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# A NEW HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN

# A NEW HISTORY

OF

# ENGLAND

AND

# GREAT BRITAIN

WITH MAPS AND TABLES

BY

J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN, M.A.

PROFESSOR OF THE THEORY, HISTORY, AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATION
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS

*PART II.—1509-1901*

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# PREFACE

THIS book is a new edition of my "History of the British Empire;" but so many changes have been made in it, and so many additions to it, that it is practically a new book. It consists of a continuous narrative of the chief events of each reign in the history of England and Great Britain, along with a number of notes and illustrative remarks which throw side-lights on the most important events and characters in the history of the country. The following are believed to be the specifically new features in this book :—

(i) At the beginning of each reign a clear statement is made as to who each succeeding sovereign was, his relation to the preceding sovereign, his children, and his other relatives.

(ii) Clear **genealogies** are given of each House.

(iii) The chief clauses in **Treaties** and **Acts of Parliament** are briefly and clearly set out.

(iv) A paragraph is given to the **Great Men** of each reign.

(v) The **Social Facts** connected with each period are briefly given.

(vi) The **Literature** of, and the state of the **Language** at, the period are shortly described.

(vii) **A Short Chronology** of each reign is given at the end of it, so that the student may get it up with ease, and make himself quite sure of the main events.

(viii) A brief view is presented of **Important Contemporary Events** in other countries.

(ix) Short **Lives of Eminent Persons** have been appended to the book.

(x) Short definitions, with examples, have been given of the **Terms employed in English History.** With this a few **derivations** have been given.

(xi) **The Chronological System** of Mr. David Nasmith, Q.C., has been employed for each century.

**This system** is so ingenious, and yet so simple, that it deserves a

longer description. It is based on the ordered arrangement in space of each decade. The decade appears thus :—

| 1190 | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1191<br>Richard takes Acre.<br>Corporation of London first legally recognised. | 1192<br>Richard captured by the Duke of Austria and sold to the Emperor, Henry VI. | 1193 |
| 1194<br>Richard ransomed for 150,000 marks.<br>He returns to England for two months. | 1195 | 1196 |
| 1197<br>Richard builds "Saucy Castle" (Chateau Gaillard) on the Seine —near Rouen. | 1198<br>Hugh, Bishop of Lincoln, refuses to find money for a foreign war | 1199<br>Death of Richard.<br>JOHN.<br>Archbishop Hubert Chancellor. |

Thus : (a) The 0's always appear in the upper bar ; (b) the 1's on the upper left-hand corner ; (c) the 9's in the lowest right-hand corner ; (d) the 5's in the middle ; and so on. After a little practice with this table, the difficulty is not to remember, but to forget. The only effort of memory required is to remember in what space you have seen a particular statement ; and this is just as easy as to remember where a street or square is.

It is hoped that all these arrangements will make it easier for the student to get up and to remember the details of History, as well as the main events, which of themselves keep a firm hold of the mind. The paragraphs in small type will be of use to those who are preparing for examinations ; as they contain answers to most of the questions set in History Papers.

J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN.

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# THE HOUSE OF TUDOR

# CHAPTER II.

# HENRY THE EIGHTH

**Born 1491. Succeeded (at the age of 17) in 1509. Died 1547. Reigned 38 years.**

HENRY VIII. was the second son of Henry VII. and Elizabeth of York. He united in his own person the two houses of York and Lancaster. He married, in 1509—the year of his accession,—Katharine of Arragon, the widow of his elder brother Arthur. Katharine had a daughter, Mary, who reigned from 1553 to 1558. Henry had five more wives: Anne Boleyn; Jane Seymour; Anne of Cleves; Katharine Howard; and Katharine Parr. The last three had no children. Anne Boleyn had a daughter—Elizabeth, who reigned from 1558 to 1603; and Jane Seymour a son, Edward VI., who reigned from 1547 to 1553.—Henry VIII., as the second son, had been educated for the Church; and this education enabled him to write, in Latin, his "Defence of the Seven Sacraments" against Luther—a book which procured for him from Leo X., in 1521, the title of "Defender of the Faith"—a title still retained by English sovereigns.

"He was the first prince for more than a century who ruled the Kingdom with an undisputed title. Every other monarch, since the deposition of Edward II., had been accounted a usurper by a portion of the people. Henry united in himself the titles of York and Lancaster. He had no visible competitor for the Crown, nor was he disquieted by the shadow of a pretender."—MACKINTOSH.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| SCOTLAND. | FRANCE. | SPAIN. |
|---|---|---|
| JAMES IV. to 1513. | LOUIS XII. to 1515. | FERDINAND to 1516. |
| JAMES V. to 1542. | FRANCIS I. to 1547. | CHARLES I. (afterwards |
| MARY. | | EMPEROR CHARLES V.). |

**1. Henry VIII., 1509-1547.**—Henry was not quite eighteen when he was called to the throne. He was singularly handsome as a young man, strong and skilful in arms, generous in disposition, witty, able, and learned, and with high aims for the good of his kingdom. The extortions practised by his father and his ministers were at once stopped. Two of these ministers, Empson and Dudley, were flung into the Tower, which they left only to part with their heads at

the block. The charge made against them was that of treason; and though they deserved their fate, th charge for which they suffered was a false one.—The young king had succeeded to unbounded wealth, and he showed as great a power of spending as his father had shown of saving. Banquets, entertainments, shows, diversions, and festivals of every kind followed each other in rapid succession; and the king soon gained a wide and strong personal popularity, which he never entirely lost. His reign falls easily into two periods; and the division is marked by the important question of the divorce of Henry from Katharine of Arragon. The first part, which lasted twenty years, is concerned chiefly with foreign affairs, foreign wars and international diplomacy; and, beside the king, towers the well-known figure of the great Cardinal Wolsey. The year 1528 forms the turning-point of Henry's life, and the beginning of the second part of his reign. It is also a most momentous crisis in the history of the nation. The Divorce Question became a national, and even a European, question; and it led to the severance from Rome, to the dissolution of the monasteries, and to the recasting of the character of the Church of England.

