was one of the most beautiful and fascinating women of history. One of her Scottish nobles went to Edinburgh with other Protestants to show the young queen that they must have their own way, but he complained that there was about her "some enchantment by which men are bewitched." She had learned the graceful manners of France, which dazzled the rather rough Scottish nobles, even while they were left puzzled and suspicious about Mary's real feelings.

Mary won many Scottish hearts by her love of outdoor sports; she could ride for hours on the moors without being tired, and once she said she wished she could be a man and know what it was like to sleep out on the ground in a campaign and walk the streets with a buckler and broadsword. There are stories of her dressing as a young man and strolling in the streets of

Edinburgh in the evening. She also indulged sometimes in the habits of great French ladies, and lay in bed half the day, receiving visitors in her bedroom, and then danced nearly all through the night.

Mary had much of the Tudor spirit ; she was clever as well as lively and fascinating, and she both loved and hated passionately. If she had married a strong, wise man her reign might have been a fine one ; but she was first unfortunate and then headstrong, and she brought tragedy upon herself and Scotland.

### 19. Mary Queen of Scots

§ 1. The Scotland over which Mary came back to rule was no longer a Catholic kingdom, although Catholics and Protestants were still more evenly divided there than in England. Since the death of James V., a great Protestant preacher named John Knox had drawn many people away from the old faith ; monasteries had been suppressed, and a strong Reformed Church had been founded in Scotland.

John Knox was the one man Mary could not win over ; he had written a book against the " Monstrous Regiment (rule) of Women " because he was shocked to see queens reigning in both England and Scotland. Mary, on her side, was quite unshaken by Knox's attempts to turn her from the Roman Church.

Both Scotland and England soon began to plan once more for Mary's marriage. Queen Elizabeth even suggested that she should marry her own favourite, the Earl of Leicester, because she would never be able to make him an enemy of England. Elizabeth seems

to have felt a jealous curiosity about this lovely young queen who claimed to be her heir. Once she asked the Scottish ambassador whether she or Mary was the more beautiful, and he very cleverly replied that "they were both the fairest ladies in their countries." When he was called upon to say which played best upon the virginals (an early kind of piano) he could answer truthfully that Elizabeth did.

Mary soon settled the problem of her marriage for herself, for she fell in love with Lord Darnley, a cousin of the family of Stuart,\* who had a claim to the throne of England too. This strengthened Mary's own claim to be Elizabeth's heir.



Darnley, however, was a Catholic, and the Scottish Protestants rose, under the Earl of Murray, against the marriage; but Mary herself rode out to meet them at the head of an army, with pistols in her belt, and Murray fled over the border.

Unfortunately Darnley soon made Mary very unhappy; he was only twenty and wanted to live a life of pleasure, and spent much of his time in training horses and playing tennis. Although he was very much vexed if he were not treated as king, he was no help at all in governing Scotland.

Mary trusted chiefly to the advice of her clever Italian secretary, David Rizzio, and Darnley became

\* Darnley was descended from the same Margaret Tudor by her second marriage.

jealous of him. One night when Rizzio was with Mary in a room at Holyrood Palace in which she was having supper, Darnley burst open the door and sent in two of his companions to murder Rizzio.



Lord Darnley and his younger brother.

*(From the painting by Lucas de Heere [1534-84] in Windsor Castle.)*

Mary never forgave Darnley for this murder, and one day she is said to have exclaimed bitterly that unless she could be free of him she would have no more pleasure in life.



§ 2. Soon after this the only child of Mary and Darnley was born, the prince who later became James I. of England, and was the first king to reign over both kingdoms. Queen Elizabeth was his god-mother, and sent a gold font for his christening, which took place in Stirling Castle chapel by torchlight.

After this Mary seemed to forgive Darnley, who was ill, and she had him moved to an old, somewhat dilapidated house outside Edinburgh, where she visited him every day. One night, when Mary was at a ball at Holyrood, the old house was blown up with gunpowder, and Darnley was found lying dead outside. This happened a year after the murder of Rizzio.

All Scotland was shocked by Darnley's death, and it was well known that Mary's most trusted friend and counsellor, the Earl of Bothwell, had planned the murder.

Bothwell was tried for murder in Edinburgh, but the city was so packed with his followers that if he had been declared guilty there would probably have been bloodshed and violence. He was acquitted, but all Scotland still believed that he was guilty. Soon afterwards he and his followers seized Queen Mary when she was travelling and carried her off, and then her people were shocked and dismayed to hear that she had married him.

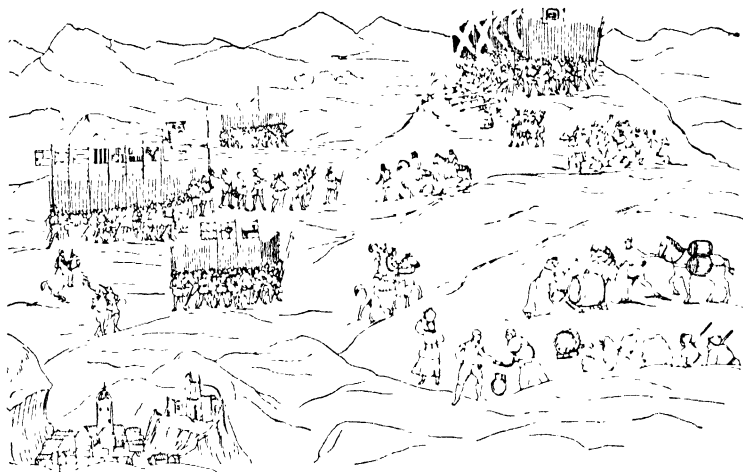
Later on a famous silver casket was captured from Bothwell's men, containing letters from Mary to him, which showed how they had plotted Darnley's death together. Some of the letters, however, had evidently been altered, and no one could be sure whether Mary really wrote them or not. Ever since that day Mary has had champions who have declared, first in speech



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS A PRISONER AFTER CARBERRY—W. HOLE, R.S.A.

and action, and then in history books, that she was innocent herself, and was terribly wronged by the plots of others.

§ 3. The shock of horror which ran through Scotland on the news of Mary's marriage to Bothwell helped



Queen Mary surrenders to the Confederate Lords at the battle of Carberry Hill, 1567.

*(From a contemporary drawing)*

the Protestant party to gain the chief power in the country, and soon Bothwell had to fly, and Mary was taken prisoner by a body of her own Scottish nobles. They declared that she must give up the crown to her baby son, James, and the Earl of Murray became Regent and ruled for him.

Mary's prison was a strong castle, consisting of little more than one great stone tower, on a small

island in the middle of the lake called Lochleven. From this castle she made one of the most famous escapes in history.\* A younger brother of the Douglas who owned Lochleven was won over by her charm and unhappiness, and made preparations for her escape. A youth of the castle household, whose heart she had also won, cleverly stole the keys after the castle had been locked for the night, and when Mary and her ladies had passed out to the boat he locked the doors again and flung the keys into the lake. In this way the queen escaped in one of the castle boats while the inmates were prisoners behind the great doors.

Mary's freedom was very short. The Scottish nobles who gathered round her were brave and loyal, but rash; the Earl of Murray and his friends were better soldiers, and Mary watched the defeat of her little army and had to mount her horse and fly for her life. After a ninety-mile ride she reached the Solway, and decided to cross to England by boat and throw herself on the mercy of Elizabeth.

Elizabeth would not welcome Mary herself, but she arranged for her to be kept as a prisoner-guest by first one English lord and then another, at their country houses. She would not send her back to Scotland to face trial and imprisonment there.

From the moment of Mary's arrival on English soil, the Catholics began to hatch plots to set her on the throne of England. There was a rising in the north first, whence a Catholic army marched south, stopping on their way to burn English Bibles and Prayer-books taken from the churches. This rising was suppressed, but plot followed plot, and one of Eliza-

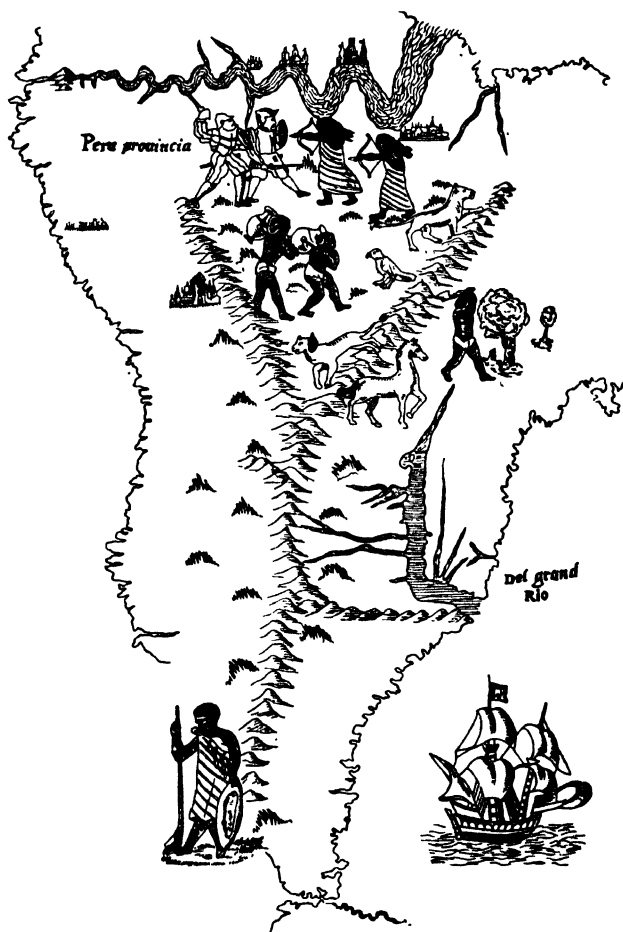
\* See Scott's *Abbot* for a good story of the escape, partly true.

beth's greatest subjects, the Catholic Duke of Norfolk, was beheaded for forming a plan to marry Mary and make her queen.

§ 4. Elizabeth's life was not safe amongst so many plotters, but she would trust herself openly in the midst of her people still, and one of the wise and clever statesmen whom she chose so well, Sir Francis Walsingham, watched over her very closely. At last Walsingham discovered a plot arranged by a young Catholic, Anthony Babington, who had been devoted to Mary ever since he had been a page in her household. Plans had been laid to murder Elizabeth, and Walsingham discovered that Mary had been writing to Babington. Philip of Spain had approved of the plot, and called it "the holy enterprise."

The indignant English Parliament now insisted that Mary must be tried for plotting against Elizabeth's life. The trial was held at Fotheringhay Castle, Mary's last place of imprisonment. She had been a prisoner in England for nearly twenty years, and during the last part of the time had suffered hardships from being constantly moved, even when she was ill, and to less comfortable prison houses. She had enough spirit to try to defend herself, but she was found guilty.

The punishment for Mary's crime was death, but for long Elizabeth would not sign her death-warrant, in spite of England's uneasiness and her own danger from Catholic plots abroad and at home. At last a warrant was rushed to Fotheringhay without giving her time to change her mind, and Mary was executed in the castle where she was a prisoner. She died bravely, bidding her ladies not to grieve too much.



#### PERU AND SOUTH AMERICA.

From the map of the World of 1544, usually ascribed to Sebastian Cabot. At the top is shown the river Amazon, discovered by Orellana in 1541. (See page 114.)

Elizabeth afterwards imprisoned the secretary who had hurried the death-warrant to Fotheringhay ; but the death of Mary, tragic though it was, gave England peace at home at last, and those Catholics who had plotted knew that they must submit to Elizabeth now.

## 20. Queen Elizabeth's " Sea-Dogs "

*Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake*

§ 1. Before Queen Elizabeth's reign England had played only a small part in the work of discovery. Portugal had been before her in sailing to the wonder cities of the East, and in making kings as rich as the caliph of the *Arabian Nights* yield up their treasures.

Spain had found the glowing islands of the West Indies and the amazing empire of Mexico, where gold plates and cups were used in every household, and men and women were gorgeous in rainbow-coloured feather dresses encrusted with beads of gold. Men had scarcely come to believe that such an empire had been discovered in the New World, when news came that Pizarro, the son of a Spanish swineherd, had conquered the Incas of Peru, an ancient line of kings whose realm was a treasure-house of gold, silver, rubies, and emeralds.\*

In the early years of the great age of discovery, Portugal and Spain were both seeking new ways to Asia, one sailing east and the other west, and they

\* See *By Right of Conquest* (Mexico), one of Henty's best stories, and "The Conquest of Montezuma's Empire" in *The True Story Book*, and "The Conquest of Peru" in *The Red True Story Book*.

very nearly went to war to settle their rival claims. Instead, they agreed to ask the Pope to decide which part of the world each should explore. In 1493 the Pope decreed that all the new lands discovered west of a Meridian line passing through the Atlantic Ocean should belong to Spain. But the Portuguese were not satisfied with this partition, and the next year,



Peruvian warriors of the Inca period.

*(From an ancient Peruvian painting.)*

by agreement with the Spanish, the dividing line was moved much farther west.

England made no objection. Henry VII. was more interested in encouraging the cloth trade with Flemish, German, and Scandinavian cities than in spending money on voyages of discovery,\* and Henry VIII. was still dreaming of conquering part of France. In Mary's reign there was little chance of English sailors trying to force their way into Spain's American empire, for the nation dared not offend the queen's husband, Philip of Spain.

Yet England had become a shipbuilding nation under the Tudor Henrys, and her seamen were fretting to

\* We must note, however, that when Columbus sent his brother to Henry VII. to ask for help, the king expressed his willingness to assist the explorer, but was too late.





play their part in the high adventure of exploring the New World. At first they turned to the north-east, and found the White Sea, and made their way from its shore to Moscow. Then they sought for a north-west passage to India, and so it came about that there are so many English names in that part of the map.\*

§ 2. In time English adventurers were no longer content to battle amongst icebergs and snowfields in a search for new passages to the East while Spain grew ever richer and mightier in the Southern Seas. So at last two bold Devon merchant sailors, William and John Hawkins, determined to open up a trade of their own with Spanish South America. Unfortunately John Hawkins found a new form of merchandise which he could collect for nothing in Africa and sell for gold in America. He followed the example of the Portuguese by capturing shiploads of negroes in West Africa and selling them in Brazil.

This slave trade made Hawkins one of the richest men in England, and the chances of both wealth and adventure soon drew other keen sailors into his service. Amongst these was young Francis Drake, a Devon boy, whose father, a Protestant clergyman, had been driven from his own county in Edward VI.'s reign because the men of Devon disliked the new English Prayer-book as much as the Cornishmen who had rebelled against a church service "like a Christmas game." (See page 86.)

In Elizabeth's reign Drake's father was made chaplain to the royal ships at Chatham, and so Francis was brought up amongst the finest ships afloat.

\* Frobisher, Davis, Hudson, etc.

At the age of eighteen Francis Drake possessed a small ship of his own, left to him by a captain he had served well, and in this ship he sailed from Plymouth with Hawkins on his first great voyage (1567). They were successful in their ventures, and loaded their vessels with Spanish gold and silver; but Philip of Spain had given orders that they were no longer to be allowed to trade on the Spanish Main, and when a storm forced them into a harbour they were first received with friendliness, and then, when they were off their guard, treacherously attacked.

Hawkins and Drake battled their way out to sea once more, but it was a narrow escape, and they pleaded their wrongs before Queen Elizabeth's Council, and asked that the Spaniards should be accused of treachery.

At that time the seafaring nations had an unwritten understanding that if a merchant vessel was robbed by a foreign ship the plundered captain should be given a licence from his government permitting him to attack other ships of the robber's nationality, and make good his loss by robbing them in his turn. If a captain with such a licence was captured by foreigners, they did not kill or ill-treat him, but the case was settled through Law Courts.

Elizabeth's government refused to give such a licence to Hawkins and Drake, and so Drake decided to sail without it and try to punish the Spaniards and make good his own loss by robbing them, although he knew that if he was captured he would be put to death without mercy.

With two small ships he set sail on this errand, and was away so long that his townsmen almost gave up



Sir Francis Drake.

(From an engraving in the British Museum, probably by  
Jodocus Hondius, about 1583.)

hope of his return. When his ship anchored in  
Plymouth Sound one Sunday morning (1573) men

and women poured out of the churches and down to the Hoe to hear his story. It was a stirring one. He had stormed Nombre de Dios and sacked other rich Spanish cities, and discovered how the wealth and treasure of Peru was brought across the isthmus of Panama by long trains of mules. Drake's plunder would have been far greater if he himself had not been seriously wounded, on seeing which his handful of men were disheartened.

§ 3. On this voyage, however, Drake had seen and learned enough to be fired with the determination to sail round the world ; for he had climbed the heights of Panama and gazed out over the Pacific Ocean, which no Englishman had described before, and which only Magellan had ever crossed.

Drake started with several ships on his wonderful voyage round the world in 1577, with Queen Elizabeth's permission. The vessel in which he himself sailed was not a large one ; it was called the *Pelican* when he left England, but when he entered Plymouth Sound again three years later it had been re-named the *Golden Hind*, which new name hints at part of its story.

The first ordeal the *Pelican* had to face was the long struggle through the Strait of Magellan, and, like Magellan himself, Drake had to put down treachery in his ships before he entered this dangerous passage. One of his party was tried and beheaded close to the spot where Magellan had hung his mutineers.

Once through the strait, Drake's voyage of discovery began. His small fleet was buffeted by a heavy storm and he was driven towards Cape Horn, the most southerly point of the world, of which nothing

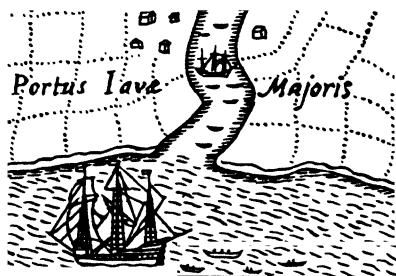
certain was known even to the brave sailors of those days.

After this the *Pelican* alone held firm to the purpose of sailing round the world. Luck favoured Drake, and before long he had captured a Spanish ship laden with treasure from Peru, and then he ventured into the port of Lima, the capital of Peru. At once a hue-and-cry was raised, a great alarm bell clanged, and soldiers dashed down to the Spanish ships in the harbour, buckling on their armour as they ran. Drake calmly rowed round the harbour and cut the cables which anchored their ships, and they drifted out to sea before there were enough soldiers and sailors on board to man them for action.

So Drake sailed gaily out of Lima harbour to the conquest of fresh prizes, and at last refitted his *Golden Hind*, now richly laden with Spanish gold and gems, for the great adventure of crossing the mighty stretch of the Pacific.

The great venture was carried through in triumph ; he rounded the Cape of Good Hope and came home with a tale of daring, treasure-snatching, and endurance which set all England astir.

The indignant King of Spain sent remonstrances to Elizabeth, and complained, justly, that Drake had robbed Spanish ships of far more treasure than he and

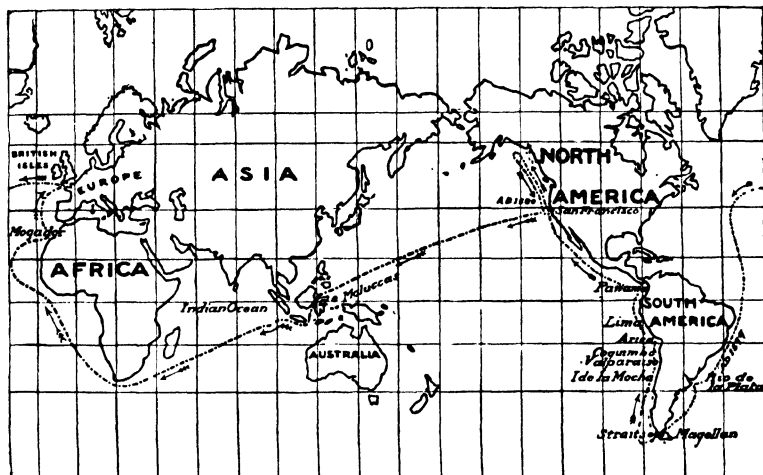


Drake's ship, the *Golden Hind*, at Java.

(From the chart of Drake's voyages.)

Hawkins were entitled to take to make good their loss of some years before.

On the 6th of April 1581, the Spanish Ambassador wrote to King Philip to describe how Elizabeth had acted towards Drake after receiving this remonstrance.\* She had herself visited the *Golden Hind* while it was



Drake's voyage round the world, 1577-80.

anchored near Greenwich, and had told Drake that she had a gilded sword with which to cut off his head ; but she handed the sword to a French friend of the Duke of Alençon (who was then hoping to be Elizabeth's husband) and bade him knight Drake for her instead. So the bold navigator knelt on board his own ship and rose as Sir Francis Drake.

\* Spanish State Papers (Public Record Office).

## 21. The First Dreams of a New England Overseas

*Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh*

§ 1. The sea called strongly to all Devon men in Queen Elizabeth's days. From Plymouth many a gallant little ship set sail for the New World, and the whole Devon coast was astir with travellers' tales of gold and galleons, of swarming cod-fish off Newfoundland, and of the "loathsome view of the shore and irksome noise of the ice" in the frozen waters of "Desolation" (Davis's name for Greenland).\*

Amongst the boys of Devon who, like Amyas Leigh in *Westward Ho!* drank in these tales when the ships came home were two half-brothers of old Devon families, Humphrey Gilbert and Walter Raleigh.

When Francis Drake's father was driven from his Devonshire parish because the people rose against the use of the English Prayer-book, Walter Raleigh's father had been shut up in a church tower and threatened with death for some days because he scolded an old woman who would still tell her beads and put her faith in holy water. In the next reign (Queen Mary's), the mother of Gilbert and Raleigh risked her own life by visiting in prison a poor woman who had been condemned to death because she would not give up the Protestant faith.

Humphrey Gilbert, who was a man while Raleigh was still a boy, dreamed first of a New England in America. He was not satisfied that England's share in the New World should consist only of the plunder

\* See Hakluyt's *Voyages*.



she could capture at sea. The search for a North-West Passage (round North America to China) seemed to him a finer quest than lying in wait for the mule-trains of silver in Panama, or Spanish treasure-ships.

If this passage could be discovered, he thought thriving English settlements might be founded in North America, where ships bound to and from China could refit, and where there would be new homes for "such needy people of our country which now trouble the commonwealth, and through want here at home are enforced to commit outrageous offences, whereby they are daily consumed of the gallows."

Both brothers tried to found such colonies and both failed, but they set a new vision before their countrymen. When Raleigh lay a prisoner in the Tower of London, in the next reign, he still declared his faith in the future of North America—"I shall yet live to see it an English nation," he said. He was disappointed in this hope, although he did see a colony settled in Virginia at last (1607), and only two years after his death the Pilgrim Fathers called at Plymouth in the *Mayflower* on their way to found the first real New England colony, about which we shall read later.

The great hopes founded on the North-West Passage were never fulfilled.\*

§ 2. Humphrey Gilbert had to be patient for a long time before he could get a hearing for his scheme. At first he put it before his friends as a great and high-

\* Explorers in 1851 discovered that such a passage does exist but is too dangerous for use. Amundsen actually sailed through it in 1905.

mindful adventure, and wrote eagerly that he was ready to face danger and loss of fortune in it because "he is not worthy to live at all that for fear of danger or death shunneth his country's service and his own honour."

This eloquent pleading won him no help in his plan, and at last he wrote a very different kind of letter, addressed to the queen, and called "a Discourse how Her Majesty may annoy the King of Spain." In this discourse he proposed to take possession of Newfoundland and lie in wait there to capture Spanish ships, and even some of the fishing vessels in search of cod-fish. By this means he hoped to collect a fleet under his own command, and then establish colonies.

In 1578 the queen at last granted Gilbert a charter, which permitted him to take possession of "any heathen or barbarous lands (in America) not occupied by any Christian king."

Gilbert's first start was a failure, but in 1583 he set out again with five ships, the smallest of which was called the *Squirrel*, from his family crest, and the motto under which he sailed was *Quid non* (Why not?). The queen herself gave him a model golden anchor supported by the figure of a lady, and she asked him to leave his portrait with her.

Walter Raleigh was not allowed to leave the queen's service to join the expedition, but he helped his half-brother in the preparations. One of the ships was supplied and fitted up by him, and called the *Raleigh*.\*

\* Not to be confused with the ship called the *Ark Raleigh*, and later re-named the *Ark Royal*, which was used as the flagship of the Lord High Admiral in the great fight against the Spanish Armada. (See page 145.)

Unfortunately the crew of the ship all fell sick soon after sailing, and it had to return to Plymouth.

Walter Raleigh at this time was one of the queen's young favourites and Captain of the Guard at her palace. He had first been sent to court to report on some fighting in which he had taken part in Ireland, and, according to an old story, he soon won the queen's heart by his grace and gallant politeness. The story runs Her Majesty meeting with a plashy place made some scruple to go on ; when Raleigh (dressed



Sir Walter Raleigh.

in the gay and genteel habit of those times) presently cast off and spread his new plush cloak on the ground, whereon the queen trod gently over, rewarding him afterwards with many suits for his so free and seasonable tender of so fair a foot-cloth." \*

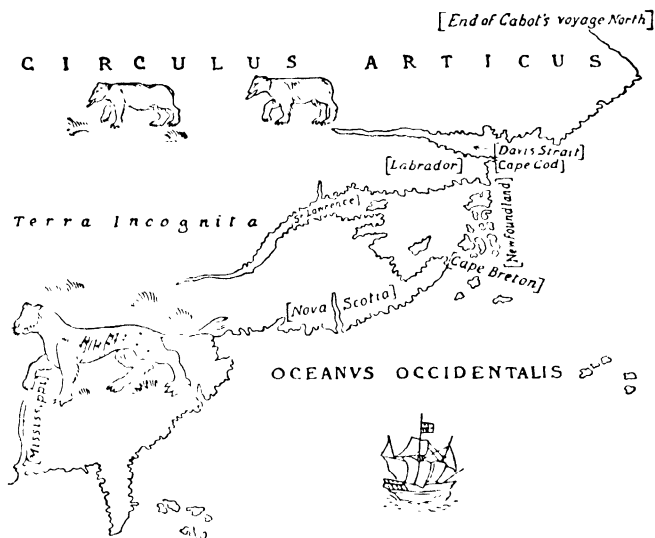
The favourite's fortune was soon made, and he became one of the *finest gentlemen of Elizabeth's court*. There is an account of the trial of a thief for robbing Sir Walter Raleigh of a jewel worth £80 and a hat-band of pearls.

While his brother stayed at court, Gilbert, after some misfortunes, reached Newfoundland, to which John and Sebastian Cabot had voyaged in 1497, and took possession of it in the queen's name and his own, setting up the arms of England on a pillar ; but when he wanted to go on to explore the mainland of North America troubles began. Gilbert was high-handed as well as high-minded, and not a good manager of men.

\* Fuller's *Worthies*.

One ship's crew deserted him, stole a vessel laden with cod-fish, and disappeared.

At last Gilbert set sail again with three ships—the *Delight*, the *Golden Hind*, and the *Squirrel*. He chose



Part of North America, showing Sebastian Cabot's voyage to Newfoundland.

[From the map of 1544, usually ascribed to Cabot. The names in brackets are inserted in order to make its references to Cabot's discoveries clearer.]

to sail in the *Squirrel* himself because a small ship was most convenient for exploring the coast.

Fortune did not favour Gilbert, and at last he agreed, for the sailors' sakes, that they should set sail for home and come back again in the spring. It was a tragic voyage. First the *Delight* sank, partly through



QUEEN ELIZABETH COMMISSIONS SIR WALTER RALEGH TO SAIL FOR AMERICA  
—A. K. LAWRENCE

Gilbert's fault. After this he was more than ever determined not to leave the over-weighted little *Squirrel* for the greater safety of the *Golden Hind*; when his friends pressed him he said, "I will not forsake my little company going homeward, with whom I have passed so many storms and perils."

The master of the *Golden Hind*, in telling this story,\* says that they met with such storms that "men which all their lifetime had occupied the sea never saw more outrageous seas." Once the *Squirrel* was almost swamped, and as she righted herself again, Sir Humphrey Gilbert was seen sitting on deck, with a book in his hand, and he cried more than once to the sailors on the *Golden Hind*: "We are as near to Heaven by sea as by land!"

That same night the anxious watchers on the *Golden Hind* saw the lights of the *Squirrel* suddenly go out, and "in that moment," as the master tells it, "the little ship was devoured and swallowed up of the sea."

The last words of Sir Humphrey Gilbert were not forgotten. As his fellow sailor wrote in his story, they were "well beseeeming a soldier, resolute in Jesus Christ, as I can testify he was."

§ 3. Sir Walter Raleigh carried on his half-brother's work, but still he could not persuade the queen to let him go himself to North America. He sent out several expeditions to found a colony, and the first, under Sir Richard Grenville, made a settlement on the new continent and called it Virginia, in honour of the queen (1585).

\* Hakluyt's *Voyages*.

The patience of the colonists soon failed. They went gold-seeking instead of growing crops, and when the natives refused to supply them with food they nearly starved. While Sir Richard Grenville was away fetching fresh supplies from England, Drake sailed to that coast, and the despairing colonists persuaded him to take them on board and sail for home.

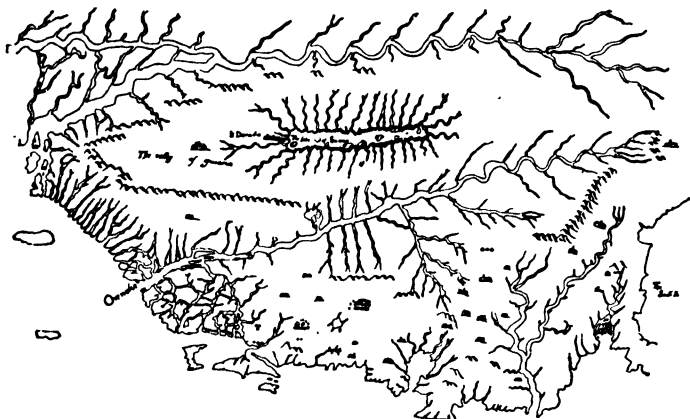
A second colony also failed to establish itself. Only when Raleigh fell from the queen's favour (by making a secret marriage with one of her ladies) was he free to leave the court and sail west himself. On this voyage (1595, seven years after the Armada) he travelled many miles up the Orinoco River, exploring Guiana, and brought back a glowing report of a land where there were "deer crossing in every path, the birds towards evening singing on every tree . . . cranes and herons of white, crimson, and carnation perching on the river's side; and every stone that we stopped to pick up promised either gold or silver by his complexion."

People were ready enough to read Raleigh's romantic account of Guiana, but his scheme won no favour with the queen, and the sailors and adventurers of the age had learned to look first for gold and plunder, and expected to make a fortune on a voyage. The real "spadework" of colonizing—the raising of crops and building of houses—seemed to them humdrum and irksome when they might be chasing Spanish galleons or finding gold mines.

True, Raleigh promised gold in Guiana, where he had tried to find the mystery city of Manoa, whose king was said to rub himself with sweet oil and then roll in gold dust until he shone from head to foot. But

Frobisher, too, had promised gold to discoverers, and then the stones he brought home proved worthless ; so might Raleigh's El Dorado (Golden Land) be no more than a dream.

Meanwhile the Spanish gold was real enough, and



Raleigh's map of Guiana, El Dorado, and the Orinoco coast.

*(From the original map, drawn by Raleigh, in the British Museum.)*

[This map, like so many of the older charts, has the south at the top, and the east on the left, while the Panama Isthmus is at the bottom on the right. The river above the "Lake of Manoa" is the Amazon.]

Raleigh found that he could play a great part in a raid on Cadiz and an expedition to the Azores. The time for proper colonies was not yet come.

## 2. Drake "singes the King of Spain's Beard"

§ 1. While Gilbert and Raleigh were eager to found colonies of Englishmen to take possession of lands in



the New World, the Spaniards grew more and more determined that no English sailors or other heretics should gain a foothold in the great empire they had conquered in America. After Drake's pirate raid they attacked English trading vessels, and sent captured crews to row as slaves in Spanish galleys.

Or they handed them over as heretics to the dreaded Spanish Inquisition, a body of priests whose duty was to root out every sign of disobedience to the Catholic Church. The Inquisition ordered many Englishmen to be tortured, and if they would not deny their Protestant beliefs they were burned at the stake.\* The stories of Spanish cruelty made Englishmen feel that it was punishment rather than robbery to capture their ships.

Philip of Spain reached the height of his power in 1580, when he conquered Portugal, the one country which had so far been Spain's great rival in founding an overseas empire. Later on he was encouraged in his desire to make England subject to him by the fact that Mary Queen of Scots, who had real claims on the English throne, left England to him in her will.

With all these causes of irritation it is not surprising that actual war broke out between Spain and England about the year 1585. Philip did not push on the war at first, because he was busy preparing the largest and grandest fleet that had ever put to sea, with which he expected to sweep Elizabeth's hardy but ragged sea-dogs off the water, and then have England at the mercy of his army, which was the finest in the world.

\* Kingsley's *Westward Ho!* illustrates this and many other incidents of the struggle between Spain and England, but gives Catholics little credit for anything but savagery.

Meanwhile the spirit of England was kept up by Drake, who swooped down once more upon rich cities of Spanish America and stormed and sacked them without mercy.

When the secret of Philip's Great Armada, now in preparation in all the Spanish harbours, became known, Drake determined on a very bold plan. He took twenty-five English battleships and sailed to Cadiz, the very headquarters of the Spanish fleet. Here he chose four of his ships to make a great venture—the *Bonaventure*, *Golden Lion*, *Rainbow*, and *Dreadnought*. These gallant vessels forced their way into Cadiz harbour and faced the great array of Spanish galleys, which immediately bore down upon them with their murderous steel-cased rams pointed at the enemy's sides to rip them open at close quarters.

The Spanish galleys never reached close quarters, although the galley slaves pulled at their oars with heaving chests and breaking backs. The four English ships waited until the last moment to disclose the deadly secret in which their calm strength lay; at last the heavy English guns, slung out through their portholes, all thundered at once, and the discharge of this sweeping broadside threw the Spanish vessels back upon one another in utter confusion.

§ 2. The Spaniards, secure in their pride and conquering glory, had not noticed England's *Great Harry* or the later battleships which had been built on the same model, lying low in the water, *with heavy guns in the body*. Spain had no real battleships; her fleet consisted of the "tall ships" that had been planned for trade, with high decks (one over another),



which could carry regiments, but not really heavy guns.

Drake's four ships wrought havoc amongst the galleys of Cadiz, and then he burnt the sixty vessels which had been prepared for carrying soldiers to England. Yet the Spaniards did not seem to understand the secret of his success; they believed that Drake's great daring and extraordinary luck were more to be feared than any new invention in shipbuilding. When Philip of Spain heard of the raid he stroked his beard nervously, and his admirals felt uneasily that there was meaning in Drake's boast that he had "sing'd the King of Spain's beard."

Philip now discussed peace with Elizabeth, but this was only to gain time while the Great Armada was completed. In the Netherlands, Philip had an army of seasoned troops under the greatest general of the time, the Duke of Parma. His plan was to form an avenue of Spanish ships across the sea from Flanders to England, and between these lines of armed vessels a number of flat-bottomed transport boats were to carry Parma's soldiers to the English coast. Philip looked forward to a conquering march on London.

### **23. The Great Armada (1588)**

§ 1. At last, on the 20th of May 1588, the Great Armada set sail. Although there were no men-of-war such as the English had, the four huge galleasses which led the way were probably the biggest ships afloat; they carried light guns on the upper deck, and were manned by soldiers, ready to board the English

vessels for hand-to-hand fighting. Their officers were in their armour, with gaily-coloured scarves across their breastplates and plumes in their helmets.

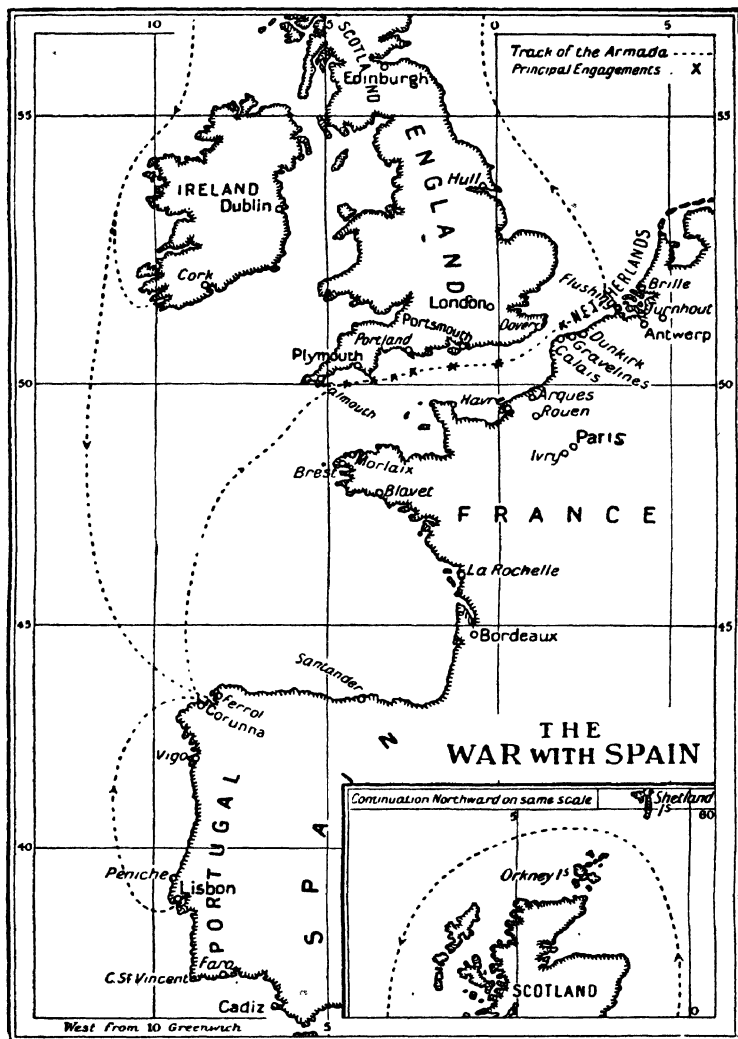
The flagship of the commander, the Duke of Medina Sidonia, carried a second banner with Christ on the cross on one side and the Virgin Mary on the other ; this was to show that the expedition was a crusade against heretics. There were about 130 Spanish ships, and all were armed sailing ships ; the lesson of Cadiz had made Philip give up the galleys dependent on oars.

Stormy weather and want of supplies made Medina Sidonia put into port once more to improve his arrangements, and to the English the Great Armada appeared to be mysteriously lost for seven weeks. Fear of a Spanish invasion died away, and Elizabeth and her Council, disliking the heavy expense of keeping a fleet waiting and watching in the English Channel, ordered the Lord High Admiral, Lord Howard of Effingham, to dismiss some of his ships. Fortunately, Lord Howard ventured to disobey the order, and kept the extra vessels at sea at his own expense.

On the 19th of July the Armada was sighted off the Lizard, passing up the Channel towards Plymouth. Here Drake was interrupted with the news at his famous game of bowls on the Hoe, and replied calmly, " There's plenty of time to win the game and thrash the Spaniards too."

The news was signalled from county to county by a chain of bonfires upon the heights.\* All depended on the English fleet, and as the ships dashed out of

\* See Macaulay's lines on the Armada.



Plymouth harbour before the Armada could block their way, even the high-hearted sea-dogs (amongst them Howard, Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher) must have known that it would not be an easy matter to "thrash the Spaniards."

The English had the secret of their broadside, but there were only thirty-four of the new battleships, and they were afraid of running short of ammunition. The armed merchant ships which had been summoned to swell the fleet were not as formidable as the galleasses and galleons of Spain, which were said to be "as high as churches,"\* and were drawn up in a crescent seven miles long.

§ 2. On Sunday, July 21, battle was joined. The Spanish vessels prepared to ram the enemy, and the soldiers stood ready on board with grappling irons in their hands to fasten on to the English ships while they boarded them. They could not even now understand why the English, instead of charging straight at them, turned their sides towards the enemy's beaks. Then suddenly the English broadsides thundered out again, and disabled Spanish ships were plunging wildly, throwing whole blocks of the Armada into disorder and confusion. The helpless Spaniards could not reply, because their light guns could not carry far enough to reach the English.

Satisfied with the result, Lord Howard drew off—he dared not exhaust his ammunition too fast, and his men were eager to board the Spanish wrecks and search them for gunpowder.

\* *Fugger News-letters*, Vol. II.

§ 3. The Armada proceeded up the Channel, uncertain what to do next, and Drake attacked and harried the ships as they went. Once the gallant Frobisher found his small vessel surrounded by the four galleasses, the pride of the Spaniards, but he held his own until help came. As the Armada approached Calais, the second half of the English fleet, which had been on guard there, came into action.

Medina Sidonia anchored off Calais, and told the French he had swept the English fleet out of the Channel and was only waiting for Parma's troops to punish that land of heretics, and bring them to submission and the true faith. But Parma was not ready.

It was Sunday evening once more when the English launched a new attack with fireships. The little blazing vessels, carried forward by a favouring wind, were "slung as suddenly as David's pebbles at the giant fleet lying sluggishly at anchor." \* The Spaniards, in face of this new danger, had to cut their cables and put out into the North Sea.

Off the coast of Flanders the British discharged the last broadsides for which they had ammunition into the Spanish ships, which were caught between their fire and the shallows on the other side. In this action, known as the battle of Gravelines, the Armada suffered deadly damage.

A German merchant, whose news-letters from his men of business in many cities brought him accounts by eye-witnesses of most of the stirring events of the times, has handed down a story of this battle as it was seen from the Flanders coast. The letter-writer, who

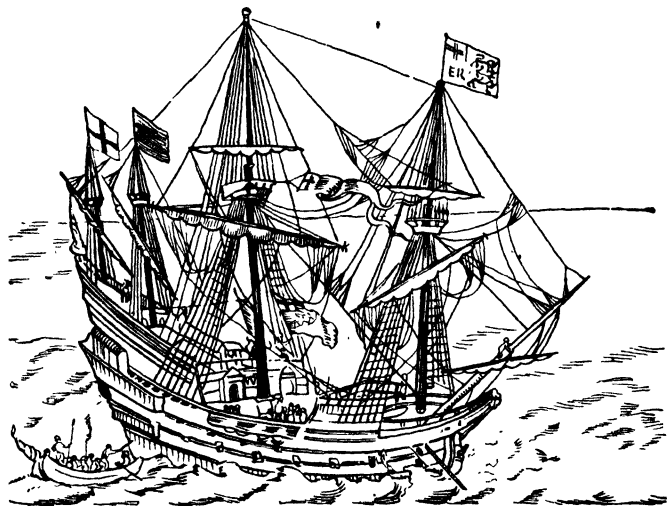
\* See Callender's *Naval Side of British History*, from which this modern explanation of the defeat of the Armada is taken.





SPANISH FLEET PURSUED BY ENGLISH FLEET OFF FOWEY.  
(From an engraving after the tapestry in the old House of Lords made soon after 1588.)

was on the side of the English, says, "On the 10th (August) the English again attacked the Spaniards afresh with all their forces and damaged them severely. The Spaniards were obliged to flee into the North Sea, but the English continued their pursuit. This night



An English ship in the Armada fight.

*(From a contemporary engraving of one of the tapestries in the old House of Lords.)*

the Prince of Parma tried to put out from Dunkirk, as the Spanish Armada had been seen to flee from there. Four large, well-found ships came out first, but, bless your heart, our ships played with them as a cat with a mouse, caught them at once and sank all four. The Spanish ships are lying up and down the coast like birds without wings. The English fire without intermission and shoot away sails, masts, stays, and all

rigging off the ships so that they are unmanageable. Whenever they drive the Spanish ships ashore they are lost." \*

§ 4. The Spanish vessels which escaped from Grave-lines plunged blindly into the North Sea, in a wild hope of sailing round Scotland and reaching friendly harbours in Catholic Ireland.

Now wind and storm completed their disaster. Storm-tossed, disordered, short of food and water, the great ships staggered or drifted on. Some were wrecked off the Shetland Isles, others struggled on to Ireland, but only reached the cruel coast of the Giant's Causeway, where five miles of beach soon lay deep in wreckage. One giant went down off the coast of Mayo; one crawled into the mouth of the river Shannon to beg piteously for water, in return for the ship itself and all that was in it.

The Great Armada was utterly broken. England was on the way to snatch the mastery of the seas from Spain. Men could not quite understand or believe what had happened when the first news reached them. Report after report came in to a German merchant, whose news-letters have already been mentioned. Amongst them was the account of a man who actually spent five days on Drake's ship, just after the Armada had been driven up the Channel to Calais.

He gives Drake's story : " From 21st to 26th (July) they had skirmished and fired heavily at each other, but they could not board, and the English with their little ships sailed so well and manœuvred so skilfully, firing meanwhile, that the galleasses could not get at

\* *Fugger News-letters*, Vol. II.

them. Drake captured Don Pedro de Valdez, admiral of fourteen vessels, and had him and ten other nobles brought on to his own ship. He gave them a banquet and treated them very handsomely and entertained them besides with trumpets and music. On this ship he took sixty guns and made 450 prisoners. Moreover he got yet another ship which caught fire of itself."

The same letter gives news of other captures in the Channel and the flight of the Armada, and ends wisely: "If this is true, it will somewhat abate Spanish insolence and give the English fresh courage, though they have no lack of insolence either."

Certainly between the "insolence" of Philip II. and of "that pirate Drake," as he was often called, even peaceful Dutch and German merchants found ocean trade an anxious business.

## 24. Two more Elizabethan Heroes

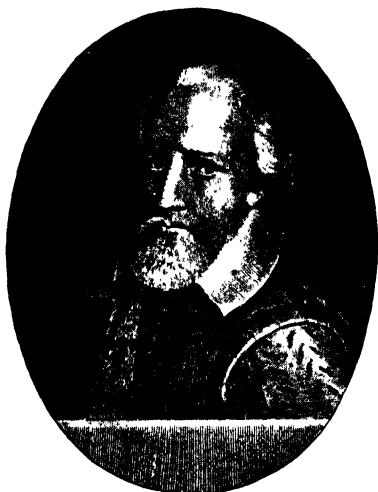
### *Sir Richard Grenville and Sir Philip Sidney*

§ 1. Fighting between England and Spain did not end with the Armada. The struggle was carried on until Philip's death in 1598, when Elizabeth herself had only five more years to reign. One great story of these fights at sea has come down to us as it was written by Sir Walter Raleigh\*; it tells how Sir Richard Grenville in his ship *Revenge* made a stand for fifteen hours against no less than fifteen "mighty Gallions" of Spain.

\* See Hakluyt's *Voyages*.

It was in the year 1591, when sixteen English vessels (six of which were Queen's ships) were riding at anchor off Flores in the Azores, and news was brought to them that a large Spanish fleet was drawing near. The English ships were in very bad condition and half their crews disabled by sickness,

and so the admiral (Lord Howard) decided to slip away without giving battle.



Sir Richard Grenville.

Sir Richard Grenville's sick men were on land, and by the time he had embarked them again the Spanish fleet was almost upon him. The master (chief sailor) of the *Revenge* urged him to cut his mainsail and trust to the wind carrying the ship out of the Spaniard's way; but "out of the greatness of his mind he could not be

persuaded." He said that he could not turn his back on the enemy—he would rather die than so dishonour himself, his country, and Her Majesty's ship, and, instead of taking to flight, he determined to charge straight into the enemy's fleet, trusting that the *Revenge* would cut her way through.

Several Spanish ships did give way to the plucky English vessel, but as the galleons closed in round the *Revenge* their great stretch of sail kept the wind



THE "ARK ROYAL," THE FLAGSHIP OF LORD HOWARD OF EFFINGHAM IN THE FIGHT  
AGAINST THE ARMADA, 1588.

*(From an engraving in the British Museum.)*

away from her and "becalmed his sails in such sort, as the ship could neither make way nor feel the helm."

Now the *San Philip* of Spain towered above the *Revenge* on one side, and other galleons pressed up to her on the other, until five great ships were all laid against her. The *Revenge* fired her broadside into the *San Philip*, which "shifted herself with all diligence from her sides, utterly misliking her first entertainment." It was as if an active terrier had shaken off a heavier and slower dog which had attacked it.

The other ships kept their places, and the Spanish soldiers tried to board the *Revenge*, which carried no soldiers.

All that day, from three o'clock when the fight began, until darkness fell, the *Revenge* kept her enemies at bay, although fresh relays of Spanish ships, with fresh soldiers, kept coming up to the attack.

When another day broke, the condition of the *Revenge* was pitiable. All her powder was spent, her pikes broken, her masts beaten down across the deck, and the whole upper part of the ship destroyed, so that she lay like a mere raft, almost flat on the water. Forty of her best men were killed and most of the rest wounded.

Even now the Spaniards did not know how to finish the work of destruction, and lay in a great ring all round the drifting wreck. Sir Richard Grenville himself was badly wounded, and "there remained no comfort at all, no hope, no supply either of ships, men, or weapons."

Grenville now proposed to his men that they should sink the ship, and "yield themselves to God, and to the mercy of none else ; but as they had, like

valiant, resolute men, repulsed so many enemies, they should not now shorten the honour of their nation by



Queen Elizabeth dressed for the thanksgiving after the defeat of the Armada.

prolonging their own lives for a few hours or a few days.”

Some agreed with him, but when the Spaniards, in admiration of their gallant fight, offered to give



them their lives and send them back to England, the sailors began to enter the boats which had been sent to take them off the *Revenge*.

Then at last Sir Richard Grenville knew he was "over-matched," and he was carried on to the Spanish admiral's ship to die. The Spaniards did all they could for him, and grieved at his death, for it seemed to them a wonderful thing "to see one ship turn toward so many enemies, to endure the charge and boarding of so many Armadas, and to resist and repel the assaults of so many soldiers."

Sir Walter Raleigh explains that Lord Howard could not turn back to help the *Revenge* when she was left behind, because with his small fleet, and half his sailors sick, it would have meant throwing away both the queen's ships and the lives of his men. Grenville took this risk because he could not bear the Spaniards to see him fly, but he is most to be honoured for waiting to take up all his sick men, when so many commanders of that time would have left some behind.

§ 2. Whilst English sailors were fighting for the freedom of the seas and the life of the Protestant religion, many English soldiers took part in the wars between Catholics and Protestants in Europe. Some fought for the French Huguenots who rose against the Catholics. It was in Elizabeth's reign that the terrible Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day, 1572, took place, when a great number of the Huguenots in Paris were put to death in their own homes.

Two years later the Protestants of the Netherlands, under William the Silent, stood out bravely against

Philip of Spain's Catholic army, which held them besieged in Leyden. The citizens of Leyden had eaten the last rat and the last green leaf they could find before their countrymen decided to flood the land by opening the great dykes which kept out the sea. The Spaniards had to fly before the great rush of water which poured over fields and farms, and ships sailed into Leyden with food for the starving soldiers and citizens.

Elizabeth at last sent a force to help the Protestants of the Netherlands in their stand for freedom. It was commanded by the Earl of Leicester, and took part in the battle of Zutphen (1586).



Sir Philip Sidney.

In this battle Sir Philip Sidney was mortally wounded. He was the very flower of Elizabeth's Court, a courtier who was also a soldier, a poet, and a man whom all could honour. Queen Elizabeth herself called him the brightest jewel in her kingdom.

§ 3. Sidney was alike the friend of the Elizabethan adventurers and the Elizabethan poets, who were beginning to make their age the most famous in the

history of English literature. He tried to sail with Drake in 1585, but the queen recalled him. To him Richard Hakluyt, an Oxford scholar, dedicated and presented his first carefully collected stories of great English voyages.

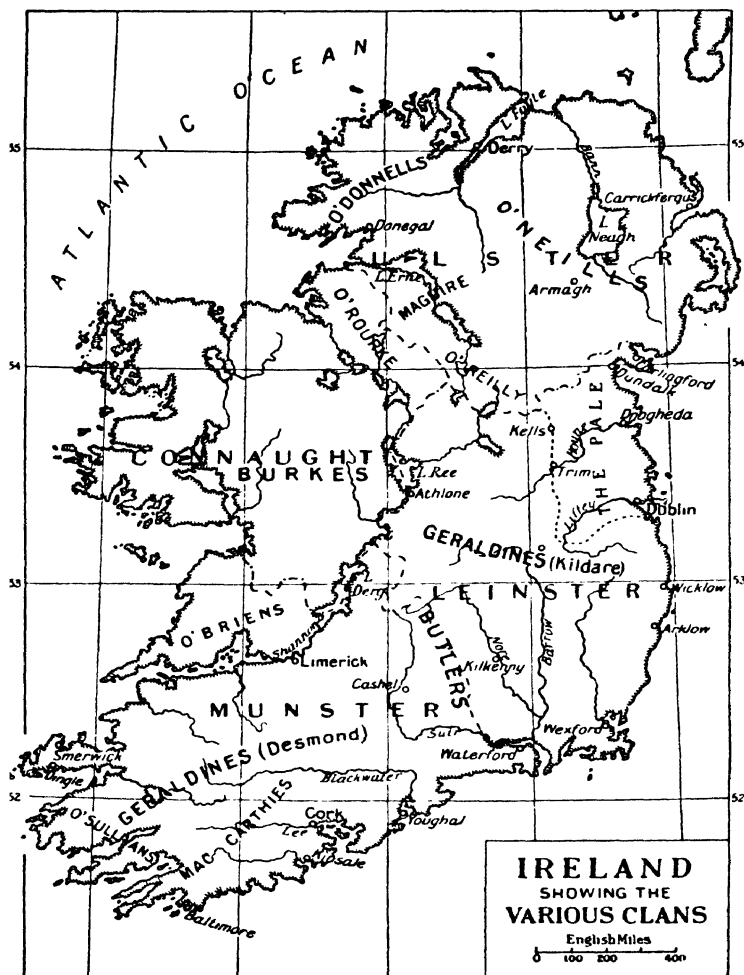
Sidney also befriended the poet Edmund Spenser, who commemorated him in a poem called "Astrophel." Sidney himself wrote a book called *Arcadia*, in which there are romantic stories in prose and verse about country life.

The story of Sidney's unselfish act not long before his death is, however, his best-known memorial. As he lay mortally wounded and suffering from thirst, a cup of water was brought to him. He was about to drink eagerly when he saw a soldier lying by his side, looking longingly at the cup, and he then pushed the water from him and made a sign that it should be given to the other wounded man. "Thy need," he said, "is greater than mine."

Although the battle of Zutphen was of little use, Sidney died for the cause of religious freedom, and in the end Holland won her independence, while the Southern Netherlands (now Belgium) remained Catholic under the rule of Spain.

## 25. Ireland under the Tudors

§ 1. The long struggle with Spain for the independence of a Protestant England and the freedom of the seas came to an end with the century. Hawkins and Drake lost their lives in a last expedition to the Spanish Main, upon which they set out in 1595, and in



1598 Philip of Spain died. The bitterness, cruelties, heroism, and adventure of the days when Elizabeth's sea-dogs harried the mighty empire of Spain, from Cadiz to Peru, began to give place to the new interests of quieter days.

The only disturbance of the last five years of Elizabeth's reign was a rebellion in Ireland. That country was in an unhappy state under the Tudor kings and queens.

Henry VII. had allowed the Irish nobles to become too powerful, but Henry VIII. made the ruling power of England felt once more. He had also established the Protestant religion in Ireland and suppressed the monasteries. The country was thus left without schools of any kind, and none of the nobles made it their duty to teach the people how to cultivate their land and rise above a state of wretched poverty.

Under Elizabeth many of the Irish people were still wild and almost savage, and oppressed alike by their own chiefs and the English. Sir Philip Sidney wrote of them: "Under the sun there is not a nation that live more tyrannously than they do one over the other."

A German merchant who noticed the Irish soldiers fighting under the Earl of Leicester in the Netherlands, at the time of the battle of Zutphen, described them in these words: "These Irishmen are almost all naked and have their bows and arrows with them. They are very quick runners, and there are also some hundreds of them who go on stilts the height of a man. They are to walk through the moats surrounding the towns and climb the walls." \*

\* *Fugger News-letters*. See also Motley's *United Netherlands* (1904 edition), Vol. II.

Evidently the Irish were not wanting in spirit. During the war with Spain there were often attempts to draw the Irish, who clung to the Catholic Church, into rebellion against Queen Elizabeth; but they met with little success, and after the defeat of the Great Armada, Ireland settled down, though not contentedly, under English rule.

In 1598, ten years of rather sullen and unhappy peace in Ireland were broken by a revolt in the North, under O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, who had been educated in England and was a spirited and clever leader. His Irish army actually defeated the English.

§ 2. The young Earl of Essex, a stepson of Leicester, and the last of Elizabeth's favourites, who was sent to subdue Tyrone, was inclined to make a friendly agreement with him.

But Essex returned to England, the rebellion was suppressed by a sterner commander, and English forts were set up to threaten the unruly Northern Irish. The English governors then set themselves to make Ireland as English as possible in government, law courts, land-owning, and customs.

The Irish revolt led to the downfall and death of Elizabeth's brilliant young favourite, Essex. He had, like Raleigh, already fallen from her favour by marrying, but he was in time forgiven that. He had won a knighthood on the battlefield of Zutphen, and had taken part in a successful raid on Cadiz, when he and Raleigh, between whom there was much rivalry, had generously praised each other's leadership.

Essex was at heart generous and quick to see the good in men and causes, and a lover of literature; but

he was proud and hasty, and spoiled by the queen's favour. He was the earl whose ears she boxed when he showed impatience and turned his back on her at a Council. Essex, equally angry, rushed from the room, exclaiming that he would not have taken a blow even from Henry VIII., and adding some rude words about "a king in petticoats."

After his failure to carry out the queen's wishes in Ireland he was charged with disobeying orders. In his anger and surprise at losing Elizabeth's favour, he formed a wild plot to march on the palace with a body of followers, force his way to the queen and make her dismiss his enemies from the Council. He was seized, tried, and at last executed for treason.

There is a story that Queen Elizabeth had once given him a ring which he was to send to her if he ever needed her forgiveness or help. The queen is said to have waited in hope that the ring would come, as she wanted to pardon him. When it did not come, she believed he was too proud to ask forgiveness, and so let him go to his death. Other stories describe how Essex did send the ring, but his messenger failed him, and it never reached the queen.

The death of Essex saddened the queen's last years. But she won great gratitude from Parliament and people by giving up, at the wish of Parliament, the custom of granting monopolies, by which one man received the right of selling certain goods, and no one else could then do so. When Parliament thanked her, she replied finely, "I count the glory of my crown that I have reigned with your loves."

## 26. The Great Elizabethan Writers

Elizabeth's reign was not only glorious for victories at sea and great statesmen; it was one of the greatest periods in the history of English literature. Amongst the Elizabethan writers whose names will never be forgotten, the greatest, of course, is that of William Shakespeare, of world fame.

There was also Edmund Spenser, whose long poem, *The Faerie Queene*, describes the court of a great Queen Gloriana (who in some ways represents Elizabeth herself), and tells the heroic stories of the knights who served this queen and travelled to many lands righting wrongs, destroying cruel



Edmund Spenser.

dragons and wicked tyrants, and setting free maidens who represented Beauty, Truth, and Goodness.

Sir Philip Sidney first befriended Spenser, who began to write *The Faerie Queene* at his house (Penshurst), but it was Sir Walter Raleigh who brought the poem to the queen's notice. Elizabeth granted Spenser a pension of £50 a year, although her lord treasurer exclaimed indignantly, "All this for a song."

Another great writer and thinker of the reign was



Francis Bacon, a lawyer who was first helped to rise by the Earl of Essex. Bacon wrote a book of fine *Essays* (1597), and then another on *The Advancement of Learning*, and in the next reign he followed this with a great work on the growth of knowledge, and how men ought to improve upon and extend the knowledge of the past.\*



Penshurst, Kent (Sidney's home).

In this reign, too, the first great English plays were written and acted. (See next chapter.)

Queen Elizabeth died in 1603. She had trusted in her people and they had trusted her. Not long before the end of her reign the King of Denmark offered to make peace for her with Spain. Elizabeth replied: "England hath no need to crave peace," and that she herself had not "endured one hour's fear since she had worn the crown, being guarded with so valiant and faithful subjects."

\* Bacon's *Novum Organum*.

There was no child to succeed her, but she had made good her words to Parliament, when members pressed her to marry in her youth so that she might have an heir, and she had replied: "Do not upbraid me with miserable lack for children; for every one of you, and as many as are Englishmen, are children and kinsmen to me."

When she lay dying she was pressed to name her successor, and she replied that her throne had always been the seat of kings, and only a king must succeed her. So she gave consent that on her death, James VI. of Scotland, the son of the unhappy Mary Queen of Scots, should become James I. of England.

## 27. William Shakespeare (1564–1616)

### *The Rise of the English Theatre*

§ 1. No man has brought more honour to his country than William Shakespeare. For over three hundred years his plays have stirred and delighted the peoples of many nations, and his words have enriched the talk of Englishmen and given them many thoughts—some brave and fine, some gay, some comforting—with which to face the common happenings of life.