(i) The Venetian Ambassador, in 1519, wrote home about the king as follows:—

"His Majesty is twenty-nine years old, and extremely handsome. Nature could not have done more for him. He is much handsomer than any other sovereign of Christendom,—a good deal handsomer than the King of France,—very fair, and his whole frame admirably proportioned. On hearing that Francis I. wore a red beard, he allowed his own to grow; and as it is reddish, he has now got a beard that looks like gold. He is very accomplished, a good musician, composes well, is a most capital horseman, a fine punster, speaks good French, Latin, and Spanish, is very religious, hears three masses daily when he hunts, and sometimes five on other days."

(ii) "There never was a man more representative of a people than was Henry VIII. of the England of his day. In him met the brutal passions of his subjects with their dogged persistency, their love of show and splendour, their intellectual, moral, and religious tendencies. Low and high, coarse and cultured, mocking and serious, he had a side for all. He could speak to each rank, to each character, in the name of England, because all England was in himself."—GARDINER.

**2. War with France.**—The king had married his brother's widow, Katharine of Arragon, and this Spanish marriage naturally made him an enemy of France. The enormous wealth he had inherited enabled him to assemble powerful fleets and large armies; and he even took the Emperor of Germany into his daily pay. This emperor, Maximilian, commanded Henry's cavalry, wore the Tudor colours of green and white, and received every day an allowance of

one hundred golden crowns. In 1512 the French fleet was attacked near Brest; and in 1513 the English cavalry, under their Emperor-general, routed the French at Guinegaste, a small town to the south of Calais. The French nobles and knights showed no fight, but turned their horses' heads, dug spurs into their sides, and galloped off in utter rout. The battle was ever after known as the *Battle of the Spurs*.

Battle of the Spurs 1513.

"No one saw, in such a simple event as his marriage with Katharine, the seeds of a great revolution."

**3. Flodden, Sept. 9, 1513.**—The Scots were at this time allies of France, as they had been before. James IV. collected an army, and marched, as a counter-plot and military diversion,[1] to invade England in the absence of the king. Queen Katharine at once despatched Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey, with a strong army, to meet him; and the two forces met a fortnight after the Battle of the Spurs, at the foot of the Cheviot Hills, at a place called Flodden Field. The Scots held Flodden Hill; but Surrey, by a skilful movement, threw himself between the Scottish army and Scotland. The Scots were obliged to leave Flodden Hill, were hemmed in on all sides by the English, and hardly a man escaped. The king was found next day almost cut to pieces, and nine thousand Scotchmen lay dead upon the field. The flower of the Scottish nation fell there, and there was not a noble house in the whole land but had to lament the loss of its head or of some one of its members. Songs long after told the sorrow of the people; and in every glen and homestead might be heard the sad accents of ballad and lament, that "the flowers of the forest are all wede away."[2]— All the Scottish cannon were taken, and were carried to London as splendid trophies. Every cannon then, as ships have now, had a name: for they were of enormous value; and seven handsome brass culverins,[3] eighteen-pounders, called the *Seven Sisters*, were much admired by the English soldiers.

Flodden Field. 1513.

(i) An old ballad gives the position of the two armies:—

"The English line stretched east and west,
And southward were their faces set;
The Scottish northward proudly prest,
And manfully their foes they met."

[1] To *divert* or turn away the enemy's attention from another point of attack.

[2] Weeded out.

[3] A very long gun. One still at Dover Castle goes by the name of "Queen Elizabeth's Pocket Pistol."

(ii) "The Scots left on the field the king, two bishops, two mitred abbots, twelve earls, thirteen lords, and five eldest sons of peers. There is scarcely a family of name in Scottish history who did not lose a relative there."—SIR WALTER SCOTT.

One of these bishops was Alexander Stewart, Archbishop of St. Andrews, an illegitimate son of James IV. He was cut down by Lord Stanley of Alderley, and his skull, with the piece cut out, is now in the University Museum at St. Andrews. Dean Stanley, Lord Rector of the University, in one of his addresses to the students, made an apology, more than three hundred years after, for the "accident" brought about by his ancestor.

(iii) **Flodden** is a plateau at the eastern end of the Cheviot Hills. Round its base circles the Till in its northerly course to the Tweed.

*Fell* is the English form of the Scandinavian word *Field* (or *Fjeld*), and means a tableland or elevated region. It is often wooded. In Dutch it appears as *Veld* and *Vaal*; in German as *Wald*; in Old English as *Wold*.

**4. Relations with the Continent.**—The two great continental powers at this time were France and Spain. Spain had become a great and wealthy state by the union of the two kingdoms of Arragon and Castile, and by the wonderful fortune which gave her the riches and the lands of the New World. But France was also rich and great; and she held a stronger position between the Mediterranean and the English Channel.—Peace was first made with the French by the marriage of Henry's sister, Mary Tudor, to Louis XII. This king dying three months after, Mary married Charles Brandon, the new Duke of Suffolk, and by this marriage became the ancestor of Lady Jane Grey. In the month of June 1520, Henry crossed over to France to meet the new king, Francis I. They met between Guines and Ardres, two small towns between Calais and Boulogne. The object of each seemed to be who should spend most money and outvie the other in splendour; and the meeting-place is known in history as *The Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Three weeks were spent in feasts, tournaments, and balls; but nothing came of all this for France. As soon as the conference was over, Henry rode to meet Charles V. at Gravelines, a small town on the coast, north-east of Calais. Charles V. was now not only ruler of Spain, Austria, Naples, and the Netherlands, but he had also been elected Emperor of Germany. In 1522, Henry and he made war upon France together, and that beautiful country was ravaged up to the gates of Paris by the Duke of Suffolk. Peace was made in 1525, and the French agreed to pay to Henry an annual tribute.