There is a well-known story of an old lady who went to see the tragedy of *Hamlet* for the first time and complained that Shakespeare was not a very original writer, because she thought the play was "so full of quotations." It was because so many of Shakespeare's lines and phrases had passed into

English talk, three hundred years before, that she could not understand that he had been the first man to think of them.

Amongst the phrases in *Hamlet* which the old lady would probably know without seeing or reading the play would be "Sweets to the sweet"; "the observed of all observers"; "brevity (shortness) is the soul of wit"; and the often quoted opening of one of Hamlet's speeches: "To be, or not to be: that is the question." In this play, too, Shakespeare, remembering the lanes of his Warwickshire home, wrote of "the primrose path" of pleasure (he calls it "dalliance"), and contrasted it with the "steep and thorny way to Heaven."

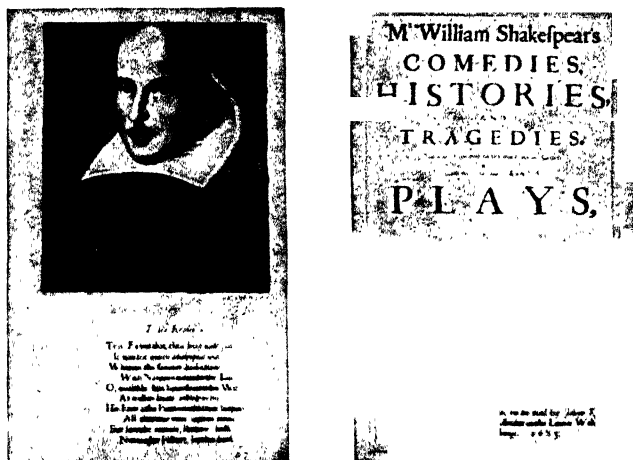
Very often there would be several lines together which the old lady would know already, such as:

"This above all: to thine own self be true,  
And it must follow, as the night the day,  
Thou canst not then be false to any man."

In another play, *Twelfth Night*, Shakespeare wrote "Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them." He himself was born with the gift of genius, but he did not belong to a great or wealthy family. His father had sold farm produce in Stratford-on-Avon and married a farmer's daughter, and a year after his son William's birth he became an alderman. The beautiful old house in which Shakespeare was born at Stratford is now open to visitors as a museum.

At Stratford, too, may be seen the old Free Grammar School where Shakespeare learned Latin. Boys had to be able to read before they were admitted to the grammar school, and Shakespeare probably learned

from an old horn-book. These were cards in a frame of wood with a handle (shaped rather like a battledore), with a thin sheet of horn over the face of the card. On them was printed first a cross, then the A B C, and some syllables to read (such as ab, eb, ib), and then the Lord's Prayer.\* Some children called it their

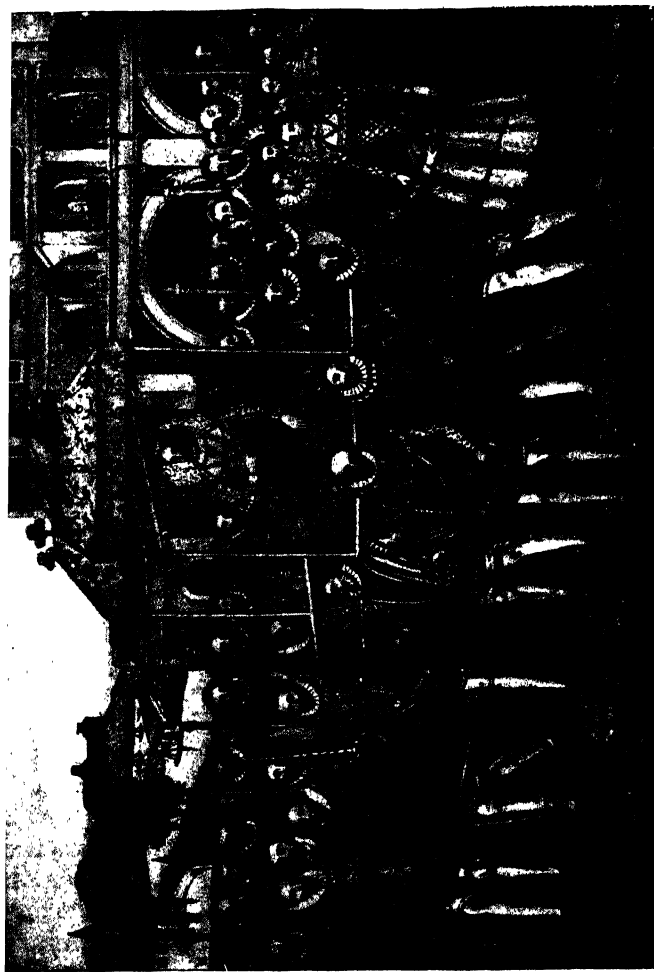


Frontispiece and title page of the Fourth Folio of the plays.

“ criss cross row,” and in one of his plays Shakespeare calls it an “ absey-book.”

In the plays there are several quotations from the Latin grammar which Shakespeare used at school, and in *The Merry Wives of Windsor* he gives a scene in which a schoolmaster asks a boy Latin grammar questions.

\* A horn-book was found recently during repairs to the wall of the cottage where Anne Hathaway (Shakespeare's wife) lived.



VISIT OF QUEEN ELIZABETH TO BLACKFRIARS TO CELEBRATE THE MARRIAGE OF  
LORD HERBERT, JUNE 16, 1600.

*(From an engraving after the picture probably by the contemporary artist, Marcus Gheeraerts.)*

§ 2. Shakespeare left school when he was about fourteen, and by this time his father had fallen into debt and was not in such a good position, and it is believed that he helped him in his trade as a butcher. When he was only eighteen Shakespeare married, and he probably found it difficult to keep his family, as he had to leave Stratford because he was afraid of being tried and punished for poaching. He soon determined to try to make his fortune in London, and became an actor there.

This was almost a new kind of employment. Before Queen Elizabeth's time there had been no English plays except the old Mystery and Miracle Plays, by which the Church taught people the stories of the Bible and the lives of the saints, and the Morality Plays, in which virtues and sins were represented as characters.

But the spirit of adventure and the eagerness for a full life which awoke in this great reign did not only inspire sailors and explorers ; there were also what might be called voyages of discovery in literature and the new form of play, and essays, such as Bacon's, were amongst them. Probably Queen Elizabeth's love of pageants caused the great nobles, who had to entertain her at their country houses, to encourage companies of players ; some of them even kept a company of their own to act for them whenever they chose.

Long plays with well-drawn characters were written and acted before Shakespeare came to London. The best of the playwrights who came before him was Christopher Marlowe, son of a Canterbury shoemaker, who led a wild life and was killed young in a scuffle at

an inn. Shakespeare learned much from Marlowe, and used one of his unfinished plays in his *Henry VI*.

Another great Elizabethan playwright was Ben Jonson, in whose play, *Everyman in His Humour*, Shakespeare acted a part. He is commemorated in the Poets' Corner of Westminster Abbey by the simple but pleasing words : " O rare Ben Jonson."

§ 3. When Shakespeare came to London there were only two theatres. The custom had been for actors to travel about and give performances in the courtyards of inns. Every important inn had a big yard, into which the coaches just coming into use could be driven, and there were galleries all round on to which the upper rooms opened. Those who stood or sat in these galleries had a good view of the stage, which was set up at one end of the yard. The most important people had seats on the stage itself; the poorer ones paid to stand in the unroofed yard, and brought stools if they wanted to sit.

There was no scenery to make the stage look like a town or a castle or wood, as the story required, and so an actor often came on first and spoke a prologue to explain to the people how and where the story opened.

Of course the rough life of an actor at inns was not fit for women, and the women's parts were taken by boys. This is one reason why Shakespeare so often made his heroines dress as boys.

It was difficult for actors to make a living, and an Act of Parliament in 1572 declared that every actor who was not in the service of some nobleman must have a licence to act from two magistrates, or else he might be

imprisoned as a "rogue, vagabond, or sturdy beggar." Shakespeare himself joined the Earl of Leicester's company of players.

There were also two companies of child actors, of which the chief was the Children of Queen Elizabeth's



The Globe Theatre at Southwark.

(From a drawing in the British Museum.)

Chapel, who sang in the chapel at Windsor and acted for the queen. Their masters were even allowed to seize children in the streets and carry them off to be trained in the school of the Children of the Chapel. The real actors found that performances given in London by these children sometimes drew people away from the usual plays at inns and theatres. Shakespeare complains of them in *Hamlet* as "little eyasses"





THE FIRST PERFORMANCE OF "THE MERRY WIVES OF WINDSOR," 1599—EDGAR BUNDY, R.I.  
(By kind permission of the Artist.)

(hawks), who were "most tyrannically clapped" for their performances, which became the fashion. One kidnapped boy, with the strange name of Salathiel Pavey, became famous for acting old men's parts. He died at thirteen, and Ben Jonson wrote some verses in his memory in which he said that Salathiel played an old man so well that Death mistook him for one.

§ 4. The first theatre in London was founded by an actor \* in the Earl of Leicester's company outside the city, as plays within the city were often forbidden on account of the spread of plague. The famous Globe Theatre, where many of Shakespeare's plays were first acted, was opened in 1597. Like all the early theatres, it was built very much like an inn-yard, but in a circle instead of a square, with thatched roofing over the stage and the three galleries (one above the other), and the "yard" in the middle open to wind and rain. Its sign was a figure of the giant Atlas bearing the world (or globe) on his shoulders.

Shakespeare was thinking of the Globe Theatre when he wrote the prologue to *Henry V.*, explaining the scene of the play :

" . . . Can this cockpit hold  
The vasty fields of France ? or may we cram  
Within this wooden O the very casques  
That did affright the air at Agincourt ? "

He urges the audience to make up for the want of scenery by using their imagination :

" Think, when we talk of horses, that you see them  
Printing their proud hoofs into the receiving earth ;  
For 'tis your thoughts that now must deck our kings."

\* Burbage.

§ 5. When Shakespeare first joined a company of players he had not only to act but to help to prepare new plays from old ones, and to re-write old stories and histories as plays. When he was found to be good at this work, he did more and more of it, and soon began

to write new plays himself. He nearly always used some old story for a plot, but when he began to add to it, and to make the characters grow and live in his own splendid language, his genius soon drew men's attention.

In this way fame came to Shakespeare. Men felt that no one else could write such great plays, and that nothing so thrilling and moving as his tragedies, or so charming and funny as his comedies, had ever been seen before. A great number of his plays were acted before Queen Elizabeth, and

it is said that *The Merry Wives of Windsor* was written because she wanted to see Falstaff (the fat knight of *Henry IV.* and *Henry V.*) in love.

Probably the Elizabethans did not guess that Englishmen would still be proud of Shakespeare and delight in his plays three hundred years after his death, and so less was recorded or handed down about his life than is the case with most great men. We know



The Shakespeare bust in the Parish Church, Stratford-on-Avon.

that he lived on into James I.'s reign and died in 1616, and that he spent his last years in Stratford, where he bought land and a fine house called New Place.

Shakespeare was one of those men who, in the words of a later writer, found the world "so full of a number of things" that he was too busy living to stop and think about his fame after death.

### 28. Town Scenes in Shakespeare's Days

§ 1. The London of Shakespeare's days was a city full of life and colour and noise, where the new coaches rattled over the cobbles of the narrow streets, driving the jostling "gallants" into doorways, lest their silk stockings and plush cloaks should be spattered with mud.

The black-and-white timbered houses, each storey a little wider than the one below, leaned out over the cobbles in all England's great towns, so that people in the upper windows could almost shake hands across the streets. These houses were not unlike the prows of the old sailing ships which towered over the sea.

In such streets the merchants and their families lived. The great London houses of the nobles were built on a different plan, copied from the Italian palaces which they had seen on their travels. Towards the end of the century more stone and brick were used.

This picturesque London had its dark side too. It was difficult for the citizens to keep either themselves or their houses clean, with neither drains nor carts to carry off the rubbish, and plague often spread from one

narrow street to another. When the plague became really bad, the citizens received orders to burn their rubbish in bonfires in front of their houses, three nights a week at seven o'clock. Westminster School and other bodies of people had houses outside the city to go to in times of plague, and so had all the colleges at Oxford.

The small towns did not escape this dread plague either, and the Elizabethan citizen needed to be a



London Bridge in the year 1600.

hardy man, for he had to live amongst smells which we could not endure to-day. When chimneys became general in Tudor houses, a writer of the day \* complained that men had far more colds now that there was no smoke to breathe in to harden the chest and lungs.

Although its streets were narrow, London had one of the finest highways of the world in the Thames, on which every nobleman kept his barge for state occasions,

\* Harrison.

which could be decked with tapestry and cushions, and in which he and his guests and musicians would travel under the care of his own watermen in the family livery. At every flight of steps leading to the river was a host of watermen with small boats crying for passengers—"Eastward Ho!" and "Westward Ho!"

London Bridge deserved its name, for it was then the only way across the Thames. It had houses built on either side of it, where some of the most fashionable shops were to be found; the middle part could be raised when any tall boat had to pass under. A tower with a gate guarded this drawbridge in mid-river, and the heads of traitors who had been executed were sent here to be set up on poles, for a warning to citizens who came and went across the bridge.

If the streets were dirtier, the river was cleaner than it is to-day, and could be described by a poet as London's "silver crystal stream," and by an Italian visitor as "the broad river of the Thames, most charming and quite full of swans, white as snow."

§ 2. A favourite London meeting-place was the middle aisle of St. Paul's Cathedral, where men went to hear the news, see their lawyers, show off their fine clothes, steal purses, seek for new masters, or forget old troubles in the lively jostle. Ben Jonson's play *Everyman in his Humour* shows a scene in this famous "Paul's Walk."

Here might be seen the Elizabethans' gay taste in dress, in which they showed the same adventurous spirit as in their employments. While seafarers

brought back gold and gems from the Spanish Main, gentlemen who travelled in Europe brought back one fashion from Italy, another from France, and a third from Germany. Shakespeare makes fun of this in the *Merchant of Venice*, where Portia says of an Englishman: "I think he bought his doublet in Italy, his round hose in France, his bonnet in Germany."



Costume, 1575.

Not content with rich stuffs and bright colours, Englishmen had their doublets (worn in place of coats) cut into points or slashed to show another colour underneath, and ladies followed the same fashion in their sleeves and skirts. Of this Shakespeare makes fun in the *Taming of the Shrew*, where Petruchio, on seeing a dress which the tailor has brought for his wife, exclaims: "What's this? A sleeve? 'Tis like a demi-cannon: What, up and down, carved like an apple-tart? Here's snip and nip and cut and slish and slash."

The same complaint was made by a real Elizabethan,\* who wrote in disgust of "such cuts and garish colours as are worn in these days, and never brought in but by consent of the French, who think themselves the gayest men when they have most diversities of jags and change of colours about them."

It is difficult to describe Elizabethan dress, because the fashions often changed, but the best-known pictures show men in silk stockings fastened with broad

\* Harrison.



A royal picnic, 1575.

(G. Turberville: *The Noble Art of Venerie or Hawking*, 1575.)

garters (gay with ribbon or gold fringe) where they meet the short breeches, and a long doublet which spreads out, stiff with padding, all round the hips.





Queen Elizabeth hawking, 1575.  
(G. Turberville: *The Noble Art of Venerie or Hawking*, 1575.)

Over the shoulders a short cloak was often worn (a Spanish fashion), lined with a bright colour, and round the neck a stiff ruff of pleated linen or lawn, so that, as a man of the time said, men's heads looked as if they were resting on plates. The Dutch woman who brought the secret of starching to London made a fortune.

Ladies' dresses were even more puffed out than those of men; their stiff skirts stood out round them like a fence, and their long bodices were brought down in a point at the front. Their ruffs were larger too, and often stood up behind the head.

Elizabeth herself took the lead in fashions, although she tried to prevent ruffs being worn too large. She had a thousand dresses when she died.

§ 3. Food matched dress in variety and richness. The Elizabethan Harrison, who wrote a full account of the life of his day, says that "in number of dishes and change of meat the nobility of England (whose cooks are for the most part musical-headed Frenchmen and strangers) do most exceed." All kinds of meat with special sauces "wherein the sweet hand of the seafaring Portugal is not wanting" were followed by sweetmeats, jellies of all colours made in the shape of flowers and beasts, gingerbread and sugarbread, and other dainties.

Yet this was not all extravagance, for a great man fed many guests, some of whom could not afford to give themselves a good dinner, and then a great number of serving-men, and what was left was given to the poor people who were always waiting at the gates of every big house.

Drunkenness was not encouraged. In many houses a guest at table had to call for a cup of wine, and after he had drunk it the cup (or glass, in a rich man's house) was rinsed and put back in the cupboard by one of the serving-men.\*

Merchants and other well-to-do townsmen had two or three dishes for dinner as a rule, with more when there were guests. They very often had apprentices to feed.

§ 4. The town apprentices, boys bound for seven years to masters to learn their trade, helped to make street life lively. They were known by their flat caps, and carried cudgels of stout wood slung round their necks. When a fight arose, as often happened, any one who needed help or had been robbed by a pick-pocket cried out, "Clubs!" Then the apprentices were the first to rush out, brandishing their cudgels, so eager to take part that they often hit about them at unoffending people who were only trying to get out of the way. Sometimes the watchmen, who served as policemen, themselves cried "Clubs" to scare brawlers or bring help. In Shakespeare's *Henry VI.* the followers of a bishop and a duke begin to fight outside the Tower of London, and the mayor cries out: "I'll call for 'Clubs' if you will not away."

The watch were not well-trained policemen such as we know now, and were often more anxious to save their own heads than to keep order. Shakespeare's watchman, Dogberry, told another watchman to whom he was teaching his duties, that if he called upon any

\* Harrison.

man to stand and tell him his business, and the man ran away instead, he might let him go and "thank God you are rid of a knave."

When London went to sleep citizens had orders to hang lanterns outside their doors so that the streets might not be left quite dark. Then, several times in the night, the night-watchman or bellman passed down each street, bell in hand, and cried out the time and the weather, or sometimes just the old rhyme which announced bedtime to citizens who sat up late: "Twelve o'clock; look well to your lock, your fire and your light, and so good-night."



Citizen.

(From Harl. MS. 2014.)

## 29. The Fencing of Land and the Problem of the Poor

§ 1. A change had come over country life when the cloth trade grew steadily and wool was wanted to keep the weavers' looms busy. Many nobles even before the reign of Henry VII. had begun to enclose\* their land with fences and to keep large flocks of sheep instead of growing so much corn.

This was still being done in Queen Elizabeth's days, and the chronicler Harrison gives us a pitiful account of the "joining of house to house and laying

\* See chapter on Edward VI.'s reign.

land to land, whereby the inhabitants of many places of our country are devoured and eaten up." In the same way Sir Thomas More had written of the flocks of sheep "devouring men and fields."

Harrison describes what he means by this. The lords, he says, were so eager to enclose land and make big farms that they seized every chance of turning poor



A country scene.

(From Spenser's "Shepherd's Calendar," 1579.)

men out of their holdings. Many poor men who used to be villeins, holding land in return for so many days' work for their lord, now were free men, paying a rent. If they fell behind in paying the rent they could be turned out, or if they failed to pay the sums of money due to the lord on certain occasions, such as when a son came into his father's land; now the lords increased these fines, as they were called, and turned out

those who could not pay. Others were turned out because they could not afford to keep their houses in repair.

Such poor men were grateful if the lord allowed them just an acre of land, on which they could keep a cow, and grow cabbages, radishes, parsnips, carrots; and on these their families chiefly lived. As less corn was grown it was dear to buy, and the poorer country people only had wheaten bread now and then; at other times they ate bread made of oats or barley, and after a bad harvest peas, beans, and even acorns were used for making flour.

As a result of these enclosures the land was better farmed, and those who managed to keep their holdings did well. Wool sold well because the English cloth trade was growing steadily. Harrison himself admits that a Spaniard who visited England in Queen Mary's reign remarked that the cottagers fed well although they seemed poor: "The English have their houses made of sticks and dirt," he said, "but they fare commonly so well as the king."

Of course this was saying more than he really meant; but the country people who still had their holdings probably ate more meat than in the old days, as more sheep and cattle were kept.

§ 2. Some of the cottagers who lost their means of living when their holdings and some of the village commons (on which any one could keep a cow) were enclosed, wandered about the country looking for work, or begging their way from house to house. The number of beggars grew to be a danger to the country-side. Amongst them were old soldiers who

had no employment now that the kings of England had given up trying to conquer France, and now that most of the country's battles were fought at sea, and old serving-men or retainers, who had been dismissed now



Mendicants.

(From S. Brandt's "*Stultifera Navis*," 1497.)

that the nobles did not need armed followers to protect them.

Some of them made sores on their bodies with chemicals, and then tried to make people pity them and give them money. Sometimes these beggars went about in bands and tried to frighten townsmen and villagers into giving them food and drink. This

explains the meaning of the well-known nursery rhyme which was first said or sung in those days :

“ Hark ! hark ! the dogs do bark,  
The beggars have come to town.”

There were now no monasteries to take care of the sick and feed the starving, and there was not so much food given away at great houses as in the days before the Wars of the Roses, when every baron's castle had good cheer for most comers. So at last Parliament had to provide for the care of the poor, and it has been one of its duties ever since.

The first great Poor Law was passed in Queen Elizabeth's reign. This Poor Law of 1601 settled, for many reigns, the treatment of those who would not or could not keep themselves. Under this law those who could not keep themselves were to be helped in their own parishes : the sick were to be sent to hospitals, deserted or orphan children to be looked after and apprenticed, and wool, flax, and other work materials given out to those who could not get work. Beggars who went to beg outside their own parish were to be punished as rogues by a whipping, and then sent back to their parish to be placed in a “ workhouse ” or “ house of correction,” or set to work in other ways.

About the same time that this Poor Law was passed the want of bread in the growing towns led to more corn-growing, and so there was more employment for country labourers.



**30. The Days of "Good Queen Bess"***Country Life and Homes*

§ 1. There are still many beautiful Elizabethan halls and manor houses to be seen in the country, some built of timber and patterned all over in black and white, and some of brick. The early Tudor country houses were still like castles, but by Elizabeth's time they were homes which their owners did not expect to defend against enemies.

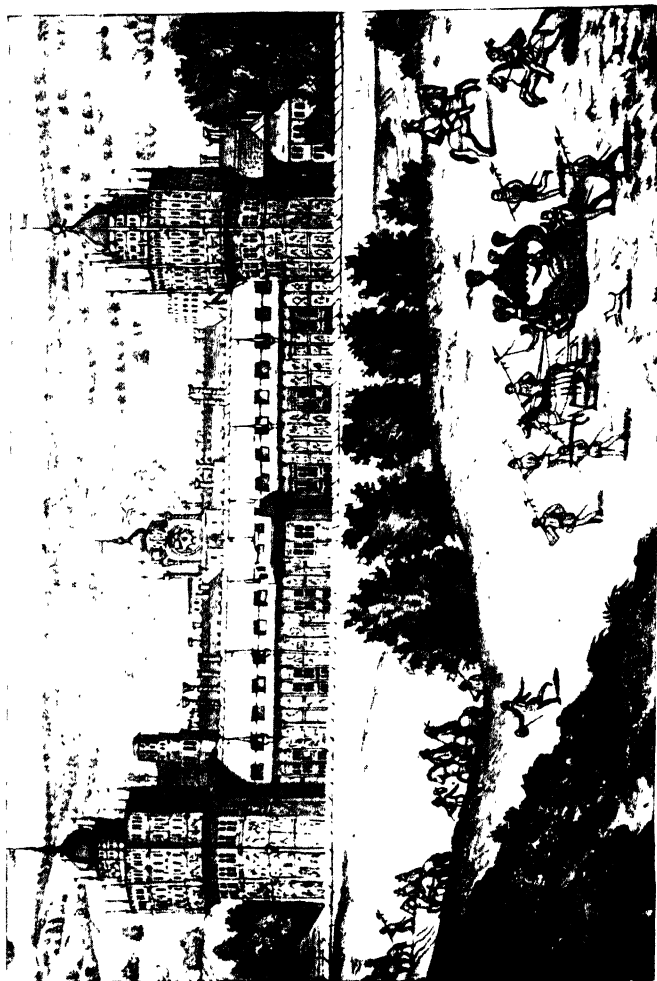
Windows had become fashionable, and Bacon in one of his essays complains that "You shall have sometimes fair houses so full of glass, that one cannot tell where to be come to be out of the sun or cold."

Beautiful carved wooden staircases had replaced the old stone ones winding up steeply like those in church towers. And although the hall was still a meeting-place, only the serving-men dined there now. The lord or squire and his family had a cosy "parlour," of which the walls were lined with panels of wood and carved pillars, or hung with tapestry. There was often a ballroom or long gallery for dancing, and there were more separate bedrooms too, and more beds.

The master's bed would have great carved pillars, and when the curtains were drawn it seemed almost like a small room inside the bedroom; sometimes such a bed would be kept in the drawing-room or parlour. Even the serving-men were no longer content with straw on the hall floor and a log for a pillow; they now slept on mattresses in the attics at the top of the house.



COSTUME OF THE TIME OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.  
(From "*British Costume*," by Mrs. Charles H. Ashdown.)



NONSUCH PALACE, SURREY, IN 1582.  
(From an engraving, dated 1582, by G. Houshagie.)

In many houses rushes were still strewn on the floors, and a foreigner praised this custom and said that the air of English homes was fresh with herbs and posies.

In Queen Elizabeth's palace rushes were still used ; but what struck a foreigner most at court was that every room for business had its copy of the English Bible, so that " a stranger that entereth into the court



Weaving in the 16th century.  
(From Erasmus, " *In Praise of Folly* .")

of England upon the sudden shall rather imagine himself to come into some public school of the universities, where many give ear to one that readeth, than into a prince's palace." \*

The ladies at court were kept busy spinning silk and working embroidery, reading Scripture, distilling herbs for medicines, and even cooking special dainty dishes.

\* Harrison.

§ 2. In the country the life of all but the greater nobles was busy indeed. A lord or squire of a small estate had to overlook the work of sowing crops, reaping, winnowing, and grinding, and the care and shearing of his sheep, and the care, too, of stables, hounds, and hawks. His wife overlooked the dairy, and the brewing of beer and salting of meat. Often she would be up early in the morning to set the servants to their tasks in kitchen, bakehouse, brewery, and dairy, and at the spinning-wheel and weaving loom, or preparing herbs for medicines or fruits for preserving, or boiling salt water to get salt for the household.

Any one who was found idling, whether man or maidservant or child of the mistress of the house, might find a stick laid sharply across his (or her) shoulders. In one great house the master, Sir John Harington, fined his servants twopence if they missed morning or evening prayers, and a penny for every oath they used, and the money was given to the poor.

In the small farmers' houses the whole family turned out to work at four o'clock in the morning in summer, and were busy until dark, when they went to bed to save candle light. Their dinner-tables were laid with plenty of meat, cheese, eggs, bread, and beer; but it was a hard life, and daughters, as well as sons, often helped in the fields.

§ 3. In fact Tudor England was a busy, hard-working country, in spite of its crowds of "sturdy beggars" and its gallants in their gay-coloured velvets and silks. Almost all these gallants about court could speak several languages; a gentleman could scarcely



The Maypole at St. Andrew Undershaft : showing the May-Day sports.

travel or read the books of the day unless he knew Latin, in which educated men were expected to talk to foreigners.

Queen Elizabeth herself read Greek with her old tutor after she became queen, and found she could

“ scour up her Latin ” to scold an ambassador from Poland.

Sir Walter Raleigh, even while he was a favourite at court, divided up his day carefully, so that when business, sleep, and a little recreation had been allowed for, he would still have time for music and the study of chemistry.

The poorer people, too, made time to study the new English Bible, and Harrison speaks of “ the thirsty desire of the people in these days to hear the Word of God.” Sunday brought a holiday even to the busiest, when this desire could be satisfied.

§ 4. If Elizabethan England worked hard, it played heartily too. Music and acting enlivened holidays in villages as well as towns ; there were dances on greens and in the market halls, and jolly journeys to neighbouring fairs, where country housewives bought all that they could not make for themselves or get from travelling pedlars. A sheep-shearing usually ended in a feast, and each season had its own games and jollities.

On May Day a whole village would turn out to gather the may, and oxen with nosegays on their horns dragged the maypole to the green, where it was made gay with garlands and ribbons and set up for the young men and girls to dance round.

There were Church Ales, when ale was sold to raise money for the Church, and villagers made holiday ; there were the games of Hallowe'en, such as ducking for apples ; and Christmas games were carried on until Twelfth Night, for which feast Shakespeare wrote his comedy which bears that name.

Even now the tune of an Elizabethan morris dance sets men's feet jigging, and we can imagine how cheery the sound of the morris-dancers' bells would be to men and women leaving plough and oven for the sports of the village green.\*

\* For a good account, see *Daily Life in Tudor Times*, in the "Children's Hour Series."



## THE STUART AGE (1603-1714)

### 31. James I. and the Divine Right of Kings

*James I. (1603-25)*

QUEEN ELIZABETH said, just before her death, that her throne had always been the seat of kings, and that her "cousin of Scotland" must reign after her.

This cousin was James Stuart, the son of the unhappy Mary Queen of Scots. He had been taken away from his mother while he was still a baby, and declared king as James VI. of Scotland while Mary was a prisoner at Lochleven.\*

James had been brought up as a member of the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, but his training had not made him love the Scottish Church. He felt that the Presbyterian leaders had been stern and pitiless to his mother, and to him they had been teachers and masters who were always on the watch to check his pride and his power.

James spent much of his time in study and became a really learned man, with a great knowledge of all that related to religion and government. He was proud of his learning, and when the crown of England was offered to him he hoped to be a really strong king

\* See Chapter 19.



James I.

*(From the frontispiece to the 1616 edition of his collected works.)*

at last, and to make himself respected and admired for his wisdom in all the countries of Europe. He determined to have no more masters.

James believed that kings received from God a divine right to rule their subjects as they thought best. In a speech which he made in England he declared that men have no right to dispute what God or kings can do. He said : " It is presumption and a high contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do, or to say that a king cannot do this or that."

With these high ideas James set out from Edinburgh on his month's journey, riding on horseback from town to town (see page 200), all the way to London, to be crowned as James I. of England. For the first time in history England and Scotland were to have one king, although each country still had its own Parliament, its own laws, and its own Church.

At first the people of England were afraid that James would not be welcomed everywhere as king, but there were no disturbances, and as he rode south men flocked into the towns to see him pass through the streets, and all the church bells were set ringing.