**Field of the Cloth of Gold 1520.**

(i) Charles V. had been elected Emperor of Germany; and, as he was now ruler of Spain, the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, and Naples, he was the most powerful

monarch in the world. His mother was Joanna, daughter of the "Makers of Spain"—the great Ferdinand and Isabella, and sister to Katharine of Arragon.

(ii) Wolsey favoured the alliance with Charles v., because Charles had promised to use his influence with the College of Cardinals to get Wolsey elected Pope.

**5. Cardinal Wolsey.**—The chief adviser of Henry at this time was Thomas Wolsey, a priest, and the son of a butcher and burgess of Ipswich. Wolsey was sent by his father to Magdalen College, Oxford; became a Bachelor of Arts at fourteen and was called the "Boy Bachelor"; was appointed Fellow and Tutor of his College; and, in time, rose to be Archbishop of York, Lord Chancellor of the kingdom, Cardinal, and Pope's Legate; and he had made up his mind to be one day Pope himself. He was the chief minister of the Crown, and the virtual ruler both of Church and State in England. The affairs of the whole kingdom were in his hands; the affairs of the whole of Christendom should be in his hands also.—He had two great palaces, Hampton Court and York Place. His palaces were as sumptuously managed as those of the king; a train of nobles and prelates attended him wherever he moved; and his household consisted of five hundred nobles, knights, and barons of the realm. His pomp was regal; and his mind more than princely: it was imperial.

(i) Wolsey was also one of the greatest pluralists ever known in England. He held the Sees of York and Winchester; and he farmed out those of Bath, Worcester, and Hereford to foreign prelates. He was also Abbot of St. Albans.

(ii) "His train amounted to a thousand, of whom the gentlemen marched out of London in ranks of three, in black velvet coats, with gold chains round their necks, while his yeomen and their servants were in orange-tawny coats, with T. C. for Thomas, Cardinal, embroidered upon them. Before him were carried his two silver crosses and two silver pillars. The Great Seal, his Cardinal's hat, and a scarlet bag embroidered with gold, each also had a sealman to carry it; and the Cardinal himself rode in sumptuous robes, with a spare horse and mule led behind him, trapped with scarlet and gold: while harbingers were sent before, to prepare quarters for all this train. Eighty wagons and twenty sumpter-mules preceded this cavalcade."—YONGE.

(iii) His position as **Chancellor** made him the first man in the State; his position as **Legate** gave him the highest place in the Church.

**6. The Divorce of Katharine.**—Henry had been married about sixteen years to his wife Katharine, when his mind and affections began to change towards her. She was older than he; death had carried off child after child; she had never had a son; and their only surviving offspring was Mary, a sickly and ill-looking little girl.

Henry began to think, or pretended to think, that his marriage with the widow of his own brother was marked with the curse of Heaven. The question of the succession was also a very serious matter. For this and for more selfish reasons, he and Wolsey began to cast about how she might be divorced. The Pope would not directly favour the plan; but he sent Cardinal Campeius[1] to form a court with Cardinal Wolsey, and to try the case. The two Cardinals took their seats, on the 21st of June 1529, in the Great Hall of the Monastery of the London Black Friars; the King sat upon their right hand, and the Queen upon their left. When Henry's name was called, he answered to it, and acknowledged the legality of the court; but Katharine, instead of answering to her name, flung herself at the feet of her husband, reminded him of their married life and their little dead children, swore she had always been a true and loving helpmate, and besought him with tears of anguish to put an end to these terrible tortures of law. Henry sat unmoved; and the Queen, rising in indignation, left the court, never again to make her appearance in it. She retired to Kimbolton, in Huntingdonshire, where she died seven years after.

"'To God I commit my cause!' And with that she rose up, making a low curtsey to the king, and so departed from thence. Many supposed that she would have resorted again to her former place; but she took her way straight out of the house, leaning, as she was wont always to do, upon the arm of her general receiver, called Master Griffith."—CAVENDISH.

**7. The Fall of Wolsey.**—The Pope, it appeared, could not or would not grant the divorce; and Thomas Cranmer, a member of Jesus College, Cambridge, "at once a divine and a courtier," proposed that the Universities, both English and foreign, should be asked the question, "Do the laws of God allow a man to marry his brother's widow?" Henry coarsely exclaimed that Cranmer "had got the right sow by the ear;" and, as Wolsey was unable to carry out the wishes of Henry with the Pope, and as the king began to see he could do without him, this was the beginning of Wolsey's fall.—On Michaelmas Day of 1529 an indictment was drawn up against him, charging him with breaking the law of Praemunire by receiving Bulls and letters from Rome. He was tried and condemned; the Great

[1] His right name, an Italian one, was *Campeggio*. The above is the Latin form used in the writings of the time and by Shakespeare in the play of Henry VIII.

was taken from him; and he was ordered to give up all his secular offices, to leave London, and to reside at Esher, in Surrey. His fall was sudden, and the blow was terrible. "His face," wrote the French ambassador, "is dwindled to half its size; and even his enemies pity him." And enemies he had in crowds; the popular name for him was "the butcher's dog." He was next ordered to go down to his See of York; and, while he was sitting in Cawood House, near that city, Earl Percy arrested him on a charge of high treason. The poor old man mounted his mule and turned his face to the south. He was miserably ill, and could hardly sit up. He was suffering under an attack of dysentery; and on reaching, with pain and weakness and shortness of breath, the gates of Leicester Abbey, he said to the Head, "Father Abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you." It was true; he died on the 29th of November 1530, at the age of sixty. His last words to his faithful attendant and secretary, Thomas Cromwell, are given by Shakespeare with almost exact fidelity,—

Fall of Wolsey 1529.