The new king did not look commanding or clever. He was clumsy and awkward, with a very big head, and he wore padded clothes because he was afraid that some of the English might try to stab him. He was friendly, however, and made some good jokes as he talked to his companions, and Englishmen hoped that he would make up for his plain looks and manners by his wisdom.

Unfortunately, although James was really learned and a lover of peace, he was stupid in his management of men. Although he did not mean to have any masters in England, he made favourites of men with handsome looks and pleasing manners, and let them guide him in governing the country. Also, he was not

good at understanding the needs and rights of the people he ruled. A French statesman, who saw the learned James making many mistakes, wittily called him "the wisest fool in Christendom."

The result of James's mistakes was that this king, who set out with such high hopes to rule by divine right and win the admiration of men and nations, began the struggle between King and Parliament which led to the Civil War in England, and the beheading of his son, Charles I. When that struggle was over, no king of England was ever again able to govern without the support of Parliament.

### **32. James I. and the Puritans**

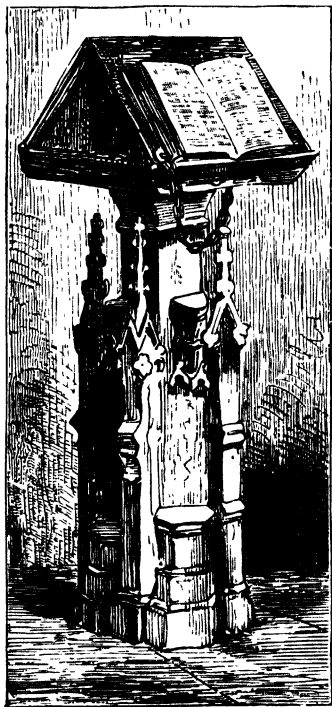
§ 1. The first decisions which James I. had to make were about the religious differences of the English people.

The Act of Uniformity in Queen Elizabeth's reign (Chapter 17) had completed the Reformation in England by ordering the use of the same English Prayer-book in all churches, but it had not made all Englishmen think alike.

In fact, as soon as people could read or hear the Bible in English, they began to think for themselves about religion in a way they could not do before. It has been told how the new Bibles had to be chained to desks in the churches lest eager readers should carry them away.

In those days many people had never been to school, and very few were used to reading or hearing books read, and there were no newspapers to take up their

time and give them other things to think about. Consequently men were everywhere talking about the Bible, and drinking in its teaching eagerly.



Chained Bible.

Many people were satisfied with the new Church of England services and the Prayer-book which Cranmer had drawn up in Edward VI.'s reign, but some there were who felt that Church people ought to live and worship more simply, as the early Christians did. These people disliked any kind of ceremony in church—such as the clergy dressing in surplices, the bowing at the name of Jesus, the use of the sign of the cross in baptism, and of the ring in marriage. They thought all such signs and ceremonies drew people's attention away from the pure and simple meaning of the prayers and praise. In time those who held these views came to be called Puritans.

The Puritans looked upon the world about them with their minds full of the days of Christ's life on earth and the teaching of His first disciples. They were shocked at the gaiety and extravagant ways which they saw on all sides. Very often country gentlemen

had been forced to sell fields, and even farms, to fit out their sons with suits of silk and satin, velvet cloaks, fine swords, and feathered hats to wear in London and at court. Now many of those who turned Puritan gave up wearing bright colours and dressed more simply, and did not change constantly from one suit to another. Swearing was not allowed in a Puritan household.

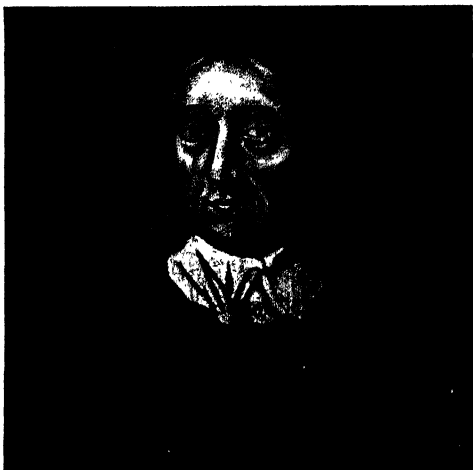
At first the Puritans did not give up dancing and playgoing, and the Puritan gentlemen were great lovers of books and music. Only when amusements drew men from Bible reading and religious talk on Sunday did they begin to object.

In the early days of James I. Puritans had not yet begun to crop their heads closely in the way which afterwards earned for many of them the name of Roundheads—though the great Puritans Oliver Cromwell and Milton both wore their hair long.

§ 2. While the Puritans thought the Church of England services were not simple enough, there were still many Englishmen who remained Catholics and hoped for the restoration of the old religion. They were no longer persecuted, but they had to keep the law by which every one was bound to attend service at his parish church on Sunday, or else pay a heavy fine. Those who were too poor to pay fines sat through the Church of England service, and also took any chances they had of going to mass in the country houses of Catholic gentlemen.

Many Catholic squires paid a large sum yearly as a fine for not going to church, and had private chapels where priests held services for the household and Catholic neighbours.

Sometimes fresh suspicion was stirred up against Catholics, and these houses were searched for priests and hidden arms. Hiding-places were cleverly made behind chimneys and under roofs, and at times the priests dared not leave these secret rooms for weeks, or even move about much, for fear a board should creak



John Milton.

under their feet and betray them to some servant or visitor who was not a trustworthy Catholic. The master of the house, and those whom he could trust, would creep stealthily into the secret room (often more like a cupboard) to hear the priest say mass.

When James I. became king, the Catholics hoped for mild treatment, because he prided himself on being a peacemaker; and besides, he was the son of a Catholic queen.

The Puritans also hoped for more freedom to worship as they liked, because James had been brought up a Presbyterian, and Presbyterians and Puritans agreed in many ways.

James promised that the Roman Catholics should no longer be fined for not going to the Church of England services; but he refused to grant a petition signed by nearly a thousand Puritan clergymen in which they asked that they might not be forced to wear surplices, or to declare their belief in everything in the English Prayer-book.

The next year James summoned the Church of England clergy and a few Puritans to a conference at his Hampton Court Palace; but when the Puritans suggested that the power of bishops over the Church should be checked, he exclaimed angrily: "No bishop, no king!" James said this because there were no bishops in the Presbyterian Church, and its leaders had not treated him with as much reverence as he liked. After this, Puritan clergy who would not declare their belief in the whole of the Prayer-book had to give up holding services.

§ 3. Soon the Catholics were disappointed in their turn. When the fines were given up, so many more people owned that they were Catholics that the country was alarmed, for most people did not trust the loyalty of Catholics, and were afraid of their plotting to bring over foreign armies. James was obliged to make them pay the fines again and allow them to be treated more strictly.

As a consequence discontent was stirred up among Catholics, and a few of them were persuaded by



their leaders that it would be a service to religion to destroy the king and Parliament who persecuted them.

It was now that the famous Gunpowder Plot was formed. A party of Catholic gentlemen hired a cellar under the House of Lords and hid barrels of gunpowder there, under piles of firewood. They meant



The Gunpowder Plot : the conspirators.

(From an engraving by C. Van de Passe [c. 1568-1637], now in the National Portrait Gallery.)

to blow up the House of Lords when the king was there opening Parliament on November 5, 1605. A soldier called Guido or Guy Fawkes was chosen to watch over the gunpowder and see that the fuse was lighted at the right time.

Before the 5th of November came, one of the plotters began to feel very uneasy about a relative of his who would be in the House of Lords on that day, and at last he wrote a letter to warn him not to go to

the opening of Parliament. This letter aroused suspicion, the Houses of Parliament were searched, and Guy Fawkes was found in the cellar on guard over his gunpowder. He refused to tell the names of the other plotters, although he was tortured to make him speak, until they had time to escape.

§ 4. Although neither Puritans nor Catholics gained anything from James I., it was in his reign that the Bible, which has been used by English people ever since, was given to the country. Before this, the translation made by Tyndale had been the best known one; but now a better and more modern translation was made at the king's wish, and called the "Authorized Version of the Bible." It was printed in 1611, and ever since then its beautiful language has stirred and helped English people for over three hundred years. It was the only Bible used in England until the "Revised Version" was published in the latter part of the nineteenth century; in this there are some improvements in translation from the Hebrew and Greek books of the Old and New Testaments respectively, but the Authorized Version of 1611 is still the most beloved and best known.

While these religious differences were disturbing the English people, there was still more trouble between Protestants and Catholics in Europe. In Bohemia the nobles were Protestant and the ruler Catholic, and at last the Catholic king was driven from the throne and the crown was offered to the Elector Frederick, a Protestant prince who ruled the small country on the Rhine known as the Palatinate.

Frederick had married a daughter of James I.,

## The House of History



Elizabeth of Bohemia.  
(From a pen-drawing by  
E. Heber Thompson.)

named Elizabeth, but James was too anxious to keep England at peace to send an army to support the Elector. Frederick was driven from his new kingdom of Bohemia by Catholic armies, and soon he lost the Palatinate too.

Europe was now engaged in the long 'Thirty Years' War (1618-48) between Catholics and Protestants, in which all the German states joined, and also Spain, Denmark, Sweden, and France.

### 33. James I. and the last Adventure of Sir Walter Raleigh

§ 1. James I. was wise enough to keep the statesman Cecil, a son of Elizabeth's great minister, as his chief adviser during the first years of his reign. It was only after Cecil died (in 1612) that really serious quarrels arose between king and Parliament.

There were other great Elizabethans to whom James might have turned for advice, and who might have helped to make his reign a memorable one. Francis Bacon, one of the most learned of Englishmen, was the chief lawyer in the kingdom, and might have been a great statesman too if James had chosen.

Sir Walter Raleigh was still living, and still dreaming of building up a new England overseas.

From these men of big ideas James turned to those

whom he had chosen as favourite companions, because they were handsome and pleased him by their charming manners and their readiness to flatter him. Of course the king had a right to choose his own companions to be at his court, but James made the great mistake of allowing his favourites to interfere in the government of the country, a matter of which they had little understanding.

The most famous of James's favourites was a handsome and gay young man called George Villiers, whom he made Duke of Buckingham and Lord High Admiral of the Fleet. Buckingham became also a close friend of Prince Charles, who found him a good companion, but did not learn from him any understanding of the English people or Parliament.

James's eldest son, Prince Henry (who died young and so never became king of England), was wiser, and liked men with greater minds than his father's favourites. Prince Henry particularly admired Sir Walter Raleigh, who made models of ships for him.

§ 2. James himself disliked Raleigh, whom he thought a restless, dangerous man, with too many ideas which might lead the country into trouble. If he was allowed to range the seas and try to found colonies James was afraid that he would stir up trouble between England and Spain once more. Accordingly he was pleased when Raleigh fell under suspicion of favouring a plot to place another member of the Stuart family on the throne instead of James himself. It could not be proved that Raleigh had really plotted treason, but he was tried and condemned.

James shrank from ordering the death of this great Elizabethan gentleman, and so Raleigh was kept



JAMES VI. OF SCOTLAND AT THE MICKLEGATE BAR, OR  
GATE OF YORK CITY, ON HIS WAY TO LONDON.

*(From a stained-glass window in the Guildhall, York. See page 190.)*

a prisoner in the Tower of London for thirteen years. His rooms were in the famous Bloody Tower, and his wife and son were allowed to live there with him. He often walked on the terrace, and many people went to the Tower to get a sight of him, for he seemed to link them to the days of the Armada and raids on Cadiz, of Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, and of high adventure on the Spanish Main. When Prince Henry saw him pacing up and down he said sadly what a pity it was that so fine a bird should be mewed up in a cage.

While Raleigh was in the Tower he began to write a *History of the World*. Another way in which he passed some of the weary hours was in making pills, which, with his usual keen faith, he believed would cure various diseases. Many people were eager to try them.

At last, in 1616, Raleigh's friends persuaded James to set him free to make one more voyage to the South Seas, to search for a gold mine which he believed he could find on the river Orinoco.

James was afraid of annoying the Spaniards, and so Raleigh was forbidden to interfere or fight with any Spaniards on his expedition.

Ill-luck began on the voyage, when Raleigh's ships were buffeted by storms. By the time the party landed, Raleigh himself was too ill to travel up the Orinoco, and the men whom he sent to explore were drawn into a quarrel with some Spaniards, and they burned a Spanish settlement. They came back to tell



Henry Frederick,  
Prince of Wales  
(died 1612).  
(From Drayton's "*Poly-  
olbion*," 1612.)

Raleigh that they had failed to find the gold mine, and that his son had been killed in the fighting.

Almost broken-hearted, Raleigh sailed home.

The Spaniards angrily demanded that he should be punished for the burning of their settlement, and so he was once more taken to the Tower of London, and at last he was beheaded for the treason he was supposed to have committed in 1603.

Raleigh had the Elizabethan eagerness to make life a fine thing. Now he set himself to die finely. The night before his execution he wrote a poem, in which there are some beautiful lines.

He had been one of the men who introduced tobacco to Englishmen, and just before he was led out to die he smoked a last pipe.

On the scaffold he made a speech to the crowd which had gathered there, ending with the brave words: "I have a long journey to make and must bid the company farewell." He hailed the executioner's axe as a "sharp medicine, but a cure for all diseases," and when he was asked to turn his face to the East he murmured, "What matter which way the head lie, so the heart be right?"

So Sir Walter Raleigh went to his death as if it were a last and blessed voyage of discovery.

### **34. James I. quarrels with Parliament.**

§ 1. The English Parliament in the Middle Ages was generally called together by the king in order to grant him money for carrying on the government of the country. When the barons were most powerful,

they used Parliament to help them to force their will on the king ; but it did not meet regularly every year as it does now. If the king did not choose to summon Parliament, there was no law to prevent his governing without it ; but sooner or later, want of money forced him to call together the Houses of Lords and Commons and ask them to grant fresh supplies from taxes.

The Tudors were strong rulers, but they also understood the English people, and generally found Parliament ready to support them. Consequently Henry VIII. and Elizabeth often summoned Parliament to give its approval to their actions, and this added to their strength.

Under the Tudors, Parliament grew used to being consulted about many questions besides the supply of money by taxation. It was Parliament that declared that Henry VIII. should be Supreme Head of the Church of England, ordered the use of the English Prayer-book in all churches, and passed the Poor Law of Elizabeth's reign.

Sometimes Queen Elizabeth gave way to Parliament, and this increased its loyalty to her. Not long before her death she won fresh popularity by promising to give up granting monopolies\* because Parliament objected to them.

§ 2. When James I. summoned Parliament, he expected it to be a useful servant to him and to provide him with money, but he had little thought of consulting it, and no thought of giving way to its wishes.

James soon disagreed with his first Parliament,

\* A monopoly was a grant to one man that he alone should have the right of selling a particular thing in the country.



which was more in favour of the Puritans than he liked, and so he dissolved it. His second Parliament did not please him any better, and after dissolving it too, he reigned for seven years without summoning Parliament to meet at all.

During these seven years James raised money by demanding gifts from his subjects and collecting taxes which Parliament had not granted to him. For instance, he demanded a tax on every pound of various kinds of goods which were brought into England from abroad. One English merchant refused to pay this tax on some currants which he brought from Turkey, but at his trial the judge decided that he had no right to refuse.

James also granted many monopolies, chiefly to his favourites and courtiers.

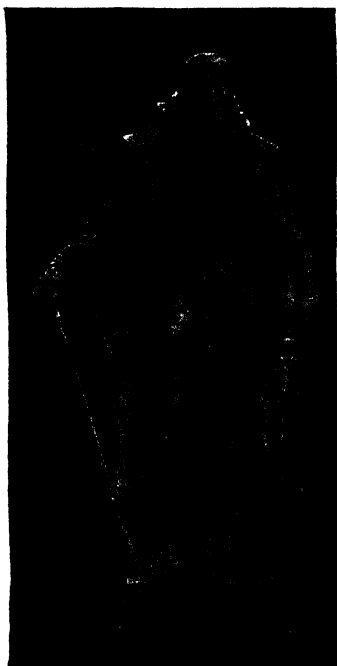
§ 3. Very soon a new difference arose between the king and his people. The Thirty Years' War between Catholics and Protestants in Europe had begun, and many Englishmen were ashamed because England sent no help to the Elector Frederick when Catholic armies overran his lands, and he and his wife (an English princess) were driven from their home. There was still more disgust when James decided to make friends with Spain by proposing to marry Prince Charles (now heir to the throne) to a Spanish princess. Any marriage with a Catholic would have been disliked, but particularly one with a Spanish princess, as England still felt that Spain was an unforgivable enemy.

While the Spanish marriage was still being discussed, James was obliged by want of money to summon Parliament once more.

§ 4. James's third Parliament, which met in 1621, determined to prove its right and its power to control the actions of the king and his ministers. First it protested against monopolies, and ordered the imprisonment of some men who had used the monopolies granted to them to sell goods at high prices. Then it accused the Lord Chancellor, the learned Francis Bacon, of taking bribes from men whose cases he had to try in the Law Courts.

It was then a custom to offer presents to judges in the hope of making them inclined to decide in favour of the giver, and other judges and chancellors had taken them, almost as if they were part of their earnings. Sir Thomas More was one of the few who had refused to take such gifts.\*

Sir Francis Bacon was a very great scholar, with many fine ideas, but he admitted at once that he had not refused presents of this kind. It is probably true that no present had ever made him give a judgment which he did not believe to be fair and right, but he himself agreed that judges ought not to take money



Bacon's statue in Gray's Inn.

\* See Chapter 12.

from men whose cases they have to try. The Great Seal (of which the Lord Chancellor has charge) was taken from him, and he was forbidden to hold office again or to sit in Parliament.

Parliament next objected to James's foreign policy, and demanded war with Spain and a Protestant marriage for Prince Charles. This enraged James so much that he told the House of Commons that these things were not their business, and even threatened to send some of their leaders to the Tower if they spoke of them again.



George Villiers,  
Duke of Buckingham  
(1592-1628).  
(After a painting by  
Mierevelt.)

Upon this the House of Commons made a solemn declaration of their right to discuss all matters which concerned the king, the state and defence of the country, and the Church. This declaration was written down in the *Journal* of the House of Commons, and James at once sent for the book and tore out the page. He then decided to

dissolve this unmanageable Parliament.

This was the beginning of Parliament's long fight for freedom of speech.

In spite of the country's disapproval, Prince Charles went to Spain with Buckingham to woo the Spanish princess; but when the King of Spain refused to stop the Catholic armies from attacking the Elector Frederick, the marriage was given up.

Prince Charles was welcomed home to London with bonfires and peals of bells; but soon another

marriage with another Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria of France, was arranged for him.

In 1625 James I. died, and Charles took up the struggle with Parliament, which was growing more and more determined to prove its right to control the government of the country, instead of leaving it to the king.

§ 5. James I.'s reign was notable for two events besides the disagreements with the Puritans and Parliament—the Gunpowder Plot, and the issue of the Authorized Version of the Bible.

In 1611 a colony of Scottish and English colonists had been settled in Northern Ireland, in the Province of Ulster, the Irish being driven out of that part of their country. The new settlers soon made Northern Ireland far more busy and prosperous than any other part of the country; but this Plantation of Ulster, as it was called, led to many troubles.\*

In 1620 some of the Puritans who had gone to Holland earlier in the reign in order to have more freedom, sailed with their descendants in the *Mayflower*, to found the first colony of a real New England in America.

### 35. Charles I. quarrels with Parliament

*Charles I. (1625-49)*

§ 1. Many men loved Charles I. and died for him, and a statesman who was a faithful friend to his family

\* See the following Book of this Series.

wrote that no king with half his virtues was ever so unhappy as Charles.\* He was a good friend, a good husband, and a good father, and he was faithful to the kind of religion which he thought to be right. Although he and his followers, who came to be known as Cavaliers, wore fine suits, long curls, and feathered hats, the king did not care for extravagant pleasures or rich food. He loved to ride and play tennis, and to be at home with his family.

Unfortunately Charles was always sure that he was right, and that he knew what kind of religion and what laws were best for his people. Consequently he thought it wrong to give way to their wishes, and when he had been obliged to make some promise against his own will he did not feel bound to keep it. This soon made some of his people feel that they could not trust his word.

Like his father, Charles believed in the divine right of kings to give laws to their people. Parliament, on the contrary, was determined that henceforth the people's representatives in the two Houses must have more control over the government of the country.

When Charles's first Parliament met there was much sore feeling on account of the mismanagement of foreign affairs. James's last Parliament had persuaded him to send a small army to support the Elector Frederick, but it was so badly fitted out and led that most of the soldiers died, without having helped the Protestant cause.

Early in Charles's reign an attack on Spain was planned. Some English ships sailed to Cadiz, but there was no triumphant return, as in the days of

\* Lord Clarendon.



KING CHARLES I.

*(From the portrait by Van Dyck in Windsor Castle.)*

Drake, Essex, and Raleigh. The ships were so old that they were not really seaworthy (some of them were fitted with tackle which had been used in the fight against the Armada), and the soldiers they carried were only half trained and not even properly provided with food. It was small wonder that the expedition was a failure.

The Duke of Buckingham, as Lord High Admiral, was blamed for this. He was also blamed for arranging Charles's marriage with a Catholic princess. When Parliament met, its feeling against Buckingham was very bitter.

§ 2. In this House of Commons there were several men whose names were to become famous for the stand they made for the liberties of Parliament and nation. They fought for the right of Members of Parliament to freedom of speech, the right of every Englishman to freedom from imprisonment at the king's order (without accusation and trial), and the right of the nation to pay no taxes that were not granted by Parliament.

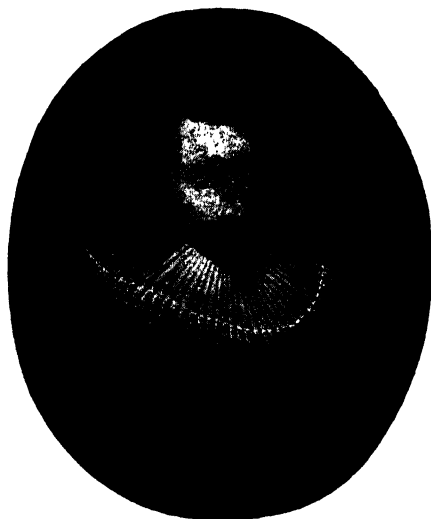
Foremost of these new leaders was Sir John Eliot, one of the members for Cornwall. Like many of the members, Eliot was a squire, who helped to govern his own county. He went up to London to sit in Parliament as a public duty, for which, in those days, there was no pay or reward, and which took him away from the management and enjoyment of his own lands.

It was natural that a Cornish squire, who came from one of the counties which had been so proud of its seamanship in the days of Elizabeth's "sea-dogs," should feel sore and bitter when he saw the beaten

ships, with their rotting hulls, come creeping back to Plymouth.

It was Eliot who led the attack on Buckingham. He demanded that the House of Commons should impeach him—that is, accuse him and bring him to trial before the House of Lords.

Charles tried to stop the attack on his friend by



Sir John Eliot.

telling the House of Commons that Buckingham was responsible for his actions to his king alone, and that he would not allow the House to accuse his servants, especially one so highly placed and near to himself.

Eliot pressed the attack all the more, because he thought that the king's ministers ought to be responsible to Parliament (as they are to-day). If Parliament



was not to be allowed to accuse either the king or his ministers of wrong, how was it to have any control at all over the government of the country ?

Buckingham sat proudly amongst the Lords to hear the Commons come forward to impeach him, and Eliot suddenly turned and pointed to his richly dressed figure and exclaimed that the members might see in his clothes and jewels how he wasted the country's wealth. Such words made a strong appeal to the many serious-minded Puritan gentlemen in Parliament, with their sober dress and closely cut hair.

After this speech Charles had Eliot and another member seized and sent to the Tower. The indignation of the Commons obliged him to set them free within a few days, but he dissolved Parliament to stop the impeachment of Buckingham.

Like his father, Charles now tried to raise money by demanding gifts from his subjects, and when they were unwilling to give, he took what was called a forced loan from all who had any property. There were many refusals to pay. From Cornwall, Eliot's county, there came the message that if Cornish freemen had only two cows they would give one to His Majesty—in a parliamentary way : but without the consent of Parliament they would give nothing.

Many country gentlemen were brought before the Court of Star Chamber for refusing to pay, and some were sent to prison. Amongst these was John Hampden, who stood firm more than once against wrongful taxation. His health suffered so much from this imprisonment that he was never so strong again.

Charles needed more and more money because England was now at war with France, and Buckingham

had led an expedition to help the Huguenots (French Protestants) to stand against their Catholic king.

This expedition, like the one to Cadiz, was an utter failure. Buckingham was a bad manager although he was a brave and spirited soldier, and ready to share all the hardships of campaigning with his men.

As well as suffering disgrace abroad, English people



The old "Star Chamber."

(Pulled down after the burning of old Houses of Parliament.)

bore hardships at home on account of the war, for soldiers were billeted on private houses,\* and both soldiers and citizens were under martial law, which meant that they were tried and punished by army officers in soldiers' courts.

At last both Charles and Buckingham realized that this could not go on, and that the war could certainly not be carried on without more money. So Charles made up his mind to summon Parliament once more.

\* Sent to live in houses at the owner's expense.

**36. Charles I. and the Petition of Right (1628)**

The Parliament which now met (1628) at once expressed its indignation at the forced loan. Eliot spoke what all felt when he said : " Upon this dispute not alone our lands and goods are engaged, but all that we call ours. These rights, these privileges, which made our fathers free men are in question." He then called upon Parliament not to allow English men to lose all their rights and to become less free and less worthy than their fathers.

Parliament then drew up the Petition of Right, which demanded that no taxes or forced loans should be raised by the king without consent of Parliament ; that no one should be imprisoned without proper accusation and trial ; that soldiers should not be billeted in citizens' houses, or citizens tried in soldiers' courts.

At first Charles refused to grant these demands, and then Eliot declared that it was Buckingham who stood in the way of the liberty of Parliament and country. The Speaker, whose duty it is to keep the House of Commons in order, then announced that the king had forbidden the Commons to name Buckingham in their debates. Immediately a storm of angry dismay swept over the House. Many members sprang up to speak, full of indignation ; one of the leaders, John Pym, tried to do so and was stopped by a burst of tears.

Despite the king's order, the Commons now drew up a Remonstrance, in which their grievances were stated once more, and Buckingham accused of being responsible for most of them.

Now Charles, seeing the determined temper of the

Commons, was once more afraid for his friend, and to end the trouble, he granted the Petition of Right, which then became law.

Parliament disbanded, well pleased, and Buck-



John Pym.

*(From the copy in Nugent's "Memorials of John Hampden" [1854] of the miniature by Cooper.)*

ingham soon set off for Portsmouth to sail with another expedition to France ; but before he could embark he was murdered by a disappointed soldier.

Charles was almost heartbroken at the news, but Londoners rejoiced and sang and shouted in the streets in triumph. The king could never quite forget or

forgive his people's heartless rejoicing over the death of his dearly-loved friend.

When Parliament came together again the question of money was raised first. The Commons offered Charles a grant of the taxes called tunnage and poundage for one year, but Charles claimed the right to take these taxes for life.

When Parliament next proceeded to discuss some religious changes, which bishops were introducing in church services (against the wish of Puritans), Charles determined to dissolve it once more.

Led by Eliot, the Commons locked their doors. While the king's officers, with the order for Parliament to dissolve, were knocking thunderously to be let in, members held the Speaker of the House down in his chair while Eliot read three resolutions.

These resolutions declared that no changes were to be made in religion, that tunnage and poundage were not to be paid without consent of Parliament, and that any one who did so pay them was "a betrayer of the liberty of England and an enemy to the same."

When the resolutions had been passed the doors were flung open and the members passed out. Charles did not summon them to meet again for eleven years.

It was Sir John Eliot's last day in Parliament, for Charles had him sent to the Tower and kept a prisoner there. In doing this the king broke his promise to keep the Petition of Right, by which such imprisonments were forbidden.

Eliot's health failed in his hard life in the Tower, and he died, still a prisoner, three years later. He lies buried in the Tower chapel.



PRINCE JAMES, SON OF CHARLES I., AT THE AGE OF TWO—VAN DYCK.

[Charles I. was a patron of art and appointed the famous Flemish artist Van Dyck as his court painter. Van Dyck painted many portraits of the king and his relatives and friends, and one of the most charming is that shown above.]

### 37. Charles I. governs without a Parliament (1629-40)

§ 1. Charles was now determined to rule without a Parliament for as long as possible. His greatest difficulty was, of course, to supply himself with money. In this he found the Court of Star Chamber\* very useful, as men could be brought before it when the king was displeased with them, and made to pay fines.

Charles needed money for his household, his court, and the expenses of government ; but that was not all. He was proud of his country, and did not like to see the English navy, which his father had neglected, falling into hopeless decay. In order to raise money for building new ships he decided to revive an old tax known as Ship-money. An existing law allowed the king to collect Ship-money from seaport towns in times of "emergency"—that is, sudden danger, generally the fear of invasion by a foreign fleet.

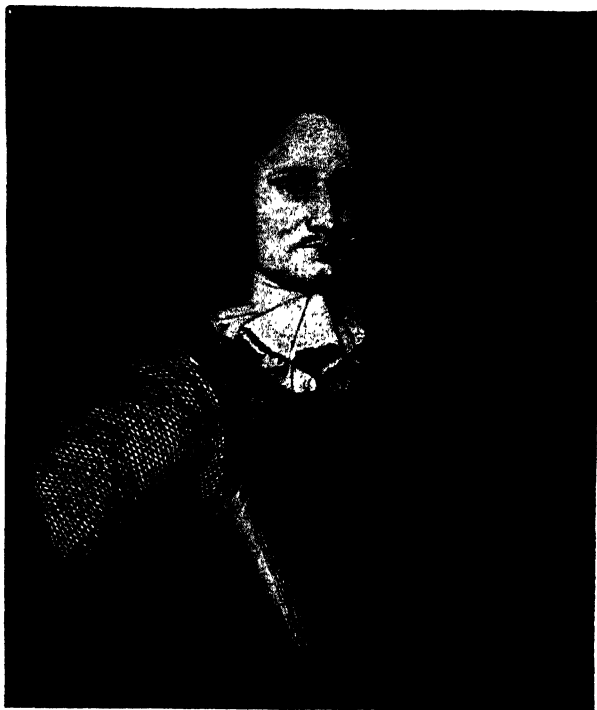
Although England was now at peace, Charles began to collect Ship-money regularly, and from inland counties as well as seaports. He did spend part of the money on ships, but it had not been granted by Parliament, and he could not say that there was "emergency" year after year.

As there was no Parliament to protest, John Hampden, the liberty-loving Puritan squire who had already been imprisoned for refusing to pay a forced loan, once

\* The Court of Star Chamber was by this time very unlike the court which had been founded in Henry VII.'s reign to keep in order the great barons. (See page 53.)

more made a stand against taxation without the consent of Parliament.

When Hampden boldly refused to pay Ship-money



John Hampden.

*(From a reproduction of the portrait at Port Eliot.)*

he was tried before twelve judges ; but it was not really a fair trial, because by now Charles had dismissed all the English judges who were not on his side, and so seven of Hampden's judges decided against him.



Englishmen now felt that they had no peaceful means of objecting to anything that the king chose to do. To this bitter feeling was added great indignation amongst the large body of Puritans in the country because they were now forced to have in all churches the kind of service and ceremony that the king thought right.

§ 2. Charles's chief adviser in religious matters was William Laud, whom he made Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud was an earnest man, faithful and devoted to the Church, but he thought the Puritan ways were very wrong, and determined that all churches should be brought under his rule.

Laud said he was restoring order and decency in the Church of England, and amongst the good things he did was to forbid the great aisle of St. Paul's Cathedral to be used as a public walk, where men met to do business or show off their fine clothes and discuss the news and gossip of the day. Laud also ordered that men should take off their hats in church.

Puritan clergymen did not teach their people to treat the altar with special reverence, and it was often kept in the middle of the church. Laud now ordered that in every church the altar should be placed at the east end with a rail round it, and that every one should bow towards it on entering the church.

To Puritans this and other orders that more ceremony should be kept up in the services seemed like a return to the ways of the old Church. Those who refused to obey were fined. Three men—a clergyman, a doctor, and a lawyer—who wrote and spoke against the rule of bishops were cruelly punished by having

their ears cut off, being made to stand in the pillory, and sentenced to solitary confinement for life. One of them had the letters S.L. branded on his cheeks for "Seditious Libeller."\* He said that to him the letters stood for the "Scars of Laud."

§ 3. Not content with trying to force upon all English churches what were called "High Church" services, Charles and Laud began to interfere with the Presbyterian Church in Scotland.

James I. had made some Scottish bishops, and Charles made more. Up to now Scotland had never been forced to use one Prayer-book, as the Church of England was by the Act of Uniformity. In Presbyterian churches it was the custom for the minister to make prayers of his own instead of reading them from a book.



Archbishop Laud.  
(From a medal in the British  
Museum.)

Now Laud drew up a special Prayer-book, and all the Presbyterian ministers were ordered to use it in their churches.

A storm of indignation broke over Scotland. In Edinburgh there was an uproar when the new Prayer-book was used in St. Giles' Church, and an old woman called Jenny Geddes made herself famous by flinging a stool at the minister's head.

\* A libel is strictly a treasonable, seditious, or immoral published statement.

The Scots not only refused to use the new Prayer-book, but they drew up a document which they called the National Covenant, in which they bound themselves to resist all changes in the Presbyterian Church, and especially not to submit to the rule of bishops.

Scotsmen flocked to sign the Covenant, and they formed an army to protect the liberty of their Church. All the soldiers were keen Covenanters, and many had had experience of fighting in the Protestant cause abroad during the Thirty Years' War, which was still going on in Europe.

Charles on his side raised an army. But he had to send officers to seize or "press" men in the streets, and force them to serve as soldiers. This way of raising an army was quite usual in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Charles soon found that the Scots had the strongest position and the best soldiers, and so he signed an agreement by which he granted to the Scots the right of settling their own religion.

This was the end of the first "Bishops' War" with Scotland, which happened in the year 1639.

Charles now had to return to face his difficulties in England.

### **38. Charles I., Strafford, and "King Pym"**

§ 1. In English affairs Charles now depended chiefly on the advice of a statesman named Thomas Wentworth, whom he had made Earl of Strafford.

Strafford had won his experience of ruling in Ireland, where he sternly and pitilessly put down disorder, and allowed nothing to interfere with his commands.

This policy he called "Thorough," and that word he took as his motto when the king placed the management of English affairs in his hands. Strafford and Laud encouraged one another in their decision to show no weakness.

Strafford, however, was a wiser man than Laud, and he saw that the king could never be so strong without Parliament as he would be if he could make Parliament his servant. After the first Bishops' War, Strafford advised Charles to summon Parliament and try to keep it under his control.

Accordingly, in 1640, the two Houses were at last called together again, after eleven years.

The Parliament that met now was known as the Short Parliament, because it at once disagreed so violently with the king that he dissolved it within three weeks. Charles had hoped that it would grant him money to subdue Scotland, but the Commons, under the leadership of John Pym (who now began to take Eliot's place), declared their disapproval of the Bishops' War.

Strafford next did his best to build up a strong government without Parliament. He thought that if Parliament would not support the king, the English people must put up with a "thorough" tyranny. A number of members of the Short Parliament were imprisoned, and Ship-money and forced loans were collected once more to pay for an army.

It would have been easier and safer for Charles to have given up his interference with the Scottish Church,



Thomas Wentworth,  
Earl of Strafford.

*(From a gold gem in the  
British Museum.)*

but he could not bear to let the Presbyterians drive all bishops out of Scotland. He thought it was his duty as a Churchman to save Scotland from what he believed to be a wrong kind of religion.

Less than a year after the first Bishops' War Charles led a second army against Scotland. Once more the Scots were too strong for him, and they had marched into England before he could reach the border. Another treaty was drawn up, by which Charles promised to pay the Scottish army and allow them to stay in England until an agreement could be reached about the Presbyterian Church.

Charles had no money to pay the Scots, and so once more he was obliged to summon Parliament.

§ 2. This was the famous Long Parliament, whose story begins in 1640 and is not completely finished until the year 1660.

The Long Parliament was led by Pym, whose influence was so great in the House of Commons and the country that he was often spoken of as "King Pym." The first action of the Commons was to call the king's ministers and servants to account for the misrule which had brought the country to a state of discontent, tyrannous oppression, and war.

Both Strafford and Laud were impeached, and Strafford was condemned to be beheaded for high treason. He could not be said to have committed treason against the king, to whom he had been a devoted servant, so Parliament took the unusual course of condemning a man for high treason to his country.

Strafford could not be executed until the king had signed his death-warrant, and Charles suffered great

agony of mind while a great crowd gathered round his palace and shouted for his faithful servant's death. Strafford himself saw that nothing less than his death could satisfy the country and give the king a fresh start in dealing with his people, and he bravely urged



Strafford receiving Laud's blessing on his way to execution.

*(From the painting by Paul de la Roche.)*

Charles to sign the warrant. At last Charles consented, partly through fear of the crowd's indignation being turned against the queen, who, as a Catholic, was believed to have a bad influence over her husband.

Laud, now an old man and a prisoner in the Tower, blessed Strafford as he passed on his way to die. The archbishop was executed four years later.

§ 3. Pym now led on the Long Parliament to set the affairs of the country in order. Men who had been imprisoned for displeasing the king were released, including the three Puritans whose ears had been cut off for objecting to bishops. The Court of Star Chamber and other oppressive courts were closed. Ship-money was declared to be an unlawful tax. To prevent any king trying to rule without Parliament again the Triennial Act was passed, by which Parliament was to meet at least once in every three years, and not to be dissolved without its own consent.

Finally, all the grievances of Parliament and people were summed up in one document, called the Grand Remonstrance, which both houses passed and sent to the king (1641).

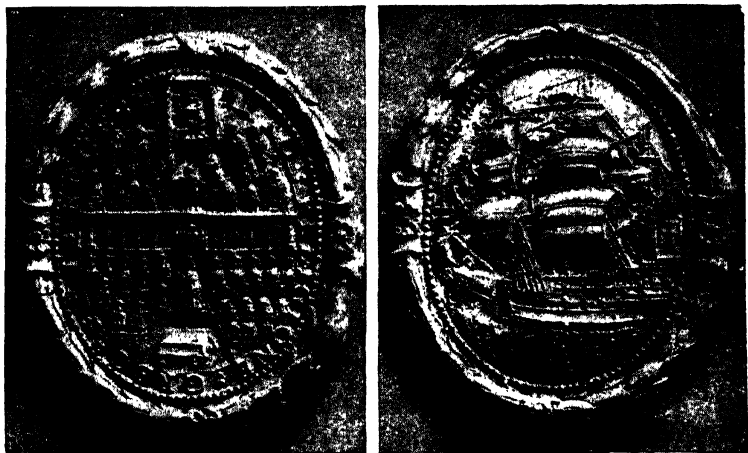
The Grand Remonstrance divided Parliament into two parties. The Puritans believed there could be no more liberty in England unless it was passed. Oliver Cromwell, who was to be the most famous and powerful of all the Parliamentary leaders, had decided that if it was not passed he would leave England and settle overseas, as so many Puritans had done during Laud's rule over the Church.

Other members of Parliament saw that the king could not continue to rule under such restrictions as the Long Parliament wished to force upon him, and they now went over to the king's side.

Encouraged by this, Charles suddenly determined to strike one more blow, which he hoped might frighten Parliament and win back his own power.

The king's plan was to go down himself to the House of Commons and order the arrest of five members whom he thought his worst enemies in

Parliament. He had already pressed for their impeachment, but now, urged on by the queen, he would wait no longer. Charles was followed to the House of Commons by a great number of his friends, and some of them stood at the door with their pistols ready cocked while the king marched in.



Declaration of Parliament Medal, 1642.

(*British Museum.*)

[Medal issued to commemorate the declaration of the policy of Parliament on the outbreak of the Civil War; representing the Ship of State in full sail and both Houses of Parliament in session.]

The Commons had been warned, and the five members had already made their escape by boat down the Thames. Charles angrily demanded from the Speaker where they were, but the Speaker would not tell. He replied that he had "neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak" unless the House of Commons gave him orders. Upon this Charles looked round himself



for Pym and Hampden and his other enemies, and remarked, "I see the birds have flown." He then withdrew in stern dignity, but the Commons shouted "Privilege! Privilege!" because the king had no right to interfere with them in their House.

Charles had now shown that he would never respect the liberty of Parliament, and there could be no end to the struggle without war. Parliament hastened it by demanding the control of the army and navy. Charles refused, and then left London, which supported Parliament, to gather the Royalists of the country together and prepare to fight.

### **39. England at the Beginning of the Great Civil War**

#### *What Men thought and did -*

§ 1. Eight months passed between the king's attempt to arrest the five members in Parliament and the first battle of the Civil War.

At first men scarcely knew what to do or what to expect. Since the Wars of the Roses there had been no war like this, dividing the nation and making one town the jealous enemy of another in the same county. In the Middle Ages the great barons had called their retainers and tenants to follow them in arms, and men were well used to the raising of such armies. But now there were no ready-prepared armies, and each man had to decide for himself whether he would defend his king, right or wrong, or fight against him for the sake of liberty in life and worship.

There are many stories of these anxious and puzzling early days of the Civil War in the letters and diaries which were written at that time. In the story of the Verney family, which is told chiefly in old letters (which have been kept at their country home in Buckinghamshire) we can learn what many such families were thinking and doing during the struggle between king and Parliament.

Sir Edmund Verney had been one of the gentlemen in attendance on Charles for many years; he took part in the adventures of the prince and Buckingham when they went to Madrid to woo a Spanish princess. Both Sir Edmund and his son Sir Ralph sat in the Long Parliament. Sir Ralph scribbled down in pencil what was being said and done—whenever his neighbours in that eagerly crowded House of Commons allowed him room to use his right arm. From these notes of his historians have learned much about the Long Parliament.

When the king left London to prepare for war in a place where he had more supporters, Sir Ralph Verney wrote anxiously: "Peace and our liberties are the only thing we aim at; till we have peace I am sure we can enjoy no liberties, and without our liberties I shall not heartily desire peace."

So many earnest men felt; but to some liberty meant the right to be a Puritan, to others the right to be a Catholic, to others to end divisions by forcing all men to use the same Prayer-book. As to peace, to make it by submitting to the king meant to give up the liberties for which so stern a fight had already been made, and undo the work of such men as Eliot, Hampden, and Pym. Yet numbers of loyal men were

ready to die for the king rather than see him submit to Parliament.

No wonder many people scarcely knew what to think. One lady wrote to Sir Ralph Verney that she was "in a great rage with Parliament," because the Commons had promised that all would be well if Strafford's head were cut off, and yet now that had been done the country was in a worse state than before. In another letter the same lady, writing from the north (where Hull had declared for Parliament in the midst of Royalist Yorkshire) said that she was longing for "the sweet Parliament" to come and "glad all our hearts here in the north. We are so many frightened people; for my part, if I hear but a door creak I take it to be a drum, and am ready to run out of the little valour I have."

It was at Hull that the king met with his first check. He demanded that its stores of arms, powder, and shot should be handed over to him; but Sir John Hotham, who had orders to send these arms to London, refused. While the king stood outside the closed gates, Hotham knelt on the top of the city wall and begged His Majesty not to command him to betray his trust by giving up the arms.

Parliament afterwards declared that Hotham would have committed treason if he had given them to the king, and Charles remarked bitterly that the king of England was now the only person against whom treason could *not* be committed.

§ 2. In the August of 1642 the king set up his royal standard at Nottingham and called upon his loyal subjects to gather to fight beneath it in his cause.

Flags played a great part in wars then, and this royal standard was so massive that it needed twenty men to support it. On the flag were the king's arms and a hand pointing to a crown, with the words "Give Cæsar his due." This standard was blown down and could not be set up again at once—a misfortune which troubled some of the king's faithful followers.

Charles now appointed Sir Edmund Verney as his standard-bearer. Sir Edmund accepted the post of honour both sadly and proudly. He could have fought with better heart if the king had been on the side of liberty and Puritan worship.

Yet he said : " I have eaten his bread and served him near thirty years, and will not do so base a thing as forsake him, and choose rather to lose my life (which I am sure I shall do) to preserve and defend those things which are against my conscience to preserve and defend."

His son, Sir Ralph, who could make a free choice, joined the side of Parliament, and so this happy family was divided, like many others.

Some men tried to believe that they need not take either side. A story is told of an earl who declared solemnly : " When I take arms with the king against the Parliament, or with the Parliament against the king, let a cannon bullet divide me between them." Soon he found he must choose. He joined the king, and was killed almost at once by a bullet striking him in the middle of the body.\* Amongst those who fought sadly were the Parliamentary Commander-in-Chief, the Earl of Essex, who carried his coffin about with him from place to place, and the Royalist Falkland, a

\* Earl of Kingston, as told in *Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson*.

young man of whom it was said that before the Civil War "his condition of life was so happy that it was hardly capable of improvement."\* He left the beautiful home near Oxford where he had loved to have as his guests men of learning and good talk, and lost all his gaiety. We are told that "the thought of



The "Forlorn Hope" Medal.

(*British Museum.*)

[On May 18, 1643, the king issued at Oxford a warrant for a medal "to be worn on the breast of every man who shall be certified . . . to have done us faithful service in the forlorn hope." The portraits are those of Charles I. and Prince Charles.]

the desolation the kingdom did and must endure took his sleep from him, and would shortly break his heart." It was happy for him that he died in one of the early battles, as he wished to do.

§ 3. The Puritans were naturally grave, and felt that they were taking a solemn course in withstanding

\* Clarendon.

their king, but many Cavaliers joined the *Royalist* army in high spirits.

From the comfortable manor houses of the villages, set in the trim and beautiful gardens Englishmen had now learned to love, many a country gentleman rode out, in the best suit of armour he could find, to offer himself, his horses, and his yearly rents to the king. Many a troop rode behind some gay flag of its own, showing the coat-of-arms of its leader, or some hastily made picture that proclaimed its side, such as that of "little dog Pym" biting the lion's tail.

Old pieces of armour which had last been taken down when England made ready for a Spanish invasion (at the time of the Armada) were used by lords and squires to fit out their tenants and followers.

Fewer of the great country houses were on the side of Parliament. The stoutest "Roundheads" were to be found in London and other big towns, where Parliament's real strength lay. The rich townsmen were ready to provide money for arms, and Parliament had the fleet to fetch supplies from abroad.

Yet even the Roundhead army had no regular uniform at first, and in one battle the soldiers wore green twigs to show their side, in another white handkerchiefs or pieces of paper stuck in their hats.

On the whole, the Royalists were stronger in the north and west, but even there Parliament held Hull and Plymouth, with which they were able to communicate by sea.

In Norfolk and the other eastern counties the Puritan leader, Oliver Cromwell, rallied all the "godly" men, and formed a fine, steady troop of Psalm-singing soldiers. These were soon to be matched against the

spirited "men of honour" who rode in the cavalry of Prince Rupert, the king's dashing young nephew. Rupert had known war from his childhood, when his father, the Elector Frederick (of the Palatinate) had been driven from his own country on the Rhine.\*



Oliver Cromwell.

(Engraved from a painting by Samuel Cooper.)

§ 4. So the armies grew on both sides. The difficulty at first was to know what to do. Charles dare not strike at his lost capital, London, and Parliament was puzzled to know how best to carry on this strange war against the king in his own kingdom.

Meanwhile, and all through the war, in every county men formed plans for little local campaigns. In Nottingham the Puritan gentlemen felt it their duty to get possession of Nottingham Castle and its stores, and Royalist Newark watched them jealously. In the same way the two parties faced one another in

\* See Chapter 32.

other parts of the country, skirmishing for here a castle, there a country house and its stores—even for a church, as a point of vantage. Guns were fired from the spires of Lichfield Cathedral, and bullet marks of the Civil War may still be found in the towers of many town and country churches.

The poorer country people tried to carry on their work in the fields without being drawn into the fighting, but, of course, many were pressed into one army or another. In the cities the apprentices drilled and were ready to defend the city walls, but had little idea of going beyond them. Yet many Englishmen kept out of the fighting, and there was never wholesale plundering and cruelty such as laid waste Germany during the Thirty Years' War in Europe. There was sadness when families were divided, some members supporting the king and some Parliament, but it was not a war of bitter hatred between English people. A Parliamentarian, such as Sir Ralph Verney, was ready to plead for Royalist relatives who fell into the Roundheads' hands as prisoners.



A pikeman, 1635.  
(From Meyrick's  
"Armour.")

#### 40. The Great Civil War (1642–49)

*Edgehill (1642), Marston Moor (1644), Naseby (1645).*

§ 1. Two months after he had raised his standard Charles felt strong enough to attack London, and he





THE KING'S TRUMPETER—SIR JOHN GILBERT.

marched south from Shrewsbury. Upon this news Essex, the Parliamentary commander, hastened from



his position at Worcester to stop the king's advance, and the two armies met at Edgehill (1642).

Charles held this long ridge, which overlooks a wide

Warwickshire plain, but he led his men down on to the flat ground, where Prince Rupert's spirited Cavaliers hoped to scatter the Roundheads before them. Cavalry was the chief pride and strength of Charles's army, and in those days there were few hedges to interfere with the charging horses.

Prince Rupert fulfilled the high hopes which rested upon him by scattering the enemy before him, both infantry and cavalry; but now he showed the headlong impatience which so often lost the battle when he thought it won. His horse soldiers pursued the enemy far, without one backward glance to see how the king's infantry were faring, and at last reached the Parliamentary baggage-wagons and stopped to plunder the stores.

Meanwhile Essex had broken through the king's infantry and captured the royal standard, and the Royalists had to draw back to the higher ground again. Here Essex would not follow, as his troops had suffered too, and so the armies drew apart again without a victory for either side.

Sir Edmund Verney's sad foreboding about himself was fulfilled on the field of Edgehill. He was surrounded by enemies, who offered him his life if he would give up the standard. He replied that his life was his own, but the standard was his and their king's, and he would not give it up while he lived. After a brave fight he fell. It was said that his arm was cut through, and his hand left still grasping the standard.

Later this standard was recovered by a brave Catholic officer in the king's army, who put on one of the orange scarves the Roundheads had worn during the battle, and made his way into the enemy's ranks.

He saw the standard in the hands of Essex's secretary, and exclaimed that it was not fit for a "penman" to carry it, and took it from him. He managed to bring it safely back to the king, who made him a knight on the spot.\*

§ 2. Charles next entered Oxford, and from there marched once more towards London; but the city train-bands came out in force, with all London's vigorous young apprentices in their ranks, and the king decided not to risk battle.

Oxford now became the headquarters of Charles and his court. The colleges made them welcome, and melted down their gold and silver wine cups and dinner services to provide for the king. The queen and her ladies made life as gay as they could for the Cavaliers, to whom they were so grateful, and from time to time Rupert and his horse galloped out to raid the countryside in search of lurking Roundheads. In one such skirmish (at Chalgrove Field) John Hampden was killed.

Charles tried to plan an advance on London by three Royalist armies, his own from the Thames valley, and others from the north and west. Some progress was made, but now, as all through the war, the local troops were unwilling to go far from their own counties. The northerners did not like leaving Hull and Nottingham behind them garrisoned by Roundheads who might harry their land and plunder their houses when they were gone. The men of Devon hated to turn their backs on Parliamentary Plymouth, and the midlanders cared more about the siege of the Roundheads in Gloucester than an advance on London.

\* *Verney Memoirs* and Gardiner's *Great Civil War*.

The year 1643 saw some fighting and sieges, but there was no decisive battle until 1644.

By then Parliament had entered into an alliance with the Scots, to whom they bound themselves in a Solemn League and Covenant, by which the Parliamentarians promised to reform religion in England according to "the example of the best reformed Churches." The Scots considered that this meant the establishment of Presbyterian Church government in England, and they now gladly came to the help of Parliament.

Prince Rupert rode from the west to the rescue of York, and succeeded in entering the city and forcing the Roundheads to give up the siege. When they were in retreat he rode out again to pursue them, and a battle took place on the plain of Marston Moor (1644). At first the Royalists seemed successful, but not for long—Rupert's cavalry had now met their match in Oliver Cromwell's troop of horse.

Cromwell had learned a lesson at Edgehill. He had seen then that the Royalists' chief advantage lay in their dashing cavalry, and he had set himself to train horsemen who could show as much spirit and yet steady themselves in the moment of victory to look and see where they were most wanted.

At Marston Moor Cromwell's horse actually drove Rupert's before them, and then they wheeled round to return to the help of the hard-pressed Scots. Owing to Cromwell, the Parliamentary army won a complete victory, by which the king lost his command of the north.

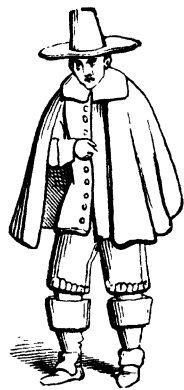
§ 3. By this time Parliament had, under Cromwell's guidance, formed a really trained and disciplined army

in place of the bands of local troops, who looked to their own colonels for their orders and their pay. It was called the New Model Army, and Fairfax was now Commander-in-Chief, and Cromwell was at the head of all the cavalry. Cromwell's troops were still, most of them, "men of religion," who began and ended a day of battle with Psalms and prayers, and scorned to give way to the temptations of plunder when they took a camp or entered a town.

As soon as the New Model was ready for action, Fairfax and Cromwell determined to force the king into battle, and they did so at Naseby in Northamptonshire (1645). In this battle Rupert once more broke through the troops before him, pursued them off the field, and attacked the Roundheads' baggage-train, but was driven off. Meanwhile Cromwell's Ironsides had also been victorious on their wing, but he checked his pursuit in order to help in Fairfax's attack on the Royalist infantry. The battle was won for Parliament before Rupert returned ; Charles had to flee and leave his baggage, and even his papers, behind him. Amongst the papers were letters which revealed the king's plans with the Irish and French, and made Parliament less inclined than ever to trust him.

The king's forces never really rallied after Naseby. In less than a year Charles was forced to flee from Oxford disguised as a servant, and soon afterwards Oxford surrendered to Parliament.

Charles made his way north, and at Newark he

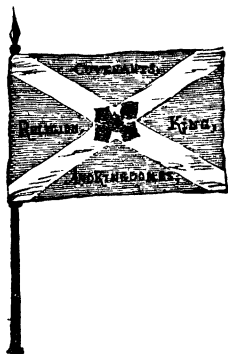


Roundhead,  
1649.

gave himself up to the Scottish army, in the hope that the Scots could be won over to fresh loyalty to the House of Stuart.

#### 41. The Execution of Charles I. (1649)

§ 1. When the king's power was broken the Parliamentarians were divided by quarrels, and the men who had fought to destroy tyranny, such as that which the nation had suffered under Strafford, found it a hard task to set up an orderly government in its place. The great leaders, such as Hampden and Pym, were dead, and Oliver Cromwell was as yet more of a soldier than a statesman. There was no one strong enough to prevent the quarrel which soon broke out between Parliament and its New Model Army.



Flag of the Covenant.

The king, on his side, was soon disappointed in the Scots. Their one wish was to see the Presbyterian Church established as the religion of England, and they asked Charles to sign the Covenant and promise to support their Church. Religion was the one thing in which Charles stood firm, and he would not accept the Covenant. The Scots then handed him over to Parliament, and received a sum of money to pay the Scottish army.

The House of Commons, pressed by the Scots, did accept the Covenant, and passed Acts which forbade the use of the Church of England Prayer-book, set up

the Presbyterian services and Church government (that is, without bishops), and allowed Puritans who were not Presbyterians to be punished.

These Acts soon led to a quarrel with the New Model Army, whose soldiers were all strict Puritans, but not Presbyterians. They were known as Independents in religion. Not only were the New Model soldiers threatened with persecution for their religion, but Parliament refused to pay them for their services in the war.

At first Cromwell kept them from mutiny, telling them that "what we gain in a free way is better than twice as much in a forced way, and will be more truly ours and our children's." But when Parliament began to threaten to make friends with the king, and use Royalist troops to frighten the New Model Army, Cromwell took action.

First he sent troops to take charge of the king (who willingly put himself in their hands because they did not ask him to be a Presbyterian), and then the New Model marched on London.

Extraordinary scenes now took place in Parliament. When members decided to yield to the army, London citizens rushed into the House of Commons, and apprentices held the Speaker down while the frightened members voted as they were told. On this news the army sternly marched on and gave its own commands to Parliament. Eleven members were dismissed, and the others allowed to sit on.

Thus within a few years the liberties of Parliament had had rude blows from the king and from London citizens, and now it had to take orders from an army.



§ 2. Oliver Cromwell now became the real ruler of the country, because he alone could make the army obey him. He tried to make terms with the king, by which there was to be free worship for all Protestants, and the king's power was to be checked by giving more control to Parliament.

Charles was not wise enough to make terms with



Trial of Charles I.

*(From a contemporary print in the British Museum.)*

any one party, but he went on scheming with them all until none could trust him to keep faith. Now he escaped to the Isle of Wight, and from there schemed to rouse the Scots, the English Presbyterians, and the Royalists in his cause. He succeeded with the Scots, who soon marched into England once more, at the head of an army pledged to fight for the king.

Cromwell then gave up all hope of coming to an

agreement with him, and at an army meeting he passed a solemn resolution "to call Charles Stuart, that man of blood, to account for the blood he had shed."

The Scots were utterly defeated by Cromwell at Preston (1648), and all other Royalist risings put down with more severity than ever before.

Cromwell then turned to Parliament, and sent Colonel Pride to expel a hundred members whom he did not trust, and imprison fifty more. Parliament, with no army of its own, had to submit to this high-handed proceeding, which was known as "Pride's Purge." The remainder of the House of Commons was nicknamed the Rump.

Next Cromwell proceeded to carry out his resolution against the king, and Charles was brought to trial in Westminster Hall for high treason against his Parliament and people.

§ 3. Charles was most kingly in the hours of his suffering and trial, and when he was condemned to death he did not flinch.

He said good-bye to two of his beloved children who were still in England, and then made ready for what he called his "second marriage day," because he was going to be joined to his Saviour.

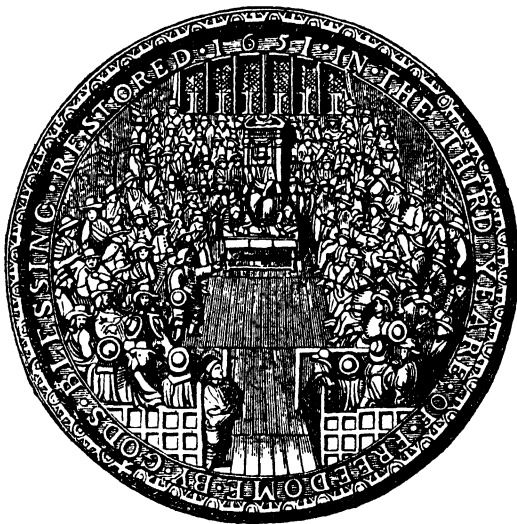
He asked for a thicker shirt than usual, lest he should shiver in the cold and people should imagine he was afraid of death.

On the scaffold in Whitehall he declared that he forgave his enemies.

The king's death was a shock to the country, and many people began to think more of his sorrows, his

piety, his love for his family, and his brave dig of the tyranny under which Englishmen had suffered during his reign.

The Parliamentarians had not punished their Cavalier enemies by bloodshed, except in the case of the king himself. They had been content to make the



Great Seal of the Commonwealth, 1651.

country gentlemen pay large fines and leave them to struggle to make a living for themselves out of their land once more.

Now the stern "rule of the Saints," as the rule of the Independents was called, made itself felt. The king's two children in England soon suffered by it. The Princess Elizabeth and her brother were placed under the care of a lady of rank, but reports reached

Parliament that "the children of the man Charles Stuart were treated with too much respect." The Speaker was sent to see, and found the royal children dining at a separate table. The mistress of the house said that she would not allow any of her household to sit at the same table with the king's children.



Great Seal of the Commonwealth, 1651.

Accordingly they were taken from her care to Carisbrooke Castle, in the Isle of Wight, where the Princess Elizabeth brooded over her sorrow and lost her strength. She was found dead, lying with her face on her open Bible, at the age of fifteen.

Charles's two eldest sons, Charles and James, had escaped from England with their mother, and each of them was destined to be King of England in turn.

**42. The Commonwealth.—I**

*Oliver Cromwell* (1653-58)

§ 1. England was now a republic—that is, a country governed without a king. The English people liked better to call it a Commonwealth, by which they meant a state governed by the people in Parliament for the peoples' weal, or good ; and by that name this period of government is known in history.

Nevertheless the country was not really governed by the people, for the Rump, which remained in power, was just the remnant of a House of Commons which had been sitting for seven years. It abolished the House of Lords as "useless and dangerous."

At first the Rump was left to govern undisturbed, because Cromwell and the New Model Army were still busy fighting the last battles of the Civil War.

Ireland was still seething with disorder and rebellion, which had first broken out there a year before the Civil War began. The Irish Roman Catholics had risen against the English government, and attacked and murdered the Protestants and laid waste their lands. All through the Civil War this struggle continued, and a large number of the Irish people were killed in it.