"O Cromwell, Cromwell,
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my King, he would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies."

He was the last great churchman of the Roman school; and soon after his death the Papal power in England was utterly gone.

(i) The Pope Clement VII. was a prisoner (in the Castle of St. Angelo, Rome) in the hands of Charles V., and dared not do anything to displease him. Charles was Katharine's nephew.

(ii) Henry had himself expressly permitted Wolsey to accept the post of Papal Legate; but, when it served his purpose, he allowed Parliament to accuse him of having broken the Statute of Praemunire. The penalties for this were forfeiture of all goods to the king, and imprisonment during his pleasure.

(iii) "As the clock struck eight, on the Eve of St. Andrew, 1530, this master spirit departed, dying, it would seem, of a broken heart."

**8. Henry's Six Wives.**—After consulting the Universities, Henry privately married **Anne Boleyn**, a young maid of honour at the court, whose pretty face and lively manner had attracted his attention. Thomas Cranmer was created Archbishop of Canterbury (1533); and as Primate of all England, he pronounced the marriage with Katharine to be null and void from the beginning. In 1536 Anne's marriage was itself declared null and void; and she was accused of unfaith-

fulness to the king, and beheaded on Tower Hill. She left one daughter, Elizabeth, who was born in 1533.—The day of her execution, Henry, dressed all in white, rode into Wiltshire, and there, the day after, married another maid of honour, **Jane Seymour**, the daughter of a knight of that county. In about a year she had a little boy, Edward, afterwards Edward VI.; she herself died twelve days after his birth.—Thomas Cromwell, who at this time filled the place of his friend and master Wolsey, now advised Henry to take a wife from among the Protestant princesses of Germany. Accordingly, he married **Anne of Cleves** by proxy. When the lady herself came over, he could not endure the sight of her: she was fat, coarse, ugly, and stupid. The king set his wits to work, found a pretext for declaring this marriage also null and void, and pensioned off the lady, who made no objection.—Without delay he married again. The new wife was **Katharine Howard**, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk. She, like Anne Boleyn, was accused of unfaithfulness, and beheaded on Tower Hill in 1542.—The year after, Henry married his sixth wife, Lady Latimer, the widow of Lord Latimer, who is better known by her maiden name of **Katharine Parr**. She was a careful and prudent woman, took care never to contradict the king, nursed him when he was ill, and contrived to keep her head safe upon her shoulders.

(i) The following is a list of Henry's six wives: (1) **Katharine of Arragon**, d. 1536; (2) **Anne Boleyn**, executed 1536; (3) **Jane Seymour**, died 1537; (4) **Anne of Cleves**, divorced 1540; (5) **Katharine Howard**, executed 1542; (6) **Katharine Parr**, outlived Henry.

(ii) The marriage with Anne of Cleves was promoted by Cromwell, who wished to see his master allied with the German Protestant Princes. A flattering portrait of the lady induced Henry to consent. Parliament, always servile to the king, annulled the marriage on two grounds: (a) that she had been previously contracted to the Duke of Lorraine; (b) that Henry had not *inwardly* given his consent. She was treated as an "adopted sister"; was allowed a pension of £3000 a year; and on these terms willingly agreed to the divorce.

(iii) **Katharine Parr's** enemies insinuated to Henry that she is a heretic; and things went so far that Gardiner obtained his authority to prepare articles for her impeachment. Henry said, in reply to a remark of Katharine's: "A good hearing it is when women become such clerks; and a thing much to my comfort to come in mine old age to be taught by my wife." But Katharine turned away his anger by replying: "No, sir, I only wish to divert you from your pain by an argument, in which you so much shine." The king was appeased, and again called her "Kate, friend, and sweetheart."

(iv) The following is the

GENEALOGY OF THE HOWARDS.

JOHN HOWARD, DUKE OF NORFOLK (killed at Bosworth, 1485).

THOMAS HOWARD, EARL OF SURREY (Commander at Flodden, 1513).

| THOMAS HOWARD (Duke of Norfolk), *d.* 1554. | Edmund Howard | William Howard (Lord Howard of Effingham). | ELIZABETH HOWARD *m.* Sir Thomas Boleyn. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Henry, Earl of Surrey (executed 1547). | **Katharine Howard** *m.* HENRY VIII. (executed 1542). | **Lord Charles Howard** (defeated the Armada, 1588). | **Anne Boleyn**, *m.* HENRY VIII. (executed 1536). |
| THOMAS HOWARD (Duke of Norfolk), executed 1572. | | | QUEEN ELIZABETH (1558-1603). |

**9. The Breach with Rome.**—We must now go back to the year 1530. On the fall of Wolsey, Sir Thomas More received the Great Seal; but Cromwell was Henry's chief adviser. Thomas Cromwell was the son of a blacksmith at Putney (near London), had served as a common soldier or "ruffian" in the Italian wars, had been a clerk, a wool merchant, and a money-lender. As man of business to Wolsey, he had worked hard for the suppression of the smaller monasteries. On Wolsey's fall, Cromwell had an interview with the king, and suggested that Henry need not trouble himself about the decision of the Pope in any way, but should cut the knot of the divorce question by making himself the *Head of the Church.* The king quietly pocketed the advice and mused upon it. Cromwell was made Vicar-General, and also Chancellor; so that he held in his own hands all matters both secular and spiritual. The country was at this time eager for a reform of the ecclesiastical establishments; and Henry, in addition to suppressing four hundred religious houses, enacted a statute that from Easter 1534 no appeals should be made by any person whatever to the "Bishop of Rome, otherwise called the Pope." The year after Henry had himself proclaimed **Supreme Head of the Church of England.** All his servants past and present were compelled to take an oath of acknowledgment of his new title. The great and good **Sir Thomas More**, and **Fisher**, the Bishop of Worcester, refused.

**Henry Supreme Head of the Church of England 1535.**

(i) The following were the links of connection between the Pope and the Church of

England: (a) The Pope was Head of the Church; (b) Appeals were regularly sent up from the English ecclesiastical courts to the Pope as the ultimate Court of Appeal. The Act of Praemunire had thus, to a great extent, fallen into abeyance; (c) The Pope had in his own hands the patronage of the English sees and of many other offices in the Church. Thus the Statute of Provisors of 1351 was in abeyance; (d) Archbishops, bishops, deans, and the beneficed clergy, paid their first year's income after their appointment to a benefice to the Pope. This was the "annates or first-fruits." The laity paid to the Pope their Peter's Pence (**Rom-feoh** or **Rome-Scot**)—a tax of one penny per annum on each hearth.

(ii) All of these links were destroyed by the action of the Seven Years' Parliament between 1529 and 1536.

(iii) "Henry threw off the authority of the Pope simply because he was tired of a staid and elderly wife, and had fallen in love with a flighty young woman."—GARDINER.

(iv) "**Bishop Fisher** was," says Mr. Green, "the most inflexibly honest churchman of the age."

**10. Thomas More.**—This great Englishman was born, in 1480, in Milk Street, Cheapside, opposite that Bread Street where John Milton came into the world a century and a quarter later. He was, when a boy, a page in the house of Archbishop Morton, who prophesied he would "prove a marvellous man." Dean Colet, who founded St. Paul's School, said of him: "There is but one wit[1] in England, and that is young More." He rose to be Lord Chancellor, and was indeed the first great Chancellor who was not a clergyman. He was the Lord Chancellor between Wolsey and Thomas Cromwell. Refusing to take the oath of supremacy, which would have the effect of declaring his belief in the religious validity of the divorce of Katharine, and of sanctioning the marriage with Anne Boleyn, he was thrown into the Tower, and brought to trial at Westminster in 1535. No such culprit had stood at any European bar for a thousand years. He was condemned to death. When he walked up-stairs to the scaffold, the wooden staircase shook, and he had to stop. "See me safe up," he said to the attendant with the genuine humour which had been his friend through life; "and as for my coming down, I will take care of that myself." When his head was on the block, he asked for a moment's delay to move aside his beard. "Pity that should be cut," he said: "that has not committed treason." He was one of the most wonderful men that England has produced—a great writer, a great lawyer, and a great statesman.

**Execution of Sir Thomas More 1535.**

[1] This meant, in the sixteenth century, *man & ability*.

C

(i) "More's father, old Sir John, though nearly ninety, still sat as senior puisne judge in the Court of King's Bench; and there, every morning, before going to his own Court, the Lord Chancellor knelt before the old man to ask his blessing."—YONGE. "When did nature mould a temper more gentle, and endearing, and happy, than the temper of Thomas More?"—ERASMUS.

(ii) More was the author of a "Life of Edward V." and also of a satire on the bad laws and abuses of the time. This satire took the form of the description of a quite ideal commonwealth; and its title was Utopia (=Nowhere). In the Utopia, every person was taught to read and to write; no one worked more than nine hours a day; every head of a family had a vote, and that vote was taken by ballot. This book contained the germ of all humanitarian legislation—that the motive of the criminal law should be reformation, not punishment.

(iii) **More** formed with **Erasmus, Colet, Grocyn,** and **Linacre,** the noble band of "Oxford Reformers" who brought the New Learning to England,—the study of Greek, the philosophy of Plato, and the theology of St. Paul. Reformer as More was, however, his constitutional conservatism would not permit him to break with the historic Mother Church.

11. **"The Pilgrimage of Grace."**—Religious opinion and the feelings of quiet people were greatly disturbed and unsettled by the Divorce Question, the severance from Rome, and the suppression of the monasteries. Cromwell had flooded the country with spies; and these men reported to him that one centre of reaction was the **Nun of Kent,** a half-witted woman, who prophesied the early death of the king. She was seized and apprehended in 1534. This, and the execution of More and Fisher in the following year, agitated men's minds still more intensely. The people of the North had always been very conservative, regarded their monks with great favour, and saw with bitter sorrow their old thriving villages turned into bare sheep-walks. Yorkshire and Lincolnshire rose in rebellion, under the leadership of a young lawyer, **Robert Aske.** An army of 30,000 men was raised—"as tall men, well-horsed and well-applied, as any men could be." Their badge was the "Five wounds of Christ"; and the movement was called the "**Pilgrimage of Grace.**" Aske, a noble, religious, and disinterested man, was arrested, and was put to death along with four abbots and two other leaders. A committee of the Privy Council, called the "**Council of the North,**" was appointed to manage, from this time, the affairs of the northern cities.

**The Pilgrimage of Grace 1536.**

(i) The spies of Cromwell were so numerous that "men felt as if a scorpion lay sleeping under every stone."

(ii) The objects of the Pilgrimage of Grace were to bring about: (a) reunion with the Pope; (b) recognition of the Princess Mary, Katharine's daughter, as heir to the crown; and (c) the restoration of the Monasteries.

(iii) This Council sat for four months in the year, at Hull, York, Durham, and Newcastle.