In the year of the king's death, Cromwell went to Ireland himself with a small army of his iron soldiers, and he and his son-in-law suppressed the rebellion thoroughly, but also cruelly. There were memorable captures of two stubborn Irish towns,\* and to this day

\* Drogheda and Wexford.

Irishmen remember with horror how Cromwell's soldiers put the defenders to death without pity.

When Ireland had been brought to utter submission, still more Irishmen were driven from their lands to live as best they could in the wild, bare country of the west, and the land was given to English soldiers.

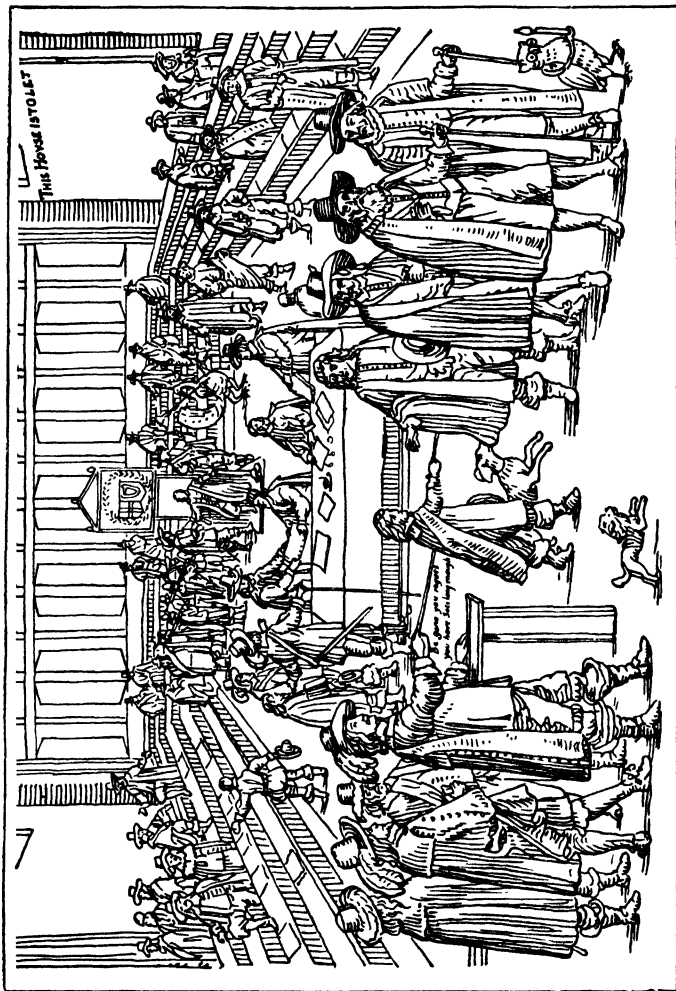


The Scots keep their young king's nose to the grindstone.

(From a Broadside of 1651.)

So a Puritan population grew up in the south, although Cromwell's settlers were not so numerous as the colonists whom James I. had "planted" in Ulster.

§ 2. In England the invading Scots still kept up the Civil War after the king's death. They had with them his son, Prince Charles, whom they had persuaded to accept the Covenant, and they hoped to place him on his father's throne.



Cromwell ejecting the Rump, 1653.  
(From a contemporary Dutch caricature.)

“ Cromwell defeated one Scottish army at Dunbar (1650), but the next year they invaded England, with Prince Charles at their head. Once more Cromwell marched out to victory, crushed the Scottish army, and put an end to its hopes at the battle of Worcester (1651). Cromwell called this victory the “ crowning mercy ” which God had given him.

After Worcester Prince Charles had to flee, and he had nearly as many adventures as his great-nephew “ Bonnie Prince Charlie,” who was in the same position nearly a hundred years later. Once he escaped disguised as a servant, and was nearly found out because he did not know how to turn a jack for roasting meat. An oak tree is still shown at Boscobel which is said to have sprung from the one in which Charles hid while Roundheads were searching for him below.

§ 3. When Cromwell was free from the anxieties and labours of war he soon felt dissatisfied with the government of the Rump.

In 1653 the Rump was about to pass a Bill by which all its members would keep their seats in any new Parliament, without re-election. Cromwell soon upset this attempt by marching into Westminster Hall, where the Rump sat, and calling in soldiers to drive the members out. He said to them sternly : “ You are no Parliament ; I say you are no Parliament.” When his eye fell on the mace, which is the sign of the authority of the Speaker, he said contemptuously : “ What shall we do with this bauble ? Take it away.”

No one in the country regretted or pitied the Rump. Cromwell himself said that “ not even a dog barked ” at seeing the members go.



A new Parliament was summoned by Cromwell, but it only sat for a short time. It was known as "Barebone's Parliament," because one of its members was named Praise-God Barebone! The Puritans often gave their children texts for Christian names. There is a story of a man who was christened Obadiah Bind-their-kings-in-chains-and-their-nobles-in-fetters-of-iron.

§ 4. The officers of the army now drew up a new form of government more suitable for a Commonwealth.\* Cromwell was to hold the office of Lord Protector for life, ruling with a Council of State and a



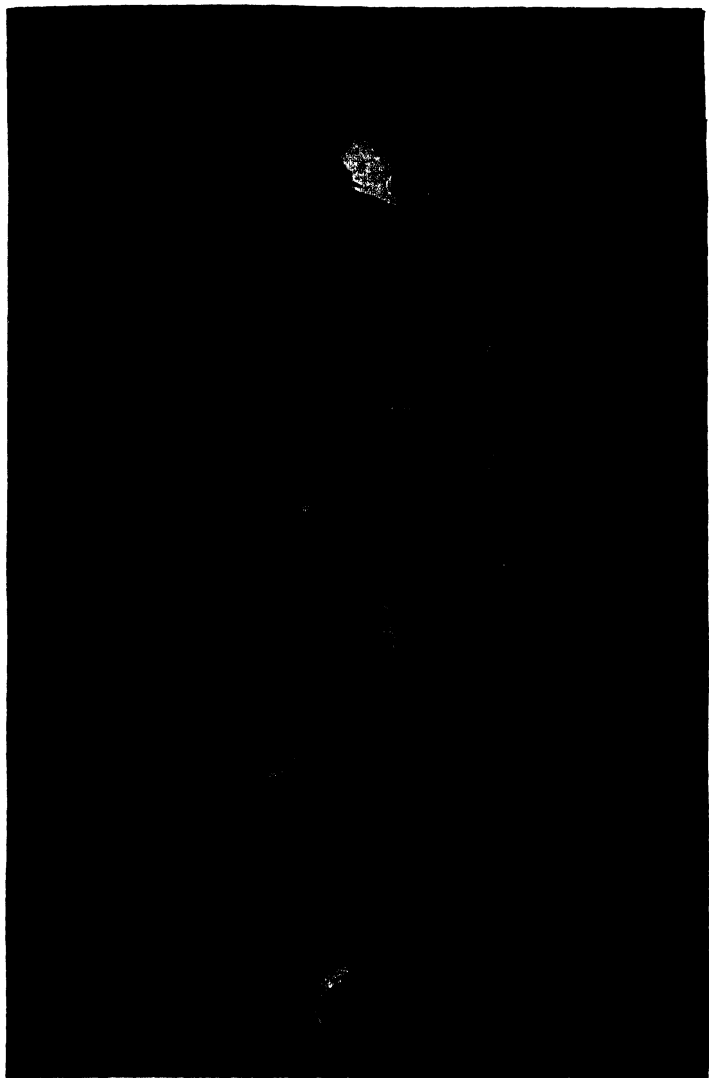
Cromwell shilling.

single House of Parliament, which should be elected by the people. All Protestants were to be free to worship as they thought best, but there were to be no bishops.

Now the "rule of the Saints" began in earnest. Cromwell, although he had been appointed Lord Protector, could not always get his Parliament to agree with him. Once he said sadly that he believed in government by the consent of the people; but, he asked, "where shall we find that consent?"

The Puritans stopped all Sunday amusements, and tried to put down altogether the theatres, dancing, and many sports. The country was no longer the "Merrie England" of Elizabeth's days, and people felt as if their rulers did not think it right that they should enjoy themselves.

\* In the Instrument of Government, 1653.



A GROUP OF DUTCH MERCHANTS—REMBRANDT.

(See page 256.)

When Cromwell found it difficult to carry out the government of all parts of the country in an orderly way, he divided England into ten districts and placed a major-general over each. This military rule soon caused discontent.

In spite of his difficulties in forming and keeping up a new kind of government, Cromwell was very successful in managing England's foreign affairs during these years of the Protectorate.

### 43. The Commonwealth.—II

#### *Admiral Blake*

§ 1. Very early during the Commonwealth England began to suffer for the neglect of her sea-power. Charles I. had built some good ships, but he had not enough money to keep up the navy properly, and so the badly-paid sailors took the side of Parliament in the Civil War.

After the war the seamen found that Parliament grudged spending money on the fleet too, and so when Prince Rupert decided to turn sailor, and try to sweep across seas as he had swept across battlefields, a number of the ships joined him. Very soon Rupert became a terror of the sea, and none of the Commonwealth merchant ships were safe.

Parliament had no great admiral to whom to turn, and so it called upon Robert Blake, a man of about fifty, whose father had been the head of a merchant shipping business, to take what ships he could muster and try to check Prince Rupert.

Robert Blake came of a West country (Somerset) shipping family, and whatever he took up he did well and thoroughly. At Oxford he proved himself such a good scholar that he would probably have won a position as a university teacher if he had been a little taller and finer-looking.

In later days he surprised the kings of Spain and Portugal, with whom he had to treat, by writing to them in scholarly Latin.

When Blake returned home from his studies at Oxford he found that his family was no longer rich, because the shipping trade had fallen very low. Soon afterwards his father died, and it is very likely that for a number of years he himself carried on the business, thus gaining



Robert Blake.

much useful experience on the sea; but in course of time he became a member of Parliament and took part in public affairs. During the Civil War he fought vigorously for Parliament in the campaigns in Somerset, gallantly defending both Bristol and Taunton against Royalist attacks.

When Blake sailed out with a small fleet to match himself against the daring of Prince Rupert, he soon

won the trust of his sailors, who saw that they had a commander who understood life at sea. Soon Rupert was shut up in an Irish harbour, and when at last he escaped, with Blake close upon him, he was glad to leave English waters behind him.

Rupert found a welcome in Portugal, and hoped to do great things with a Portuguese fleet. But wherever he went Blake followed. When Rupert sailed out of Lisbon harbour Blake fell upon him and broke up his fleet. When he made for the open sea Blake harried him from place to place, and at last destroyed a large part of his fleet which was separated from the rest. To complete this cruise of victory, Blake captured a Portuguese treasure fleet, homeward bound from Brazil.

When Rupert was no longer a constant danger to English shipping, a greater task awaited Blake.

The Commonwealth was faced by the bold attempt of the Dutch to control all the seas and keep down the trade of other nations. Since Holland's gallant struggle against Spain in Queen Elizabeth's days, the Dutch had been so energetic in shipbuilding and fisheries that no other nation now had so many ships in all parts of the world. English seamen were driven from the North Sea herring fisheries, and in the whale and cod fishing grounds off Newfoundland, Labrador, and Greenland (where England had led the way), the Dutch were said to hunt whales and English fishermen equally hard. They even ousted English merchants from the Muscovy trade in the White Sea, and they planted a settlement at the Cape of Good Hope to keep watch on the route to India.

Even Spain now found the Dutch formidable

enemies in their jealously-guarded Spanish Main. The Dutch, too, carried goods for many other nations, and earned the name of "wagoners of all seas."

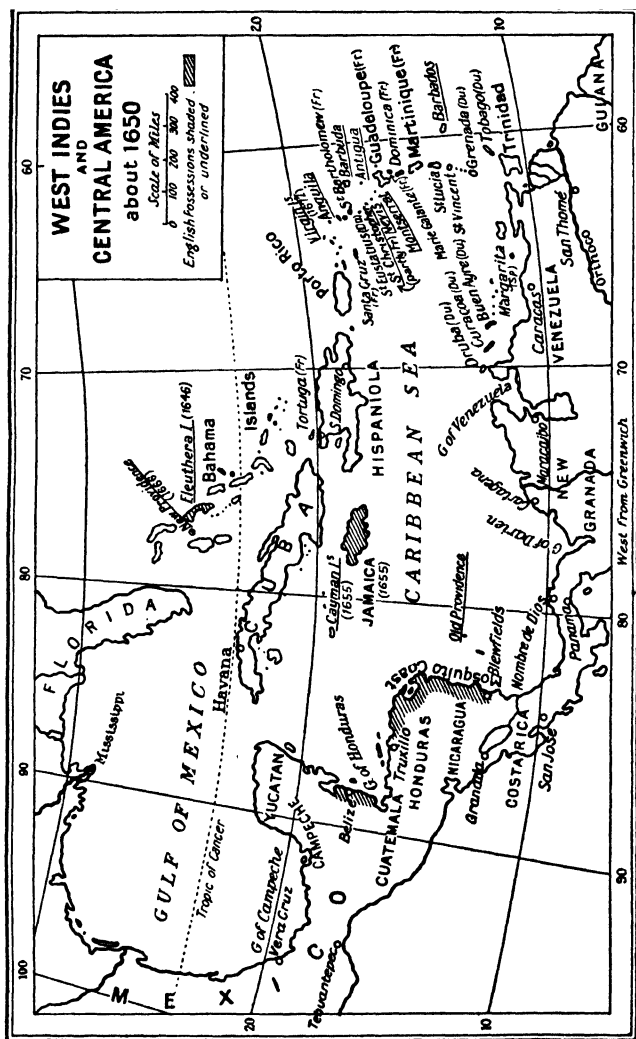
§ 2. At last England had to rouse herself, or she would lose not only sea-power but most of the merchant shipping trade, which is so important to an island country. To increase English shipping the Commonwealth passed a famous Navigation Act in 1651. By this no goods were to be brought into England unless they were carried in English ships or ships belonging to the country which produced the goods. This prevented the Dutch bringing to England such things as tea, rice, and wines, which they used to carry for other nations.

The Navigation Act made England a sea-faring nation once more, but it increased the ill-feeling between the English and the Dutch, which led to war.

The first battle took place in 1652. Blake had by then recaptured the Channel Islands and the Scilly Isles for England, and it was decided that henceforth foreign ships should be required to salute English ships in English waters. The great Dutch admiral, Martin Tromp, was returning from a battle practice, which he had proudly carried out in English waters, with forty-two ships, when he met Blake with thirteen. Blake demanded the salute, Tromp replied by firing a broadside, and so a battle opened.

In spite of his small numbers Blake was left in command of the position, with two Dutch vessels as prizes of war.

Several battles followed in which many fine ships



were engaged. Once when Tromp, with four hundred ships, at last drove off Blake and his fleet of forty-two vessels, he is said to have sailed down the English Channel with a broom at his masthead, to show that he had swept the English off their own waters. (This is probably not true, as Tromp, though proud, was not such a boaster.)

The Commonwealth spared no money on ships now, knowing they had an admiral they could rely on, and at last the Dutch had to own themselves beaten at sea. The brave Tromp fell in one of the last battles of the war.

England now joined France in attacking Spain. Two demands were made—that Spain should grant freedom of religion in her dominions, and freedom of trade on the ocean. The Spanish Ambassador replied that England might as well ask for “his master’s two eyes.”

Blake fought brilliantly against Spain, and at last destroyed a Spanish fleet in the harbour at Santa Cruz. As his fleet, returning home in triumph, entered Plymouth Sound, the great sailor died quietly, worn out by his labours for his family and his country.

The Commonwealth army also took part in the war against Spain, and captured Dunkirk in the Spanish Netherlands. A still more important capture for England was the island of Jamaica.

By the time of Cromwell’s death England once more stood high amongst the nations of the world, and the Commonwealth wars were not wars of greed and oppression of which Englishmen need be ashamed. They were caused chiefly by the jealous use the Dutch



and the Spaniards made of their sea-power, and so Blake's name may be connected with the first struggle to establish freedom of the seas.\*

#### 44. The Restoration of the Stuart Kings

*Charles II. (1660-85)*

§ 1. Cromwell died in 1658, at the age of fifty-nine. September 3rd, the day of his death, had also been the date of his two last victories in the Civil War (Dunbar and Worcester).

Cromwell's life is one of the most remarkable in English history. As a boy he had enjoyed country life, and such sports as football and cudgels, and he grew up strong and hardy. As a man, he farmed his own land, and hunted and hawked with other east country squires, and was a magistrate and Member of Parliament for Huntingdon. It was natural that he should be one of the Puritan country gentlemen who made so firm a stand for their liberties in Charles I.'s Parliaments.

Cromwell's strength and habit of leadership in his own district gave him dignity and confidence in himself ; his earnest, sober Puritan religion gave him faith that he was fighting God's battles, and his character and training made him business-like and thorough in all he did. Before his death he refused the title of king, which Parliament wished him to take. He knew that it would not please the stern soldiers of the New Model Army, so many of whom he himself had trained.

\* See Callender's *Naval Side of British History*.

As long as Cromwell lived he could rule England as a Commonwealth and a Protectorate, but it was the man, Oliver Cromwell, that people obeyed and believed in, more than they believed in the new system of government. Some years after his death the writer of a famous diary described how the Royalist attempts to disgrace his memory had failed. The diary-writer said : " It is strange how everybody do nowadays reflect upon Oliver and commend him, what brave things he did, and made all the neighbour princes fear him." \*

When Cromwell died the discontent with Puritan rule began to show itself more and more. Men felt that their lives had been interfered with too much ; they missed their favourite sports which had been forbidden (such as bear-baiting and cock-fighting) and the dancing on village greens, round the maypole and at other times, and the theatres, which had been closed.

Cromwell's son, Richard, was accepted as Lord Protector, but after nine months he found the task too hard for him and returned to private life.



Richard Cromwell.

(From a miniature by Samuel Cooper, 1664.)

§ 2. Now there was no settled rule : the generals of the army quarrelled, the new kind of Parliament had not won men's trust, and the affairs of the nation were soon in confusion. In their longing for a government

\* Pepys.

which they could respect and obey, men thought of the great work of the Long Parliament, and it was decided to recall the remnant of it which had been known as the Rump. It seemed to be the only governing body which could stand for the old rights and laws of England.

The Rump also failed to give the country a settled government, for it soon quarrelled with the army; and then General Monk, who was in command of the Commonwealth soldiers in Scotland, marched upon London. Monk believed that the only way to settle the country was to restore the kingship, and he soon decided that Charles I.'s son should be recalled to England as Charles II.

The nation was now equally weary of Puritan strictness, the weak rule of the Rump, and the power of the army, and so people showed themselves ready to welcome a king once more.

Charles II. landed at Dover in May 1660. Pepys, the diary-writer who wrote of Cromwell's fame, described how General Monk received Charles with "all imaginable love and respect," and what a crowd of citizens, soldiers, and noblemen were there. The king stood under a canopy, and the Mayor of Dover came up and gave his white staff to him as a sign of submission, and the king handed it back again. Then the mayor presented to him a rich Bible, the gift of the town, and the king said that "it was the thing that he loved above all things in the world."

After this Charles stepped into a stately coach and set off towards London, amidst shouting and signs of joy such as were "past imagination."

§ 3. Charles II. was a clever man, and a kindly one

too, and he was determined to keep peace with the English people, because he did not want "to go on his travels again." He loved ease and pleasure and witty talk, and was often called the "Merry Monarch." Londoners soon felt affectionate towards a king whom



Charles II.

*(From an engraving after the portrait by Lely.)*

they could often watch strolling in St. James's Park, feeding the rare ducks he liked to have there, and followed by two or three of his favourite little spaniels.

The king left the government in the hands of his ministers, especially the capable Earl of Clarendon, who (as Edward Hyde) had been faithful to his father,

without losing all understanding of the views of Parliament. Although Charles seemed to spend all his time on pleasure and sport, he always knew what was happening, and often managed to get his own way in government without seeming to interfere.

Now the country suffered once more for Charles I.'s marriage to a Roman Catholic, for Charles II. had been



Edward Hyde, Earl of  
Clarendon.

brought up by a Catholic mother, and secretly loved her religion more than the Church of England. Also he was drawn to the King of France, Louis XIV., because he was a relative and a Catholic, and had been good to him in his years of exile. So later on Charles made a secret treaty with Louis, and took money from him, at a time when England regarded France with suspicion.

#### **45. Charles II. and the Nonconformists**

§ 1. Before Charles II. landed in England, he had promised pardon to all who had taken the side of Parliament in the Civil War, except those whom the new Parliament decided to punish. This promise was kept, but lands which had been taken from Royalists were given back to them.

The new Parliament was guided by Lord Clarendon,

and was very loyal to the king and to the Church of England, and not inclined to make things easy for the Puritans. In 1662 another Act of Uniformity was passed, ordering that the services in the Church of England Prayer-book should be used in all churches. Bishops were also restored to their old position in Church government.

The Act of Uniformity was followed by others which inflicted hardships on strict Puritans. They could no longer be mayors or members of a town council, because they would be required to receive the sacrament of Communion at a Church of England service. (This was ordered by the Corporation Act of 1661.)

Still harder for the Puritans was the Act which forbade any religious meeting of more than a very few persons, unless it was a Church of England service (Conventicle Act). It was followed by the Five Mile Act (1665), which forbade any man who had preached at such a religious meeting to come within five miles of any important corporate town.\*

More than 2,000 Puritan clergymen, who would not accept the Act of Uniformity, had to give up their parish churches and leave their homes. In fact these Acts (known as the Clarendon Code) made all Puritans who would not attend the Church of England services into lawbreakers. They soon came to be known as Nonconformists or Dissenters, because they would not "conform" with, but "dissented" from, the Act of Uniformity.

Amongst the Nonconformist preachers who were imprisoned was John Bunyan, the author of *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

\* Town which had been granted a charter of incorporation.

§ 2. In foreign affairs the reign of Charles II. was marked by two more wars with the Dutch, which left England the strongest nation at sea.

The Parliament of 1660 passed a new Navigation Act. In this the old rule was repeated—that goods must only be brought to England in English ships or ships belonging to the country which produced the goods. In addition, the Act of 1660 forbade the colonies to trade with any country except England and other English colonies. This injured Dutch trade and shipping so much that the old quarrel broke out again into war.

In the Dutch wars of Charles II.'s reign England was no longer fighting simply for the right to trade—that is, for the freedom of the seas. The fighting now was a struggle between the two nations for the mastery of the seas.

Once more soldiers turned sailors. England now had Prince Rupert on her side, and General Monk joined the fleet too. The Lord High Admiral was the king's brother, James, Duke of York (afterwards James II.). He was a good and business-like commander, and one man who served with him said that he was at his best in a hard fight, and was "a man naturally martial to the hottest degree, yet a man that never in his life talks one word of himself or service of his own." \*

The Dutch had another fine admiral, named de Ruyter, to take the place of Tromp.

The Duke of York and his fleet won a great victory over de Ruyter off Lowestoft (1665), but after this it became more and more difficult to raise money to

\* Pepys.

keep up a good navy. Charles II. spent a great deal on his pleasures, and Parliament therefore was unwilling to place more sums of money in his hands.

Even the sailors' pay was not given to them, and there are accounts of how indignant crowds of sailors' wives gathered at the dockyards to shout and groan and swear, especially when any naval officials appeared. Pepys gives us such a picture in his diary, where he describes how more than three hundred women threatened him. He adds: "My wife and I were afraid to send a venison-pasty that we have for supper to-night to the cook's to be baked, for fear of their offering violence to it: but it went, and no hurt done." It is good to read that after enjoying his venison-pasty in safety Pepys went to the Tower to speak to an important official about the sailors' need of clothes.

In 1667 economy in the navy was carried so far that some ships were laid up not to go to sea again, and their crews dismissed. The Dutch were quick to take advantage of this, and a Dutch fleet (guided by English sailors who had deserted in disgust), sailed boldly up the Medway until the boom of its guns was heard in London. Much English shipping was destroyed, and London thrown into a state of alarm and shame.

The Dutch did not actually blockade London, and were held in check, but England was soon glad to make peace.

§ 3. It was not long before Louis XIV., the great king of France, began to use his influence over Charles II. There were two things Louis wanted Charles to do—first, to bring England back to the





THE EXPLOSION OF A MAGAZINE AT SHEERNESS.  
(From a contemporary Dutch print in the British Museum.)

Catholic Church, and second, to help France to gain possession of Holland. Accordingly the Secret Treaty of Dover (1670) was drawn up between the two kings. By this treaty Charles promised to declare himself a Roman Catholic, and to keep England at war with the Dutch ; in return he received regular sums of money from Louis.

Charles succeeded in stirring up the country to renew fighting against the Dutch, but after a while the English people began to admire Holland's gallant defence against the French king, and to be afraid that Louis would become too powerful. In 1674 peace was made once more. England did not give up the Navigation Act, which kept all the trade of her colonies to herself, nor restore to the Dutch their North American settlement of New Amsterdam, which had been captured in 1664 and re-named New York, after the Duke of York.

Charles dared not openly keep his other promise in the Treaty of Dover, but he sent out a Declaration of Indulgence, by which he set both Catholics and Nonconformists free from obedience to the Act of Uniformity and other Acts of the "Clarendon Code." Parliament expressed great disapproval of the Declaration of Indulgence, and Charles had to withdraw it. He had, however, alarmed the country so much by his favour to Catholics that Parliament passed the Test Act (1673), which ordered that every one who held any post under the government must take the sacrament of Communion according to the Church of England service.

When the Test Act was passed the Duke of York immediately gave up his post of Lord High Admiral,

which showed openly that he was a Roman Catholic. In this he was brave and sincere, although he was also an obstinate man.

§ 4. The nation was now in an anxious state of mind, and stories began to spread about a great plot by Catholics to murder the king and his ministers and the leading clergy, and to overthrow the Church of England. With the Gunpowder



Dr. Oates discovers the plot to king and council.

Plot in their minds men were excited into a frenzy of alarm about this new Popish Plot, as it was called. Those who wished to see an end of all favour to Catholics helped to keep up the alarm, and a man named Titus Oates came forward and made accusations against Catholic after Catholic, swearing to the truth of all he said. He told many wicked lies, but people believed them all at the time, and the prisons

were soon packed full of Catholics.

While this absurd Popish Plot story was still keeping England in a state of anxiety, Parliament proposed to pass an Exclusion Bill, by which the Duke of York was to be excluded from the throne of England because he was a Catholic.

To save the Duke of York from this exclusion Charles dissolved three Parliaments in turn, and for the last four years of his reign (1681-85) he ruled without a Parliament.

The storm-clouds of religious differences were gathering once more over England, but so long as Charles II. lived there was no open struggle.

#### 46. London in Charles II.'s Reign

*The Great Plague* (1665) and *The Great Fire* (1666)

§ 1. The Restoration changed the life of villages and towns by bringing back some of the gaiety, sports, and bright colours which had not been allowed during the sober strictness of Puritan rule. Maypoles were set up again on village greens, and people baked mince pies and decked their houses with holly at Christmas once more. In London the change was most marked of all, because there the court set an example of gay and lavish living. After the years of anxiety and exile, the king wanted to enjoy life to the full, and he gathered round him men and women who were gay, witty, and pleasure-loving.

There are two famous diaries which give us many pictures of London in these days. One was kept by Samuel Pepys, who worked for the admiralty on important business connected with the navy. When he was not in his office he visited the theatres, the houses of noblemen, rich merchants, and poorer friends, many of the London churches, and all the streets which were busy and interesting, and sometimes the court. In his diary are to be found lively and amusing stories of the things he did and saw, written when he was just fresh from the enjoyment of them.

The other diary-writer was John Evelyn, a gentle-



CHARLES II. VISITING WREN DURING THE BUILDING OF  
ST. PAUL'S—SEYMOUR LUCAS, R.A.

*(From the picture in the Laing Art Gallery, Newcastle-on-Tyne.)*

man whose greatest interests were to study old coins and plan fine gardens. He lived on his estate near London, and visited his friends there and the Court, and during the Dutch wars he looked after the arrangements for disabled sailors.

Pepys gives us an idea of how colour and gaiety had come back to the London streets when he describes how he and his wife drove out in their coach on May



Citizens in a coffee-house.

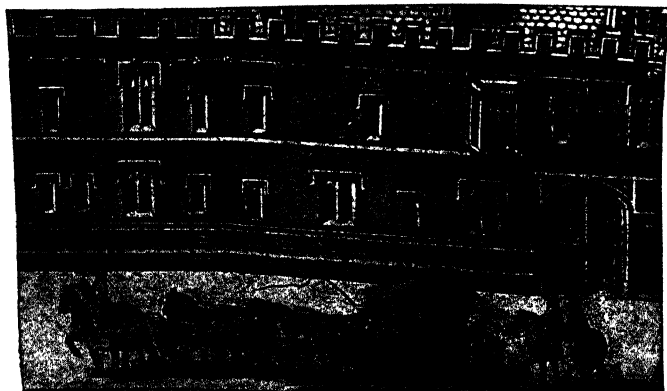
(From a Broadside of 1677.)

Day in 1669. The coachman and footmen were in new suits of serge, the reins were green, and the horses' manes and tails tied with red ribbons. Mrs. Pepys wore "a flowered tabby gown, now laced exceeding pretty, and indeed was fine all over." Pepys himself was in "a flowered tabby vest \* and coloured camelott tunique," † with gold lace at his wrists. He declared that he did not see any coach prettier than his own, although some were more gay.

\* Waistcoat.

† Coat.

Both Pepys and Evelyn described as an important and interesting change of fashion a new vest which the king began to wear, in order to bring in a less extravagant style of dress for men. This vest and the tunic worn with it were early forms of the waistcoat and coat men wear now. They were not really plain or simple, and it was the fashion at first to have gold buttons



A private carriage passing through Oxford.  
(From Loggan's "*Oxonia Illustrata*," 1675.)

on the tunic and gold edging along the seams. Pepys got some gold edging for his clothes off his wife's best petticoat, which she had for her wedding day.

Pepys first had a watch in the year 1665, and was so delighted with it that he carried it in his hand when he went out driving, and looked at it a hundred times a day.

He was amongst the first men to wear "periwigs," the elaborate curled wigs which became the fashion. It is said that they were introduced by men who had

been Roundheads and now wanted to look like Cavaliers when they went to Court. Pepys called the maids of his household in to look at his, and they were "mightily troubled" to see his own hair cut short and covered up by the wig.

Plays now became a favourite amusement once more, and Pepys once went to a play thirteen days in a fortnight. He describes how the theatres were being improved, and lighted up by numbers of wax candles, with nine or ten fiddlers to supply music. But people still ate oranges in the theatre, and sometimes threw them at the actors.