**12. Thomas Cromwell.**—Henry did not wish to separate himself from Rome in doctrine, but only in government. He had no sympathy with his contemporary Martin Luther; and the men of the "New Learning" or "new opinions," were not favoured by him. These soon began to be distinguished by the name of *Protestants*; those who adhered to the Pope were called *Romanists* or *Papists*, and by themselves *Catholics*. But these names were the names of two parties within the one Church, and not of two separate sects or churches.—Thomas Cromwell had by this time been created Baron Cromwell and Earl of Essex. He was the king's right hand in all Church business; and he was generally known throughout the country as the "Hammer of the Monks."[1] Not only did he put down the smaller and the greater monasteries, but he caused famous relics, images, and shrines to be destroyed; and the jewels and gold and rich offerings found in them were placed in the king's exchequer. Chief among these was the great shrine of England—the shrine of Thomas Becket. That shrine was rich with the offerings of thousands of loyal spirits, who had been helped by the strong religious genius of the man they looked upon as a martyr. Not content with seizing this wealth, Henry went through the solemn farce of trying a man who had been dead for four hundred years, and having him condemned as a traitor. He also drew up an Act called the "Statute of the Six Articles," which was directed against the holders of the "new opinions." Thus Henry persecuted in both directions: if a good Catholic disowned his supremacy, he was burned or hanged; if a Protestant denied one of the doctrines in the Six Articles, his fate was as certain and as severe.

**The Six Articles 1539.**

(i) "Fox calls this statute 'the whip with six strings.' It was something more terrible than a whip. It breathed the amplest threats of the stake at Smithfield and the gallows at Tyburn."—KNIGHT.

(ii) It was also called "the Bloody Bill." The chief points it asserted were: (a)

[1] In Latin, *Malleus Monachorum*.

The doctrine of Transubstantiation; (b) The celibacy of the clergy; and (c) Auricular confession.

(iii) "Five hundred arrests were made by the eager Catholic party in a single fortnight after the passing of the Bill; but only twenty-eight suffered under the statute during the whole reign."—*Encyc. Brit.*

**13. Henry is deposed.**—And now (1538) the Pope, Paul III., issued a Bull excommunicating and deposing Henry; and Reginald Pole, a grandson of the Duke of Clarence, and a Cardinal of the Church, did what he could to stir up foreign powers to make war upon England. The only result of his efforts was to bring his brother, Lord Montacute, and his mother, the Countess of Salisbury —the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets—to death upon the scaffold.

(i) The Countess of Salisbury was daughter of the Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV.

(ii) Edward Courtenay, Marquis of Exeter, a grandson of Edward IV., was also executed. These executions were the last results of the old rivalry between the houses of York and Lancaster.

**14. The Fall of Cromwell, 1540.**—Henry's marriage with Anne of Cleves was the cause of Cromwell's downfall. He was attainted of treason by Act of Parliament without trial, and condemned to die by the axe. The king married Katharine Howard only two days after the execution of his old friend and servant.

(i) The Protestant Princes now formed a league against Charles V.; and Cromwell tried to induce Henry to join this league by marrying the daughter of the Duke of Cleves, who was one of the members.

(ii) Cromwell showed Henry a portrait of Anne of Cleves by Holbein; but Holbein had flattered her greatly. Sir Anthony Brown, the Master of the Horse, had been sent in advance of the king, and "was never so much dismayed in his life to see the lady so far unlike what was reported."

**15. The Dissolution of the Monasteries.**—There were in England during this reign six hundred and sixteen religious houses, which were inhabited by monks and nuns who had taken upon them the three vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience. The first attack that was made upon them came from Wolsey, who, in the year 1523, obtained Bulls from the Pope which authorised him to suppress forty of the smaller monasteries, and to apply their revenues to the support of colleges and schools. But it was not until after the break with

Rome that the general attack took place. In 1536, Parliament, at the instigation of Thomas Cromwell, passed an Act dissolving the smaller monasteries and nunneries, and transferring their property to the Crown. In 1539, another Act was passed dissolving the larger monasteries also, and granting their revenues to the king. Much of their lands was given to the nobles who were favourites of Henry; the good-natured and easy-going monks disappeared; arable land was turned into pasture; thousands of peasants were thrown out of work; the destitute could no longer ask for alms at the monastery doors; and distressful faces as well as "sturdy beggars" swarmed through the counties of England.

**Dissolution of Larger Monasteries 1539.**

(i) The smaller monasteries meant those whose income was under £200 a year.

(ii) Of the religious orders there were 186 Benedictines, 173 Augustinians, 101 Cistercians, 28 of the Knights Hospitallers, etc. The Cistercians in Yorkshire were the chief traders in wool with the markets of Flanders. They built the beautiful **Fountains Abbey** (in Yorkshire), **Tintern** (in Monmouth), and **Furness** (in Lancashire).

(iii) The chief house of the Knights Hospitallers in England was the Hospital of St. John, at Clerkenwell in the north of London.

**16. The English Bible.**—One result of the great changes made in this reign, and of the revolt of Henry against the Pope, was the bringing in of the English Bible. William Tyndale, an able Oxford scholar, had translated most of the Bible and published it in 1530. In 1536 he was burnt by order of the Emperor of Germany in Vilvorde. King Henry, who had been at first destined for the Church, and had received as learned an education as most of his own bishops, did not like Tyndale's version, and he set Miles Coverdale of Cambridge to correct and add to it. By a royal order, a copy of Coverdale's translation was chained to a pillar or desk in every church and cathedral; and the joy of the common people was widespread and intense. Parties were made up to go to the church and hear it read; the ability to read was looked upon as the most enviable of human acquirements; and small crowds of people stood with open heart and eager minds to hear the new and wonderful words read to them in their mother-tongue.—After the fall of Cromwell, Bishop Gardiner came into favour; and in 1543 he had an Act passed which forbade the reading of the Bible by "the lower sort"; and for *their* reading the bishops were directed to draw up a

book, which was entitled, "The Necessary Doctrine and Education for any Christian Man."

(i) Tyndale's English New Testament was printed at Worms in 1525. Coverdale's Bible was published in 1535. Cranmer's, or "the Great Bible," was printed in 1540.

(ii) Cranmer's Bible was sold at 13s. 4d.; "unless Cromwell would give the printers exclusive privileges, when they might be sold for 10s."

(iii) In 1538, the clergy received orders to set up a copy of the Bible in their parish churches, and to encourage their flocks to read it.

**17. Scotland.**—James v. had succeeded his father after the battle of Flodden in 1513; but he was only two years old, and the regency was placed in the hands of John, Duke of Albany, Lord High Admiral of France, and nephew to James III. His government was not at all popular, because most of the offices of State fell into the hands of his French followers. Henry saw his opportunity, and, with his usual abruptness, sent a message to the Scotch commanding them to dismiss Albany and break off the alliance with France. But the Scotch Parliament, called "The Estates," refused to do this. The great leader of the French party was James Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews, and Lord High Chancellor of the kingdom. Wolsey tried all he could to lay hold of Beaton; but this powerful lord kept himself shut up in his strong castle of St. Andrews,—ivy-grown and surf-beaten, standing above the long rocky reefs of an iron-bound and dangerous coast,—and from this stronghold he maintained his connection with France.

"How to reach Beaton was the difficulty. He was Primate and Lord Chancellor; but what gave reality to the high offices was that he possessed the strong Castle of St. Andrews, on a rock jutting into the sea. There he intrenched himself, and became unapproachable, save to those whom he chose to receive."—BURTON.

**18. James V. of Scotland.**—At the age of twelve, James was set up to rule in his own name—a step which was known by the name of "The Erection"; but he soon after fell into the power of the Earl of Angus, a Red Douglas.—From this power he escaped, and soon made his personal rule felt by putting down lawlessness in the Highlands and on the Scottish Borders.—In 1542 a war broke out with England. Henry sent an army to invade Scotland; James marched south to meet it; but his army was defeated by a few hundred Englishmen at Solway Moss. The king remained at Caerlaverock Castle on the Nith. James rode in downcast and despairing

mood from Solway to Edinburgh, and from Edinburgh to Falkland Palace in Fife, where the news was brought to him that a daughter was born to his house. His head sank upon his breast, and he only muttered, "It cam' wi' a lass, and it 'll gang wi' a lass." Eight days after, he died of a broken heart, on the 14th of December 1542. James was a handsome red-haired Scotsman, and his countrymen knew him by the name of the "Red Tod."[1]

(i) Henry VIII., who was the uncle of James v., agreed to meet him at York to discuss affairs of State. Henry travelled in state to York; but no King of Scots came. Henry felt he had been made a fool of; and gave orders for the invasion of Scotland.

(ii) "It cam' wi' a lass." This is an allusion to the fact that Marjory, the daughter of King Robert the Bruce, married Walter, the High Steward of Scotland; and their son, Robert, was the first of the Stewart kings.

**19. Henry's Government.**—Henry did all he could to rule without Parliament; and, when he did call the House of Commons together, he took care to pack it with men who were either his paid servants, or were known to be favourable to him. Twice did the Parliament pay his debts for him; three times did they alter the succession to the throne at his bidding; and, to crown all, they permitted him to dispose of his kingdom by will and testament, just as if England had been his own private and personal property. His strong will bore down everything—not only his Parliament but even his judges and his archbishops were his humble servants and willing slaves; and Henry was the most absolute tyrant that ever sat upon the throne of England.

**20. Henry's Death.**—Henry was now, by 1547, growing old, infirm, fat, irritable, and very suspicious. He flung Henry Howard, the Earl of Surrey (an able poet and most accomplished man), into the Tower on a charge of high treason, and a few days after had him beheaded. Surrey's father, the Duke of Norfolk, was also arrested.—Henry, feeling his end approaching, gave back a small portion of his spoil to works of charity. He appointed sixteen "executors," among whom was the Earl of Hertford, to manage the affairs of the kingdom during the minority of his son Edward; and, should this prince die without children, the crown was to go first to Mary, and then to Elizabeth and

**Death of Henry VIII. 1547.**

*Tod* is the Scotch name for *fox*.

her heirs. When told he was dying, he asked to see Cranmer. But the king was speechless when the archbishop arrived; and in this state he passed away.

The two men, Wolsey and More, who knew Henry most intimately, have left to us their impressions of his character in terms quite unmistakable.

(a) Wolsey says: "He is a prince of royal courage, and hath a princely heart; and rather than miss any part of his will or pleasure, he will endanger the loss of one half of his realm."

(b) "In the height of More's favour with the king, after walking an hour with him in the garden at Chelsea, the king holding his arm about his neck, More confessed that he 'had no cause to be proud thereof, for if my head would win him a castle in France it should not fail to go.'"

21. **The Work of Parliament.**—Parliament, which was at this time less of a representative body than ever, met very seldom during this reign. And, even when it did meet, it showed itself little more than the willing tool of Henry. This ready subservience of Parliament was due to two causes: first, the greater and more powerful barons had been weeded out in the Wars of the Roses; second, the dissolution of the monasteries diminished the number of members of the House of Lords. The greater abbots had ceased to exist; and the character of the House lost in fearlessness and independence. The first important Parliament met in 1523. There had been no Parliament for eight years before. This Parliament had Sir Thomas More as its speaker; and, though it permitted Wolsey to come before it and to plead for a grant of money in person, it was independent enough to refuse Wolsey's petition, except in small part. —In the year 1529, the **Seven Years' Parliament** met for the first time. This Parliament carried out one of the greatest revolutions in the history of this country. Its chief work was the separation of the Church of England from Rome, and the making of it a national Church. In 1532 it passed an Act forbidding the payment of first-fruits (or annates) to Rome.—In 1534 it passed an Act forbidding all appeals to Rome; and this had the effect of stopping the appeal of Katharine to the Pope in the question of her divorce; and, in the same year, it passed another Act finally abolishing the authority of the Pope in England. In 1536 it restricted the privilege called "Benefit of Clergy."—Another Parliament, still more subservient to the wishes and whims of the king, enacted that the King's Proclamations should be as valid as Acts of Parliament, and thus committed a kind of political suicide.— And lastly, in 1544, Parliament passed an

Act to release the king from all his debts, or—in other words—to throw the loss of the money upon the king's creditors.