In spite of the return of gaiety in Restoration London, some Puritan habits were still kept up, and Pepys himself was shocked to see card-playing at the court on Sunday. One reminder of the "rule of the Saints" was the length of the sermon in church services. Men still liked a sermon to last an hour. When it was longer still, Pepys went out of church and home to dinner. He mentions in his diary three hundred and sixteen sermons he had heard.



Periwig, time of Charles II.

§ 2. During Charles II.'s reign two events memorable in the history of London occurred. The first was the Great Plague of 1665. The infection spread so terribly in London that whole families died, and many houses were left without a living man or woman in them. Many people fled from London, and grass grew up in some of the deserted streets.

When any one sickened of the plague the door of the



house was marked with a white cross, and no one was allowed to come out or go in for a month. So there was little hope of escape from infection for any of the family. In the night men went round with carts to collect the bodies of the dead for burial in the "plague pits." They warned people of their coming by ringing a bell and calling "Bring out your dead."

Pepys did not leave London until the admiralty moved to offices outside, and he described his life in the plague-stricken city. He wrote that he stayed



The Plague: flight to the country.

(From a woodcut.)

until "there was little noise heard day or night but tolling of bells, till whole families, ten and twelve together, have been swept away, till my very physician . . . having survived the month of his own house being shut up, died himself of the Plague: till the nights . . . are grown too short to conceal the burials of those that died the day before . . . lastly, till I could find neither meat nor drink safe, the butchers being everywhere visited, my brewer's house shut up, and my baker, with his whole family, dead of the Plague."

§ 3. The year after this terrible Plague came the

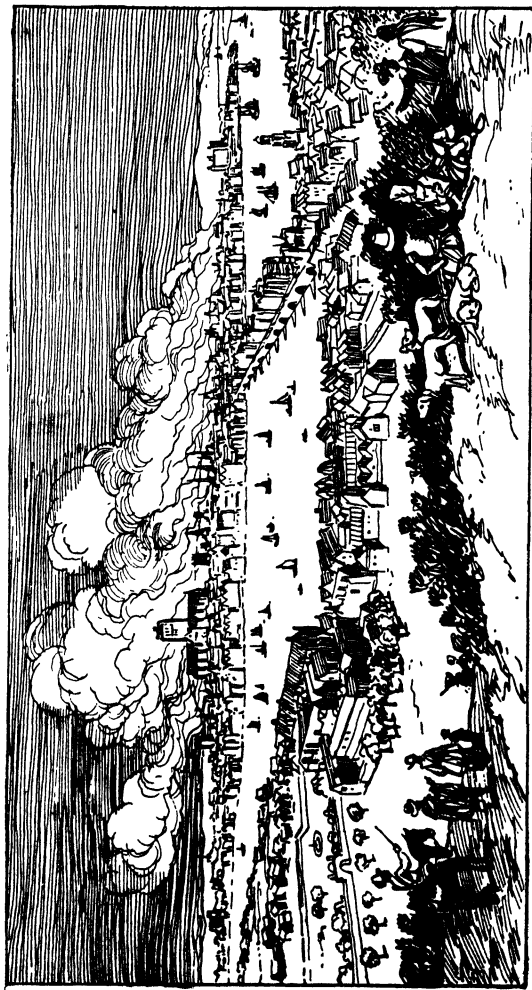
Great Fire (1666), in which a large part of London was burned, including St. Paul's Cathedral, many other churches, the Exchange, and several hospitals. It was not, however, wholly a tragedy, like the Plague. People had time to escape, and the narrow streets, crowded with houses which were burned, had been very unhealthy for want of air and light. If there had been no fire the germs of plague and other diseases would have lurked in these unhealthy streets for many years.

The sight was extraordinary. Evelyn wrote that the flames made night as bright as day for ten miles round, and people were so bewildered at first that they did not even try to stop the fire or save things from their homes. Later the river was covered with household goods floating on it.

Evelyn calculated that he saw ten thousand houses burning at once. The flames were "leaping after a prodigious manner from house to house, and street to street. . . . The noise and cracking and thunder of the impetuous flames, the shrieking of women and children, the fall of towers, houses, and churches was like a hideous storm."

Evelyn saw the stones of St. Paul's Cathedral flying through the air like cannon balls, and the melting lead from the roof running down the streets in a stream, until the very pavements seemed to be red-hot.

The fire was stopped at last by blowing up a number of houses to make an empty space, where there was nothing more the flames could reach. Evelyn visited the city after the fire had died down, and even then the heat of the air seemed to singe his hair, and the soles of his shoes were burned through by walking on hot pavements.



THE FIRE OF LONDON SEEN FROM SOUTHWARK.

(*After W. Hollar [1607-77].*)

The Great Fire led to the rebuilding of part of London, and it was now that the great architect Sir Christopher Wren designed many of the churches which can still be seen in the city to-day, including St. Paul's Cathedral.

## 47. The Great Puritans

### *Milton and Bunyan*

§ 1. The return of gaiety with Charles II. did not undo all the work of the Puritans. In many English homes the Puritan spirit still showed itself in earnest religion, steadfast and upright conduct, and a scorn of vanity and self-indulgence.

Amongst the finest of the Puritans was the great poet John Milton (1608-74). In his life story we can see, first, the early days of the Puritans, before they had cut themselves off from so many of the pleasures and graces of life ; and then the strict "rule of the Saints," when almost all beauty and joy was suspected as "ungodly." Finally, we see through Milton the position of Puritans after the Restoration.

Milton was born in a Puritan home in 1608, and was taught early to love books and the finer pleasures of life, such as music. By the time he was twelve he was so eager in his study of Greek, Latin, and Hebrew that he often sat at work over his books until midnight. He learned, too, to love the poetry of Spenser and the plays of Ben Jonson and Shakespeare, for Puritans did not then think all plays wicked. In one of his poems Milton describes, with happy memories

in his mind, how he would go to the play to hear "Sweetest Shakespeare, Fancy's child, warble his native wood-notes wild."

We can tell by Milton's early poems that he was not shocked by dancing, singing, and harmless merry-making. He even loved the stained windows in churches, which the strict Puritans of the Commonwealth thought it their duty to smash, lest the pictures of saints should remind people of Roman Catholic worship. Young Milton wrote with joy of these "storied windows, richly dight, casting a dim religious light."

Milton continued his studies at Cambridge, and he hoped to become a clergyman in the Church of England: but when the time came for him to leave Cambridge life was becoming hard for Puritans. Soon the persecutions they had to bear under Laud\* drove them to take a gloomier view of life. Their simplicity of life, which had been a fine freedom from vanity and self-indulgence, now began to change into a narrow distrust of beauty and joy.

Milton felt that he could not become a clergyman while Laud governed the Church, because there was no freedom of worship for Puritans. So he settled down to a life of study in his father's house at Horton, in Buckinghamshire.

Here Milton wrote some of his beautiful short poems, and even a play (*Comus*), to be acted in the open air with music. His mind never narrowed so much that he lost his love for poetry and music, or thought them wrong. Nevertheless, he did not altogether escape the growing Puritan severity. When

\* See Chapter 37.

he became tutor to two nephews he trained them very sternly, and his wife, a young girl, was also afraid and unhappy at first under the strict rule of his house.

During the struggle with Charles I., Milton was on the side of Parliament, and wrote powerful essays against bishops and tyranny. In one called "A Defence of the English People," he tried to explain to other nations how right was on the side of Parliament in the Civil War. When the Commonwealth was established, Milton became Latin secretary to Cromwell.

At the Restoration he was one of the few Puritans who were not freely pardoned. His "Defence of the English People" was publicly burned by order of Parliament, and he was imprisoned for a time, but set free again on payment of a fine.

Milton had now to live in a poorer home, and he could not find new work for himself because he was almost blind. Yet he kept up the well-ordered life



Statue of John Milton in front of St. Giles, Cripplegate.

befitting a Puritan's household, and his daughters, brought up with strictness, had to learn to read Latin, Greek, and Hebrew aloud to him, although they could not understand the words they read. Every day a chapter of the Bible was read to him in Hebrew, and he sat in silent thought and prayer afterwards. More reading and study followed, with a walk for exercise, and for recreation he would play on the organ or viol. Men came to visit him, too, and looked with reverence on the fine old man who had been born eight years before the death of Shakespeare.

It was after the Restoration that Milton wrote one of the greatest poems in the English language, his *Paradise Lost*. In this poem he tells the story of Adam and Eve, and shows the Puritan spirit at its finest. Here we can find the noble severity of Puritanism turned into poetry by the beauty and order of Milton's thought and language.

§ 2. Another Puritan, John Bunyan, wrote one of the world's great books, which has been read and loved ever since, for over two hundred years. Bunyan's book was *The Pilgrim's Progress*, which tells the well-known story of the flight of Christian from the City of Destruction and his pilgrimage to the Heavenly City, and all his adventures by the way. The Slough of Despond and Doubting Castle, which he has to pass, and the people he meets on the way, such as the Man with the Muckrake and Mr. Worldly Wiseman, all stand for the different temptations which every one meets on his pilgrimage through life. The whole story is told in simple but fine English. Bunyan had little education beyond

learning to read the Bible, but it had become part of his very self.

Bunyan was the son of a poor tinker in a Bedfordshire village. He was born in 1628, twenty years later than Milton, and brought up in the sterner days of Puritanism. At nine years old he began to fret because he was sure that his enjoyment of games on the village



John Bunyan's meeting-house in Southwark.

green was wicked. Once he had a vision of Christ looking down on him in anger as he was about to strike a ball, and he determined to play no more.

At seventeen Bunyan became one of the soldiers in the New Model Army. When the Civil War was over he joined the Baptists and became a famous preacher, and after the Restoration he was sent to prison for preaching at a religious meeting which was not a Church of England service.





Bunyan was miserable in prison because he loved his wife and children dearly, and he fretted particularly about a blind child he had, fearing it would suffer more than the others from poverty. All he could do in prison to help his family to live was to make laces to sell for them. He remained in prison for twelve years, because he would not promise not to preach again, and he was afterwards imprisoned a second time for a similar reason.

It was in Bedford Gaol that Bunyan wrote the first (and best) part of *The Pilgrim's Progress*. It was published in 1678, and English people soon showed by their love of this book that the best of the Puritan spirit was still alive amongst them.

#### 48. The Troubles of James II.'s Reign (1685-88)

§ 1. Charles II. died in 1685, and his brother succeeded him as King James II. without any protests. James won his people's loyalty by promising to protect the laws and the Church of England, and men were ready to believe him because his conduct had been straightforward and sincere in the past.

In spite of the nation's acceptance of James II., an attempt was soon made to take the throne from him. His nephew, the Duke of Monmouth, who had been much favoured in the last reign, and was a handsome young man, used to popularity, thought that he might make himself king of England. He gathered a small army, chiefly of Nonconformists who had taken refuge in Holland, and landed in Dorset, only four months after Charles II.'s death.

Many country people of Somerset and Devon joined Monmouth. At Taunton he received a great welcome in flower-decked streets, and was presented with a Bible and a beautifully worked flag. Here he declared himself king.

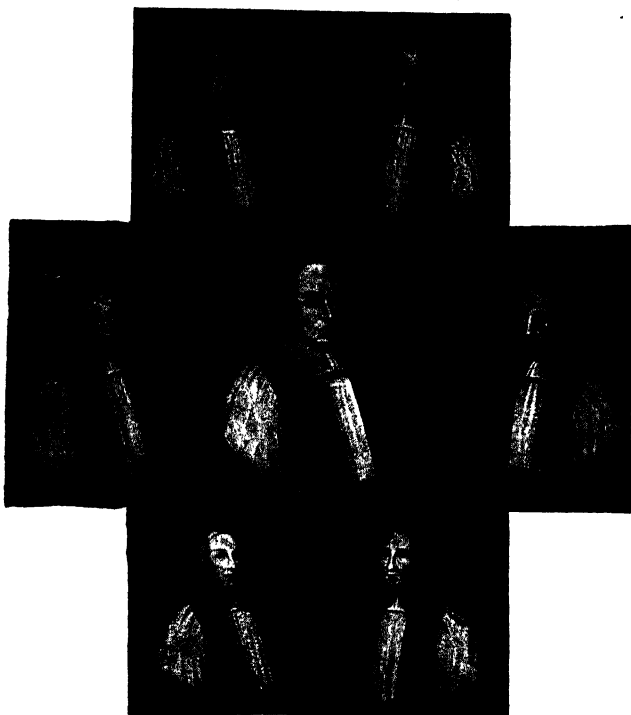
James sent an army to check Monmouth's advance, and with it went John Churchill, afterwards the famous Duke of Marlborough, one of England's greatest soldiers.

Monmouth tried to surprise this army by a night attack, as it lay in its camp on Sedgemoor. His men were most of them untrained, and some were armed only with pitchforks which they had brought with them when they left their farm work to join him. They lost their way in a mist which spread over the moor, and were held up by a deep ditch at the moment when they meant to attack. Churchill's horse soon defeated them, and they scattered pitifully, hiding and escaping to their homes as best they could.

Monmouth himself was captured as he hid in a ditch, in a peasant's coat.

The rising was punished with great severity. Monmouth was tried and executed for treason. In Somerset and Devon the terrible Judge Jeffreys held trials and condemned to death three hundred and fifty of the poor country people who had joined Monmouth. Many more were sent abroad to be sold as slaves. One old lady who had hidden terror-struck rebels was beheaded, another lady burned at the stake.

Even Churchill, who had been pitiless in the battle of Sedgemoor, blamed the king for allowing such severity, and said his heart must be as cold and hard as marble.



The seven Bishops.

*Top :* Bishops of St. Asaph and Ely.

*Middle :* Bishop of Chichester, Archbishop of Canterbury, and  
Bishop of Bath and Wells.

*Bottom :* Bishops of Peterborough and Bristol.

*(From the painting in the National Portrait Gallery, by an unknown artist.)*

§ 2. When the rebellion was crushed, James began to consider how he could bring England back to the Catholic Church. He took no notice of the Test Act or the Act of Uniformity, and made Catholics officers in the army and placed them in other high positions.

Catholic services were held quite openly, and Jesuits and monks showed themselves once more in the streets. James dismissed judges who were inclined to punish Catholics for breaking these laws.

Particular indignation was roused by James's attempt to force several of the great colleges at Oxford to accept Catholics as Heads. In one college members who refused to vote for a Catholic were turned out.

Finally James drew up a Declaration of Indulgence, which granted freedom of worship to both Catholic and Protestant Nonconformists, and he ordered that it should be read out in all churches. Even the Protestant Nonconformists were indignant, because they knew it was part of an attempt to bring the English Church under the rule of the Pope once more, and they would not have it.

The Archbishop of Canterbury and six other bishops protested against it, and would not order their clergy to read it in the churches. James had them seized and taken to the Tower. Then he decided that they should be tried. During the trial of the Seven Bishops all London was seething with excitement, and when news came that they had been acquitted and set free, bonfires were lighted in the streets and the city echoed with cheers. After dark, rows of seven candles were placed in many windows, with a taller one in the middle to represent the Archbishop.

James had now roused the country against him, and he continued to rule without Parliament and to threaten all who withstood him, and even talked of using the army which he had in camp outside London to force submission.

Naturally there was great dread of another Civil



Princess Mary.

*(From the portrait by Lely in Hampton Court Palace.)*

War, and men tried to be patient and hoped for a Protestant Queen to follow James, as his two daughters Mary and Anne were staunch Protestants. Their

mother was a daughter of Lord Clarendon, the statesman. Unfortunately she had died early, and James had then married a Catholic princess, named Mary of Modena.

Just at the height of the indignation about the Seven Bishops, it was announced that Mary of Modena had a son. At this news all members of the Church of England began to despair because this prince would be brought up as a Catholic and become king after James.

A number of leading men in the country now took the great decision to invite William of Orange, the Protestant ruler of Holland, to come to England and take the throne from James. William was invited because he was the husband of James's eldest daughter Mary, and she could not be asked to come herself and lead an army against her father.

Whilst bells were still pealing in honour of the acquittal of the Seven Bishops, an admiral, disguised as a poor traveller, set off for Holland with the invitation for William

#### **49. The "Glorious Revolution" of 1688**

##### *How it happened without a Single Battle*

§ 1. William of Orange was ready to come to England because he wanted more power, in order to form a great alliance of Protestant nations against the powerful and ambitious Louis XIV. of France.

Louis XIV. was one of the most magnificent kings of history, and the splendour of his court at Versailles,

his vast palace outside Paris, won him the name of "the Sun King." His ambition was to extend his kingdom until it reached the Rhine. To do this it must swallow up the Netherlands, including Holland.

Stout-hearted little Holland made a gallant stand



William III.

against him. The Dutch even opened the great dykes, which kept the sea back from their low-lying land, and flooded their country rather than yield it to the French. Part of Holland was under water for two years, with its cities rising out of the flood like islands.

Young William of Orange had become the leading spirit of his little country's fine fight for its independ-



ence. He was weak and sickly, shaken by continued coughs, and not pleasing in his appearance. Yet he was a soldier of the keenest courage, and one who never gave up. Generally he was grave and cold in his manners, but the call of a battlefield, where he was fighting for the very life of his country, brought light into his eyes and cheerfulness into his commands. It was said of William that he had no need of hope to make him dare, or of success to make him persevere. His soldiers had great faith in him, and after a defeat he could rally them again to face yet another battle.

At the time when the invitation to come to England reached William he knew that Holland could not stand alone against Louis XIV. much longer. As King of England he would be far more powerful: it seemed like a dream come true. With such thoughts in his mind, he gathered an army together, and landed in England, near Torbay, on the 5th of November 1688.

William had not been expected in the West, but he marched into Exeter in triumph, and the news spread quickly. A hundred horsemen rattled into York and called the militia (local soldiers) to arms with the cry: "A free Parliament and the Protestant religion!" Town after town opened its gates to William; James's army was led to join him by John Churchill; and even the Princess Anne, James's second daughter, left London to meet him.

Before long James decided to fly to France with his wife and baby son. His last act was to hamper the government of the country as far as possible by dropping into the Thames the Great Seal, with which all State documents have to be sealed to make them legal.

When James had fled a great difficulty arose. There had been no Parliament since he had dissolved it in 1687, and according to the law of the land, no new Parliament could be elected until the king summoned one ; but now there was no king. To meet the difficulty the House of Lords came together and summoned, instead of a properly-elected House of Commons, all the members who had sat in Parliament in Charles II.'s reign, and the aldermen and councillors of London. This body ordered that a new House of Commons should be elected.

§ 2. The new Parliament declared that by flying from the country James had ceased to be king, and the crown was offered to Mary, and William was asked to be Prince Regent. Now another difficulty arose. William refused to stay in England if he were not made king himself, and Mary refused to reign alone. Finally William\* and Mary were made king and queen with equal rights.

Now a very important document was drawn up, and it was afterwards made law as the Bill of Rights (1689). It declared that in future no king should have the right of setting aside the laws of the country or of giving permission to any subject to disobey them ; that no king should raise taxes or keep an army without the consent of Parliament ; and that both Houses of Parliament should have the right of free speech. Finally, the Bill of Rights declared that William and Mary should be king and queen, and if they had no children Princess Anne should succeed them, and that

\* William was connected with the Stuarts too, as his mother was a daughter of Charles I.

henceforth every sovereign of England should be a member of the Church of England.

The Bill of Rights was a great triumph for Parliament. It put an end to the power of suspending or dispensing with the laws—a power which the Stuart kings had always claimed for themselves—and it established the right of Parliament to make a new king. This was a great change from the belief of the Stuarts that kings reigned by divine right, and could not be made or unmade by man. To those who still believed in divine right James II. was still king, and his son the heir. Most people, however, agreed that this Act of Parliament made William and Mary the rightful king and queen of England.

From this time onwards kings were far more dependent on Parliament. William, as a stranger, had no power unless Parliament supported him; and Parliament made it impossible for him, or any later king, to keep up an army, or act independently for long, by granting money and taxes only for one year at a time. In order to prevent any king keeping the same Parliament year after year (as Charles II. had done for seventeen years), and so giving the people no chance to change the members who represented them, the Triennial Act declared that the same Parliament must not sit for longer than three years.

Parliament had determined to have no more bitter struggles with kings for its freedom; henceforth king and Parliament were to rule in partnership: but Parliament, which represented the people, was to be the stronger partner. This great change, which came about in 1689 without even one battle, has often been called the Glorious Revolution.

**50. William III. : Scotland, Ireland, France**

§ 1. Before William III. could carry out the one great desire of his life and lead English and Dutch armies against Louis XIV., he had to see his new kingdom more settled. William disliked persecution for religion, and gladly consented to a Toleration Act, which gave freedom to Nonconformists to hold their own services. The Catholics, however, had still to wait more than a hundred years for toleration.

In Scotland and Ireland there was still trouble and danger to face.

Although Scotland and England had had the same kings since James I., they still had separate Parliaments. The Scottish Parliament offered the crown to William and Mary, but Viscount Dundee gathered a highland army to fight for James, and charging down upon William's soldiers in the mountain pass of Killiecrankie, drove them headlong before him. In the moment of victory Dundee was killed, and soon William was accepted as king of Scotland, and Fort William rose, solid and strong, as a reminder of his power.

There was a sad end to the quieting of the Highlands. An order was given that every highland chief must take an oath of allegiance to King William by a certain date. Macdonald of Glencoe, a proud old man, could not make up his mind to take this oath for some time, and when he did a heavy fall of snow delayed him, and he was six days late. The viceroy who represented William and Mary in Scotland thought this a good excuse for wiping out some highland robbers, as he called them. So he sent a party of the

Campbells, who were deadly enemies of the Macdonalds, to destroy the men of Glencoe. The Camp-



Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee.

*(From an engraving after the portrait by Lely [1618-80].)*

bells treacherously pretended that they had come in peace, and stayed quietly at Glencoe for twelve days; then they rose at dawn and fell upon the unsuspecting

Macdonalds with their swords, and butchered them until most of them lay dead in the snow.

This Massacre of Glencoe was not intended by William. When the news of it spread, the value of a free Parliament was felt, for Parliament insisted on an inquiry into the massacre, and the cruel viceroy lost his position.

§ 2. William was not yet free to attack Louis in Europe, because he had first to fight in Ireland, where James, with help from France, tried to raise the country against him.

James had obtained more of his own way in Catholic Ireland than in England or Scotland, and before he fled he had arranged that Irish soldiers, mayors, judges, and other people in civil authority should be Catholics. So now he sailed for Ireland, where an army had been raised for him, and drove the Protestant forces of Northern Ireland before him into Londonderry, where they were besieged. Londonderry, with weak walls, no moat, and only a few old guns, stood the siege most gallantly; but the Protestants there were soon in desperate straits, and all that could be allowed to each soldier for food was tallow and salted hide. Just when it seemed impossible that they could live another day, three English ships laden with food broke into the blocked-up harbour, and a day later the besieging army marched away.

There was now, however, a French army to be faced in Ireland, and William himself had to cross the Irish Sea and take command of his forces there. He defeated the French at the Battle of the Boyne

(1690), and after that the rest of Ireland was gradually brought under his rule.

§ 3. Now at last the great moment of William's life had come. He could throw all his force into the war in Europe, where Louis was carrying all before him while William was kept in Ireland. William formed against Louis a Grand Alliance of England, Holland, and all the Austrian and German states ruled by the Emperor.

The scene of the fighting was Flanders, which we now think of as a part of Belgium. Poor little Belgium has suffered for hundreds of years for her position between the more powerful and ambitious states of Europe, and in those days, when war was sometimes compared to the favourite sport of cock-fighting, Flanders was said to be the cock-pit of Europe.

At first William was not very successful in this war ; he never was a lucky general, but he made up for this by always saving his army from disaster. When Louis thought he had defeated his enemy, William boldly confronted him again almost at once, and the position was the same as before. Meanwhile the English fleet won a helpful victory in the Battle of La Hogue.

At last both countries felt that a rest was necessary ; neither could crush the other, and both were too weary to make yet greater efforts. Louis agreed to peace, and both countries gave back their conquests.

William was not satisfied, and he knew that, sooner or later, the struggle must be fought out to the end ; but his health was too much broken for him to take the field again if war broke out once more, and he was obliged to recall Marlborough, whom he had

proved to be a brilliant soldier but an untrustworthy friend, and give the command of the army to him.

Before the war had begun, William III. died (1702). Mary had died before him, and now her sister Anne became queen, and she immediately showed her



John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough.  
(From the painting by Van der Werff [1659-1722].)

trust in Marlborough, whose wife was her particular friend.

§ 4. John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, was the greatest figure in Queen Anne's reign, and one of the greatest soldiers in English history, but his ambition and love of money led him to break faith with



king and friends when he thought it paid him well to do so.

Marlborough's father, Sir Winston Churchill, had been a cavalier, and told him many stories of the Civil War. Although he could not give his son money, he gave him a good start in life, as he was educated at St. Paul's School in London, and afterwards became page to the Duke of York (later James II.). The boy was handsome and had very pleasing manners, and he soon found that he could count on the favour of more than one great lady at court, one of whom made him a present of five thousand pounds. He soon had his wished-for opportunity of distinguishing himself in the army. By 1688 he was in command of James II.'s forces, but instead of advancing against William when he landed at Torbay he at once led the army over to his side. For this William rewarded him by making him Earl of Marlborough.\*

Marlborough served William brilliantly in Ireland and Flanders, but he kept up a correspondence with James all the time, in case he should wish to change sides again.

He married Sarah Jennings, whose character was as forceful as her name, and the strongest thing in him was his love for her ; it was even stronger than his love of money, because she had none, and yet she was the one person whom he never failed. She not only ruled and scolded her husband, but she could make Queen Anne do almost anything she liked ; with her the queen dropped her title, and they called each other Mrs. Morley and Mrs. Freeman.

Before William's death Marlborough plotted to

\* He was made Duke later.

dethrone him and make Anne queen, so that he himself could rule through her. William discovered his plans, and with bitterness declared : " If I had been a private gentleman, my Lord Marlborough and I must have measured swords."

Marlborough and his wife were driven from court in disgrace, and Princess Anne went with them. Yet when William was dying, he felt that Marlborough alone could carry out the great purpose he himself had to leave unfulfilled, and he told Anne to trust the army to him. Almost at once Marlborough was called upon to take up William's task of saving Europe from the far-reaching grasp of Louis XIV.

## 51. The Struggle against Louis XIV. of France

### *Marlborough's famous Victories*

§ 1. In 1700 the King of Spain died, and by his will he left all his lands to Philip of Anjou, his great-nephew and a grandson of Louis XIV. At that time the King of Spain's dominions included some parts of Italy (Milan, Naples, and Sicily), and part of the Netherlands (Belgium), and most of South America. If all these lands should fall into the hands of a French prince, France would be able to over-run Europe and force her will on every other country. When Louis decided to accept the King of Spain's will, the Spanish ambassador exclaimed joyfully : " The Pyrenees no longer exist."

England was particularly anxious, because, if the French held the port of Antwerp, they could threaten

English shipping and also watch for a favourable time to invade the country and place a Stuart king on the throne again. Moreover, in South America, France would be in a good position to threaten England's trade and colonies.

Very soon the Grand Alliance was drawn together again, and renewed the war against France. This war is known as the War of the Spanish Succession (1702-13); but it was for us a war against the power and ambitions of Louis XIV. of France.

The chief actors in the war were Louis and Marlborough; the one matched against the other. Louis and his generals had all the confidence and power which success gives, and Louis could command as he chose, without any ally who need be consulted. Marlborough's genius had not yet been shown on a large field, and before he could move his armies he had to persuade and quicken the slow and stubborn Dutch, smooth over the quarrels of the Catholic Emperor (the Archduke of Austria) with his Protestant subjects, protect weak allies, encourage the timid, flatter the proud, and induce them all to support him in schemes of which the daring and speed bewildered them.

All this Marlborough did; very soon the kings and princes of the Grand Alliance obeyed him more readily than they had obeyed William. He won the heart of the touchy King of Prussia by courteously rising to hand him a napkin at a State banquet.

He soon won confidence as a leader; he never besieged a fortress without taking it, or fought a battle without winning it. The only thing he found difficult was writing dispatches and letters. Spelling was

MAP TO ILLUSTRATE  
THE CAMPAIGNS  
OF  
WILLIAM III AND MARLBOROUGH  
IN THE NETHERLANDS.



always a trouble to him, and he once said to his wife :  
“ Of all things, I do not love writing.”

§ 2. At last Louis determined to make a great effort to overpower Austria. He sent an army to join the Bavarian army in an attack upon Vienna. Marlborough countered this by a bold plan of his own, and cajoled the Dutch into following him, bit by bit, into the heart of Germany. Soon the chief forces of both sides met near the village of Blenheim, on the Danube.

The French had the stronger position, with a swamp in front, the Danube behind, and hills on their left ; and their guns were superior. Nevertheless Marlborough attacked, and while Prince Eugene of Savoy struggled gallantly across the swamp, foot by foot, on one wing, he made a rough-and-ready road across in the middle, and himself led a brilliant charge on the French centre. The French were driven back and their retreat cut off by the Danube, to which they had trusted as a defence. Marlborough's victory was complete.

The battle of Blenheim (1704) was the turning-point of the war ; as the familiar poem “ After Blenheim,” by Southey, expresses it, “ ’Twas a famous victory.” The French army was completely broken up, and their own confidence and the fear they had inspired throughout Europe were both broken too. In those days populations were smaller, and armies were not raised easily or quickly, and with no trains or motor lorries, and very bad roads everywhere, they could only be moved about slowly. So it was some time before Louis could recover from this blow.

Other battles were fought in the Netherlands, but still Louis would not give in, and at the last of the great

battles, Malplaquet, the slaughter on both sides was terrible.

§ 3. Meanwhile another English general was fighting the French and Spanish in Spain, and the navy was not idle.

Amongst the great sailors of the war was Sir Cloudesley Shovell, who had started his life at sea as a cabin-boy and won a name for himself in the Dutch war of Charles II.'s reign by swimming with dispatches from one ship to another, under fire. In Marlborough's war he was with a fleet which found Gibraltar almost undefended, and a party of his sailors climbed the great rock and hoisted the English flag (1704), and from that day Gibraltar has been an important



Sir Cloudesley Shovell.

English fortress at the gate of the Mediterranean, which afterwards was still more useful because it guarded our route to India.

Sir Cloudesley Shovell was shipwrecked and drowned on the fearsome rocks of the Scilly Isles; a stone on a desolate beach, behind a deep barrier of rocky spikes, marks the spot where his body was found. It is said that a sailor, a native of the Scilly Isles, who had ventured to warn him, an hour or so

before, that the ship was steering a dangerous course, was hanged on the yardarm for his impertinence in offering advice. A monument with the figure of Sir Cloudesley Shovell in the heavy wig and rich dress of his time, may be seen in Westminster Abbey.

§ 4. At last Louis was ready to make peace. Marlborough had dreams of marching into the heart of France ; but at home the Tory party, which did not approve of the war, was gaining strength. After the battle of Malplaquet they were able to insist on peace.

The peace terms of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) were very important for England. Philip of Anjou was allowed to be King of Spain, but France and Spain were never to be united under the same king ; the Belgian part of the Netherlands was given to Austria. Britain gained Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and some settlements on Hudson Bay (North America), and she also kept Gibraltar and Minorca. Spain gave England the right of trading in negro slaves with her South American colonies, and of sending one ship a year with ordinary goods for sale.

Thus Marlborough had fulfilled William's great desire, as he had saved Holland and forced Louis XIV. to give up the hope of founding a French empire in Europe and so becoming its master.

§ 5. Marlborough had been able to act almost as if he were the uncrowned king of England, because Queen Anne did everything that he advised, and he had favoured first one Parliamentary party and then the other, as best suited his plans. In 1710 the Tory party, which he had deserted because they were against

the war, gained the upper hand. Very cleverly one of the Tory leaders introduced a lady who was a cousin of his own to Queen Anne, and she soon became more of a favourite with the queen than the Duchess of Marlborough. The duchess, angry and jealous, scolded the queen so outrageously that Anne had to dismiss her from the court, and then there was nothing to prevent the Tory Parliament from dismissing Marlborough from his command.

Marlborough was accused in Parliament of taking public money for himself, and found guilty by the Commons, but he was not punished. Such accusations happened often during the next hundred years, and though they were hard on men who had served the country brilliantly, they showed that Parliament meant both statesmen and generals to remember that they were servants of the people.

Marlborough left England and began to prepare for the reign of George of Hanover,\* who, by the Act of Settlement which had been passed in 1701, was now the next heir to the throne of England.

Although Marlborough was treacherous to kings and parliamentary parties, and to other generals in the army, he never dreamed of betraying England to a foreign enemy, and always upheld the honour and dignity of this country in the eyes of others. Parliament granted him the manor of Woodstock and a large sum of money.

\* George's mother was a granddaughter of James I.



## 52. Town and Country in Queen Anne's Days (1702-14)

*The England of Wren, Newton, and Sir Roger de  
Coverley*

§ 1. The year after the end of the War of the Spanish Succession, 1714, Queen Anne died. Her reign had been notable for other things besides Marlborough's victories.

In 1707 the Act of Union was passed, by which England and Scotland were declared to be one kingdom, under the name of Great Britain. It was a great sacrifice on the part of the Scots to give up their own Parliament. Henceforth they were to elect forty-five members to sit in the House of Commons at Westminster, and sixteen Scottish peers to sit in the House of Lords. They consented only on condition that every king should take an oath to uphold the Presbyterian Church in Scotland. Both countries gained much. England had no longer to dread the recall of the Stuarts to Scotland, and Scotland increased her trade and prosperity when she was no longer jealously kept out of English markets.

§ 2. Although wars seem to fill the eighteenth century story, armies were smaller then and their movements slower, and battles could not be fought in winter. So we find that while Marlborough was making history in Europe, there was plenty of activity, of a different kind, at home too.

Our towns and museums, and some homes, are full of traces of the architecture and workmanship of Queen Anne's days. Some of the fifty churches which Sir Christopher Wren designed for London, chiefly to take the places of those destroyed by the Great Fire of 1666, were built in this reign. Wren's towers are easy to know ; they are often built in tiers (like a child's tower of blocks, each one a little smaller than the last), and on the topmost one is a pointed pinnacle, shaped like the extinguisher on an old-fashioned candlestick. Wren must have been very busy superintending the building of St. Paul's Cathedral, at this time, as it was finished in 1710 ; its great dome is the best-known piece of work which he designed. The two towers at the west end of Westminster Abbey were built chiefly from his design ; also Greenwich Hospital, Chelsea Hospital, Marlborough House, and various towers and chapels in Oxford and Cambridge.



Portion of Greenwich  
Hospital.

Wren's work was much more graceful than the massive buildings designed by Sir John Vanbrugh, whom the Duchess of Marlborough asked to build Blenheim Palace, on which she spent the money Parliament had granted to the duke. No doubt she was very proud of the great, solid blocks of masonry. Vanbrugh also designed Castle Howard in Yorkshire and the Clarendon Building in Oxford, where books

used to be printed. Some wit suggested that the following lines would be good ones to carve on Vanbrugh's gravestone :

" Lie heavy on him, earth, for he  
Laid many a heavy load on thee."

In our country towns we can still find comfortable-looking, solid, red brick houses of the kind which were built in Queen Anne's reign and under the Georges. They have straight fronts (often oblong), and spacious windows regularly set in, sometimes with tablets of white stone above them as ornaments. The roof has a good rim, like the brim of a hat, and three or four dormer windows set into it. There is some carving or ornament over the door, and often carved and twisted iron railings between house and street.

Inside such houses in Queen Anne's day there was furniture of beautiful workmanship ; chairs, tables, writing-tables, and cabinets were made with curved, fluted, or spiral legs, and often claw-feet or camel-feet. To this time belong many picturesque grandfather clocks, wall-mirrors, and smaller clocks in mahogany cases ornamented with brass. Upstairs there were big beds with four posts, often of fluted mahogany, supporting hangings and curtains. Flat brass warming-pans with long handles were used to warm them.

§ 3. In the eighteenth century it became fashionable to visit places such as Bath, Cheltenham, Buxton, and Clifton, where people could drink the water from famous springs, and enjoy walking, talking, and dancing in public assembly rooms.

Queen Anne herself made Bath a favourite watering-

place by a visit, and afterwards a man of fashion, who was known as Beau \* Nash, set himself to improve the town and its social life. Fine new pump rooms and assembly rooms were built there, and Beau Nash drew up rules of behaviour for visitors, and saw that they were obeyed. When he heard a young beau speak rudely to a lady he threw him, in his smart coat, into the bath. When he saw a duchess dancing in the evening in a little white apron, such as ladies often wore in the mornings, he tore it off and threw it into a corner of the room. He was called the king of Bath.

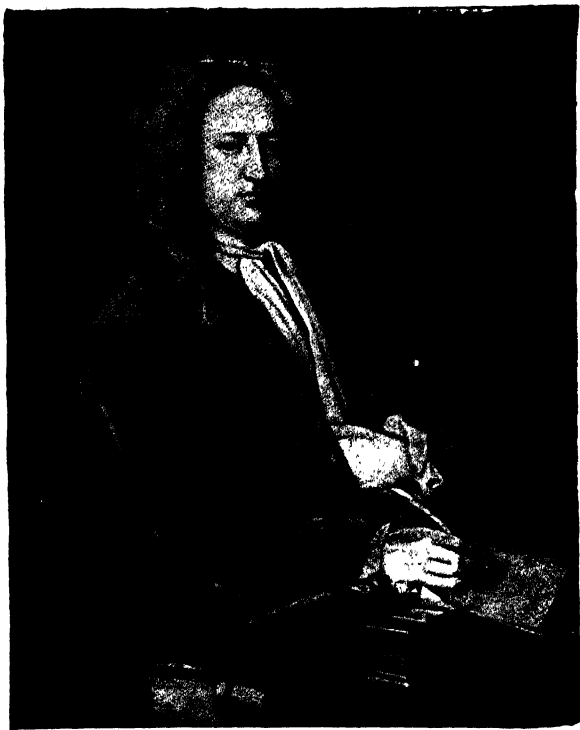
In these early days at Bath the baths were unroofed, and ladies and gentlemen walked about in them in bathing-gowns; the ladies had little trays fastened to their waists which floated on the water in front of them, carrying handkerchief, snuff-box and powder-puff.

§ 4. Learning and literature were not neglected in Queen Anne's days—in fact the queen had the honour of knighting one of the world's most famous men of science when she visited Cambridge in 1705. This was Sir Isaac Newton, who had already made his wonderful discoveries before the end of the seventeenth century. Besides his discoveries in mathematics he found out much that was new about the nature of light; but most wonderful of all was his discovery of the laws of gravitation. This discovery about the force which holds us to the earth is supposed to have been suggested to him by his watching an apple fall from a tree.

Up to this time there had been no newspapers or

\* Beau is French for beautiful or fine, and was a name given to men who prided themselves on their fashionable dress and manners.

magazinés, but early in the eighteenth century a daily paper was established in London. It was printed on very small sheets and on one side only, and a blank page



Joseph Addison.

(From a painting by Michael Dahl [1658-1743].)

was put in so that Londoners could write to their friends on it, and so send them public and private news together.

Soon after this two famous weekly papers were started, the *Tatler* and the *Spectator*. For these

Addison began to write weekly essays, by which he made a name for himself, and also started the fashion of essay writing. Some of Addison's most famous essays were about the country squire whom he called Sir Roger de Coverley. The village over which Sir Roger ruled like a little king must have been like many English villages in the days of Queen Anne. The old squire was everybody's landlord, and he loved and scolded the village people as if they were his children, gave them presents if they were good, and judged and punished them as a magistrate if they were brought before him for wrong-doing. He hunted almost every day of the week, and the whole village was proud of the number of foxes he had killed—although he had had some of them brought into his woods for the purpose.

All the week the villagers and their children worked hard on the land and at their spinning-wheels and looms. On Sundays every one washed and went to church in clean and tidy clothes. Sir Roger had provided hassocks and books for them all (though few could read), and he allowed no one to go to sleep during the sermon. Sometimes he fell into a doze himself, but he would start to his feet the moment he woke and look round the church, and if he saw any one else asleep he sent one of his servants to wake him.

After service the squire went out first and asked after any one who was not there, and promised Bibles and fitches of bacon to boys who had answered well in Catechism. Then the villagers talked over parish affairs in the churchyard, and grumbled because the squire would not let them duck old Moll White in the pond, although they were sure she was a witch, and

she had given one a nightmare, and made another's child spit pins, and another's cow fall sick.

Sir Roger de Coverley and his village stand for the country life of Queen Anne's time, and at the Christmas parties of such eighteenth century villages the guests danced old country dances like the one which now bears his name.

## EXERCISES AND SUGGESTIONS

1. (a) Show that "the world" was much smaller in 1485 than it is now. Trace a map of the world and use it to illustrate your answer. (If possible, trace the map of the world according to the ideas of Behaim of Nuremberg, 1492, in Robinson's *Middle Period of European History*.)  
(b) Tell all you can of the Merchant Adventurers. Has your town any local association with them or with a similar company?
2. (a) Be prepared to write an account of a day in the life of one of the following about the middle of the fifteenth century: a nobleman, a lady, a retainer, a villein. (Work in groups; look up reference books, illustrations—e.g. Longman's *Historical Illustrations*, of fifteenth century; Green's *Short History of the English People*, illustrated; Innes's *A History of the British Nation*, or other large illustrated histories, etc.)  
(b) What part were the officials of the Church taking, about 1485, in (i) the government of the country, (ii) the general life of the people?  
(c) "Already, in 1485, the great days of monk and friar were past." Explain this.
3. (a) Give, orally, a graphic account of the voyage of Vasco da Gama to India and back. (Read *The Book of Discovery*, by Synge; *The Age of Discovery*, by Rhoda Power.)  
(b) Trace a map of the world and show on it the routes taken by Vasco da Gama and Columbus respectively, inserting dates. (Keep this map for future use.)  
(c) Study a wind map of the world and see if you can account for the course taken by Columbus to America and back.



(See *Age of Discovery* for route on second, third, and fourth voyages, which show the 'course better than the first.)

- (d) Write a short life of Columbus.
- (e) Draw and describe Columbus's ship as typical of the period. Learn J. C. Squire's sonnet, "There was an Indian," in *A Book of Verse*, by Sir Henry Newbolt.
- 4. (a) Make out a list of navigators of this period, with date, nationality, king and country each sailed for, lands he discovered, and what he found there. (Do it first from memory; then supply omissions by reference to text-book.)
- (b) On your map of the world show voyages of Cabot and Magellan, with dates, and mark all the places mentioned in this chapter.
- 5. (a) By referring to your library books, find out all you can about *one* of the following: Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Raphael. Give a lecturette on him to your class and illustrate it by pictures.
- (b) Write short notes on Roger Bacon, Copernicus, Galileo.
- 6. (a) Show that the Renaissance was a "new birth" for the Church.
- (b) Who was Erasmus? Why is he remembered? Give some details of his life in England.
- (c) Read Charles Reade's *The Cloister and the Hearth*, and collect illustrations of the whole of this period.
- 7. (a) Give an oral account of the life of Luther.
- (b) Compare Erasmus and Luther as men and as reformers.
- (c) Sing Luther's hymn, *God is a stronghold and a tower* (A. and M. 678), to his own music.
- 8. (a) Tell the story of the founder of the Society of Jesus.
- (b) Find out all you can about St. Francis Xavier and his work in the Far East.
- 9. (a) Explain why the people of England were ready to support a strong Tudor king.
- (b) What were the four things that Henry VII. had to do as king?
- (c) When did *Government by Parliament* begin? Show that the experiment had not been very successful. How did the Tudors *teach* Parliament to govern?

## Revision

- (a) Give the dates of the reigns of each King Henry in England, and mention one important person or fact in each reign.
  - (b) Taking only ten minutes, write down as many as you can of the outstanding events (titles only), with dates, in English history from earliest times to the end of the fifteenth century. Check your results from a time chart.
  - (c) Write a short essay on *one* of the following: (i) The Invasion of Britain by the Romans, (ii) The Feudal System, (iii) The Crusades.
10. (a) Why was Henry VIII. so popular at the beginning of his reign? Tell what you can of two famous European sovereigns reigning at about the same time.
- (b) Tell, orally, the story of Thomas Wolsey. Does this story remind you of any other priestly statesman before Wolsey's time?
- (c) Sing *King Henry VIII.'s Song* (words by Henry VIII. ; music by Sir Arthur Sullivan).
11. (a) What part did Thomas Cromwell and Thomas Cranmer respectively take in the Reformation movement?
- (b) Tell all you can of the Carthusians.
- (c) *Visit* the ruins of any monastery near your home. Sketch or photograph them. Describe them. Learn all you can about them from your local history (architecture, its "order," ground plan, suppression).
12. Prepare for oral narrative a life of Sir Thomas More. (Refer to Roper's *Life of Sir Thomas More*, and Roberts's *Picture Book of British History*.)
13. (a) Tell of the real beginning of the British navy.
- (b) Trace the development of shipbuilding from Norman times to Henry VIII. (Refer to Quennell's *Everyday Life in England*, and Roberts's *Picture Book of British History*.)
- (c) Why do you think Henry VIII. is entitled to be called a *great* king? (Refer, if possible, to Froude's *History*, Chapter XXIII.)
- (d) Read Harrison Ainsworth's *Windsor Castle*.

14. (a) What was the Reformation? What reforms did Henry VIII. and Edward VI. respectively carry out?
- (b) Show that the reign of Edward VI. was an unhappy one for many people in England.
15. (a) Tell the story of (i) Lady Jane Grey, or (ii) the Oxford Martyrs. (See *Picture Book of British History*.)
- (b) What was Mary Tudor's great aim? How did she attempt to accomplish it? Was she successful?
- (c) Refer to Froude's History for Mary's entry into London, August 3, 1553 (Chapter XXX.) and for her last days (Chapter XXXV.).
16. What was the greatest problem that faced Elizabeth at the beginning of her reign, and how did she solve it?
- 17, 18, 19. (a) Who condemned Mary Stuart to death, and why?
- (b) Compare Mary Stuart and Elizabeth as women and as queens.
- (c) Write short notes on Cecil, Walsingham, John Knox, Anthony Babington.
- (d) Read Scott's *Marmion*, Canto IV., and Aytoun's *Edinburgh after Flodden*, and sing *The Flowers of the Forest*, a Scots lament for Flodden.
- (e) Write a short, but clear, life of Mary Stuart.

### Revision

- (a) Write a short account of the life of Mary Tudor.
- (b) Write notes on Augustine, Bede, Peter's Pence, Indulgences, *Fidei Defensor*, Chained Bibles.
- (c) What important facts about Parliament are connected with 1265, 1295, 1534-35?
20. (a) How was it England was so much later than the other European countries in making "voyages of discovery"? Tell of the first English adventurers.
- (b) On your map trace the course of these early English voyages.
- (c) Prepare for oral narration a life of Drake. (Work in groups: the leader might read Upcott's *Sir Francis Drake*, and others might prepare maps, collect and draw

pictures, make models, recite or sing *Drake's Drum*, by Sir Henry Newbolt. Your combined efforts would produce material for lecturette to your class in two or three weeks' time.)

- (d) Read, if possible, Froude's *English Seamen*.
21. Tell what you know of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and illustrate your answer by a map. (Read and quote from Longfellow's poem *Sir Humphrey Gilbert*.)
22. (a) Make sketches of Cadiz harbour, a Spanish galleon, one of Drake's ships, and tell the story of Drake's dash into Cadiz harbour. (Refer to Upcott's book.)
- (b) Learn by heart Newbolt's *Admirals All*.
- (c) Refer to Hakluyt's *The Spanish Armada*.
23. (a) Tell, orally, the story of the coming and the defeat of the Spanish Armada.
- (b) Why is the defeat of the Spanish Armada considered such an important event in English history?
24. Tell the story of the *Revenge*. (Read Sir Walter Raleigh's account in Hakluyt's *Spanish Armada*, and then Tenyson's poem *The Revenge*. Learn this poem as a co-operative effort, memorizing a verse each.)
25. (a) Give some instances to show that most of the great men of Elizabeth's reign were large-hearted "gentlemen" with wide interests.
- (b) Tell all you can about Ireland in Norman and Tudor times.
26. Name as many Elizabethan writers as you can, and tell what you know of the greatest of them all.
27. (a) Imagine you had been to a performance of one of Shakespeare's plays at the Globe Theatre in Elizabeth's reign. Make an interesting story of all you noticed, and illustrate it with a sketch.
- (b) Act a scene from one of Shakespeare's plays (say, from *Henry VIII*, or another play you are studying in your English periods).
28. (a) Is there an Elizabethan house in your village or neighbourhood, or a great house built in the Italian manner? Collect photographs of them and describe them. Describe the "fashions" of Shakespeare's days.
- Group work: Make friezes showing English homes

through the century and dress through the century.  
(See Quennell's books.)

- (d) Visit your churches to see if there are any tablets with carved figures or any woodcarving of the Tudor period. If you find any, sketch them and describe them.
  - (e) Refer to Holinshed's *England in the XVIth Century* for interesting facts written by a man, William Harrison, who lived at the time, and compare this with what a famous modern historian, Froude, says about the same subject in Chapter I. of his *History*.
29. (a) Write a short account of *Enclosures*.
- (b) What was done for the unemployed in Elizabeth's reign?
30. (a) Describe a day in the life of an Elizabethan man or woman (i) of the upper classes, and (ii) of the working classes.
- (b) Sing *It was a lover and his lass* (words by Shakespeare, and music by Morley, 1595).
- (c) The following H.M.V. records will show you what the music of Tudor times was like. Listen to them attentively several times:
- Byrd's madrigal *Lullaby, my sweet Baby* (Record No. E. 232).
- Morley's *Now is the Month of Maying* (E. 231).
- Weelkes's *Sing we at Pleasure* (E. 232).
- Farnaby's *Nobody's Gigge* (Harpsichord), (E. 203).
- (d) Read portions in the following works in Nelson's "Teaching of English" Series for descriptions of people and incidents in Tudor and Stuart times: *Noble English, Historical Portraits in English Literature, Sea Life in Literature, The Path of the King*.
- (e) Show that Elizabeth deserved the title of *Good Queen Bess*. Had she any faults?

### Revision

- (a) To how many of these dates can you assign an important event?—A.D. 43, 120, 410, 597, 789, 901, 1089, 1154, 1215, 1265, 1295, 1346, 1381, 1453, 1476, 1492, 1529–36, 1564–1616, 1588, 1601, 1603. Revise those you do not remember. Time yourself and see how quickly you can repeat date and event without a mistake.

- (b) Arrange these people in their proper chronological order and date them: Simon de Montfort, Canute, Drake, King Alfred, Lanfranc, Julius Cæsar, Robert Bruce, Caxton, Bede. Tell one fact about each.
- (c) Give some reasons why you would like to have lived in Tudor times, and some why you would not like to have done so.
- (d) Describe any incident which has thrilled you in any book you have read on this period.
- (e) Write short notes on Cædmon, Chaucer, Roger Bacon, Francis Bacon, Shakespeare.

## The Stuarts

(While studying the Stuarts in your history periods, you should sing some of the seventeenth-century songs in your music periods—e.g. *Begone, dull Care*; *There was a Jolly Miller*; *You Gentlemen of England*; *The Oak and the Ash*; *The Vicar of Bray*; *Come, lasses and lads*; *Here's a Health unto His Majesty*; *Hope, the Hermit*; *Dulce Domum*; *Join to the Maypole*—all in “The National Song Book.”)

- 31. (a) Who was the first Stuart king? How did he get the throne? What was he like as a man?
- (b) Did James I. pass through your village, town, or county on his way south? If so, try to find out what kind of reception he had.
- 32. (a) Show how Englishmen were divided about religious matters in James I.'s reign.
- (b) How and when did we get (i) The Book of Common Prayer, and (ii) The Authorized Version of the Bible?
- (c) Read a psalm as given in the Prayer-book and compare it with the same psalm in the Bible. Can you account for the slight changes?
- (d) Tell the story of the Gunpowder Plot. (Read Ainsworth's *Guy Fawkes*.)
- 33. (a) Give an account of the life of Raleigh, bringing out the contrast between that period of his life under Elizabeth and that under James I.

- (b) Read Raleigh's poem, "His Pilgrimage," in *A Book of Verse*, by Sir Henry Newbolt.
34. (a) Show that James I. treated Parliament less wisely than Henry VIII. or Queen Elizabeth did. What effect had this upon Members of Parliament ?
- (b) What were the most important events in James I.'s reign ?
- (c) Explain what James I. meant by *The Divine Right of Kings*.
- (d) Was the description "the wisest fool in Christendom" an apt one for James I. ?
- (e) Read Sir Walter Scott's *Fortunes of Nigel*.
35. (a) What important point was raised by the first Parliament of Charles I. ? What did this lead to ?
- (b) Read "The Cornishman in the Tower," in *Tales of Our Ancestors* (Drury).
36. (a) Tell all you know of Sir John Eliot.
- (b) What was the *Petition of Right* ? Name another "corner stone of English liberty."
- (c) Write brief notes on monopolies, forced loans, tunnage and poundage, impeachment.
37. (a) Suppose you lived at some inland place in the reign of Charles I., and one of his collectors of Ship-money called upon you for payment. Give the conversation between you, putting both sides of the question as strongly as you can.
- (b) Tell all you can about Archbishop Laud. (Do not forget his reforms.)
- (c) Read Andrew Marvell's poem *Bermudas* (religious emigrants in Laud's time).
38. (a) How long did Charles rule without Parliament, and how did he do it ?
- (b) Give an account of the doings of the Long Parliament up to the outbreak of war.
- (c) Suppose you had been present in Parliament (i) when the members locked the doors on the king's messengers, and (ii) when the king attempted to arrest the five members. Write dated letters home describing these incidents as vividly as you can, and telling of their serious nature.

## Exercises and Suggestions 323

39. (a) What do you think were the real causes of the Civil War in Charles I.'s reign ?
- (b) What would you say were the chief differences between this war and the Wars of the Roses ?
- (c) What happened in your village, town, or neighbourhood during the Civil War ? Describe any battles or skirmishes which took place in the neighbourhood. On which side was your local squire ? Were any of the families in your neighbourhood divided as to the side they supported ?
40. (a) Describe *one* of these battles : Edgehill, Marston Moor, Naseby.
- (b) Write brief notes on the leaders of both armies during the war.
- (c) Tell, orally, what you understand by Covenanters, the Solemn League and Covenant, Ironsides.
- (d) Read these poems : *Sir Nicholas at Marston Moor* (Praed), *The Battle of Naseby* (Macaulay), and *Boot and Saddle* (Robert Browning).
- (e) Read one of these books : Quiller-Couch's *Splendid Spur*, Marryat's *The Children of the New Forest*, Edna Lyall's *To Right the Wrong*, Church's *At Oxford with the King*, Whyte-Melville's *Holmby House*.
41. (a) How did Parliament come to quarrel with the army ? What was the result ?
- (b) Tell what part Scotland took in the Civil War.
- (c) What is your opinion about the execution of King Charles I. ?
- (d) Learn the eight lines in Andrew Marvell's poem on Cromwell's return from Ireland, beginning "He nothing common did or mean." Read what a modern poet, Lionel Johnson, said in "By the Statue of King Charles at Charing Cross" in *Poems of To-day*. Also Hilaire Belloc's account of Charles's death in *The Eyewitness*.
- (e) What is your opinion of Charles I. as a man and as a king ?
- (f) Group work : Debate such a subject as "Was Charles I. a martyr ?" "Was Strafford a patriot ?" or act one of the dramatic scenes in 1625-49, making up your own speeches.



## Revision

- (a) Tell of the occasions on which these words were said :
    - (i) "A pity that were cut that has not committed treason."
    - (ii) "A sharp medicine, but it will cure all diseases."
    - (iii) "Privilege! Privilege!"
    - (iv) "No bishop, no king."
  - (b) Write short notes on the Union of the Crowns, Hampton Court, the Grand Resistance, the Navigation Act.
  - (c) Tell what you know of Hampden, Pym, Prince Rupert, the Verneys.
  - (d) Give an account of England's dealing with Ireland in Norman, Tudor, and Stuart times respectively.
42. (a) Tell of Cromwell's doings in Ireland and Scotland and their results.
- (b) How was the government of the country carried on for four years after King Charles's death?
43. (a) Write a life of Admiral Blake. (Read *Sea Life in Literature*, edited by Sir Henry Newbolt.)
- (b) Show how during the Commonwealth England regained her high position among the nations of the world.
44. (a) Give a description of Cromwell (i) as a man, (ii) as a soldier, and (iii) as a statesman.
- (b) Whom do you prefer, Charles I. or Cromwell? Why?
- (c) Read the pen-portrait of Cromwell in *Historical Portraits*, and another in *Noble English*, Vol. III. (Nelson's "Teaching of English" Series).
- (d) Learn Milton's sonnet, *To the Lord General Cromwell*.
- (e) Read Mrs. Field's *Ethne*, Max Pemberton's *A Puritan's Wife*, Brereton's *In the King's Service*, L. Cope Cornford's *Captain Jacobus*.
45. (a) Explain Puritans, Independents, Nonconformists.
- (b) How was England troubled over religious questions in Charles II.'s reign?
- (c) Tell what you know of the Dutch Wars of that reign.
46. (a) Why were most English men and women glad at the Restoration of the Stuarts?

- (b) Name two famous diarists of this period. Write down something interesting told us about London by each of them. Whose extracts appear to you the more interesting?
- (c) Tell about the Plague. (Read Defoe's *Journal of the Plague*.) Show that the Great Fire was a blessing in disguise.
- (d) Read M. E. Gullick's *Through Plague and Fire*, Edna Lyall's *In the Golden Days*, H. Ainsworth's *Old St. Paul's*.
- 47. (a) Tell, orally, what you know of John Bunyan, and give in your own words the substance of a passage from his greatest work.
- (b) Sing Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Song* (A. and M. 676).
- (c) Write a short life of Milton. Learn some lines from his poems in Palgrave's *Golden Treasury* and quote them in your answer.
- 48. (a) What led to the trial of the seven bishops? Tell the story of the trial. (Sing Bishop Ken's hymns, *Awake, my Soul*, and *Glory to Thee, my God, this night*—the latter to the tune by Tallis, a Tudor musician.)
- (b) How did James II. lose his throne? Compare the crisis of 1688 with that of 1649.
- (c) Read Blackmore's *Lorna Doone*, Conan Doyle's *Micah Clarke*.
- 49. (a) Why was the accession of William of Orange as King of England an important event in (i) English history, and (ii) European history?
- (b) What were (i) the Petition of Right, and (ii) the Bill of Rights? Show the importance of each of them.
- (c) Refer to Macaulay's pen-portrait of William in *Historical Portraits* and to Hilaire Belloc's "The End of the Stuarts, 1688," in *The Eyewitness*.
- 50. (a) Show that the coming of William III. led to a great increase in the power of Parliament.
- (b) Tell of the Massacre of Glencoe.
- (c) Show how James II.'s attempt to use Ireland as a stepping stone back to England failed.
- (d) Tell of Marlborough and his wife up to the death of William III.
- (e) Read Q.'s *Blue Pavilions*, Emma Marshall's *Kensington Palace*, Henty's *The Cornet of Horse*.

51. (a) What is meant by the War of the Spanish Succession ?  
 (b) Describe the battle of Blenheim.  
 (c) Explain why the Treaty of Utrecht is so important.
52. (a) Refer to the pen-portrait of Marlborough in *Historical Portraits*, and to any other accounts of him. Then write an account in your own words.  
 (b) When and how were (i) the Crowns and (ii) the Parliaments of England and Scotland united ?  
 (c) Name two great architects of Queen Anne's reign, and tell what they did. (See *Picture Book of British History*.)  
 (d) Describe a Queen Anne house, especially if you have one in your own neighbourhood. Make sketches to show contrast between this type and the half-timbered Tudor or Jacobean house.  
 (e) Describe some Queen Anne furniture. Visit your nearest museum for specimens. Visit antique shops. Get catalogues of reproductions of this type. Why is this furniture so much admired ?  
 (f) Write an account of country life at the end of the seventeenth century. (Refer to Macaulay's History, Chapters I.-III.)  
 (g) Listen to some of the music of Purcell (1658-95) on the gramophone (e.g. *Gavotte*, H.M.V. Record No. D. 490, and *The Tempest*, D. 530).  
 (h) Sing Purcell's *Fairest Isle*, in "The National Song Book."

### Revision

- (a) Make out your own list of chief events from 1603 to 1714 from memory. Correct errors and supply omissions from text-book. Memorize them and try again.
- (b) Mention some striking contrasts between Tudor and Stuart times.
- (c) Show what advance Parliament made during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
- (d) Give as many names as possible of chief men in history up to 1714 under these headings: sailors, soldiers, writers, scientists, architects, musicians.

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## THIRD STOREY

George I. to George V.

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BY MURIEL MASEFIELD, M.A. (OXON.)

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