(i) In the Act of 1534, a clause was inserted providing that archbishops and bishops should not be "presented to the Bishop of Rome, otherwise called the Pope, for confirmation; but that they should be elected by *congé d'élire*."

*Congé d'élire*=permission to elect. This mode of electing bishops is still in use. A *congé d'élire* is a letter from the Sovereign to the Dean and Chapter of a Cathedral, professedly giving them permission to elect a bishop. But the name of the bishop they are to elect is given in the letter; so that it is not a real *congé*. They are bound to elect the bishop named within 20 days, or make themselves liable to the penalties stated in the Act of Præmunire.

(ii) Henry, like his father, always employed the machinery of the constitution and the letter of the law to carry out his despotic and arbitrary desires.

(iii) "This Parliament, which sat at intervals from 1529 to 1536 had little independent or substantive power; it was made up largely of nominees and creatures of the Court, and seldom moved but at the royal initiative."—*Encyc. Brit.*

**22. Great Men.**—In the earlier period of Henry's reign, the three greatest men were **Wolsey**, **More**, and **Fisher**. All three were disgraced by Henry; and the last two executed for refusing to swear to the Acts of Succession and Supremacy. They declined to say what they did not believe—that the marriage with Anne Boleyn was valid, and that the King was supreme head of the Church; and, rather than say that, they went cheerfully to the place of execution.—In the latter part of the reign we find **Thomas Cromwell**, **Archbishop Cranmer**, and **Henry Howard**, Earl of Surrey, who is one of the distinguished poets of this century.

**23. Social Facts.**—The suppression of the monasteries had discouraged agriculture, and had thrown a great deal of land into pasturage; it was found necessary to pass laws to stop the depopulation of the country which resulted—and the streaming of labourers into towns; and also to limit the number of sheep kept on a farm.—In this reign a great improvement was introduced in the streets of London—the "common highways were very foul and jeopardous": they were now paved, and the formation of great holes, sloughs, and pits in the roads was thus stopped. London had a population of 150,000 inhabitants, or was nearly as large as Sunderland is to-day. The great thoroughfares were adorned with elaborately ornamented fountains, the water for which was brought in leaden pipes underground from Hampstead and other places.—The steeple of Bow Church had lanterns, "whereby travellers might not miss of their ways."—Woolwich Dockyard was established in 1512.—The first

merchant ship to India sailed in the year 1541.—The rate of interest was fixed by law at 10 per cent.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY VIII.'s REIGN.

**1509.** Henry VIII. marries **Katharine of Arragon.**

**1510.** Empson and Dudley executed.

**1513.** **Battle of the Spurs.**
**Battle of Flodden.**

**1515.** **Wolsey, Lord Chancellor.**

**1520.** Field of the Cloth of Gold.

**1521.** Henry made "Defender of the Faith."

**1527.** Henry submits the validity of his marriage with Katharine to the Pope.

**1529.** The Divorce Question appealed to Rome.
**Fall of Wolsey.**
Thomas More made Chancellor.
**The Seven Years' Parliament.**

**1530.** Death of Wolsey.

**1531.** Henry "**Head of the Church.**"

**1532.** Act forbidding the payment of First Fruits to Rome.

**1534.** Act to abolish the authority of the Pope.
**Act of Supremacy,** Henry "**SUPREME HEAD** of the Church of England."

**1536.** **Union** of **England** and **Wales** as regards laws and inheritance of land, etc.
Smaller Monasteries dissolved.
"**The Pilgrimage of Grace**"

**1539.** Henry's proclamations declared by "a perfidious parliament" to be as valid as Acts of Parliament.
All Monasteries dissolved.
Act of the "Six Articles" passed.

**1540.** Cromwell attainted and executed.

**1542.** Henry, "**King of Ireland.**"

**1544.** Henry invades France and takes Boulogne.

**1547.** **Death of Henry VIII.**

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1512.** Ferdinand II. of Arragon takes the title of "Ferdinand V., **King of Spain.**"

**1517.** **Martin Luther** draws up 95 theses against the sale of Indulgences, and so begins the "Reformation."

**1519.** Charles V. elected Emperor of Germany.
Cortez conquers Mexico.

**1525.** Francis I. of France defeated by Charles V. at **Pavia.** Rise of the power of Charles V.

**1527.** **Gustavus Vasa,** king of Sweden.

**1529.** **John Calvin** preaches the "Reformed Doctrines."
Lutherans hand in a "Protest" at the Diet of Spires. Hence called **Protestants.**

**1532.** Pizarro conquers Peru.

# CHAPTER III.

# EDWARD THE SIXTH

Born 1537. Succeeded (at the age of 9) 1547. Died 1553.

Reigned 6 years.

EDWARD VI. was the only son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, daughter of Sir John Seymour of Wiltshire. He was born at Hampton Court, 12th October 1537. His mother died twelve days after he was born. He was never married. He died of consumption at Greenwich, on July 6th, 1553, so that he was not quite sixteen years of age.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| SCOTLAND. | FRANCE. | GERMANY AND SPAIN. |
|---|---|---|
| MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS from 1542. | HENRY II. from 1547. | CHARLES V., E. of Germany (also K. of Spain as CHARLES I.). |

**1. Edward VI., 1547-1553.**—Edward was only nine years of age when he was called to wear the crown and to sit upon the throne. By his father's will, he was left to the charge of sixteen "Executors," and twelve Privy Councillors, who were to assist the executors and manage the affairs of the country until the boy should reach the age of eighteen. This Council consisted of the newer nobles—men who had been raised by the personal favour of Henry VIII.; and the old nobility were carefully shut out. The Earl of Hertford prevailed upon his colleagues to make him *Governor* of the young king. The Earl of Hertford favoured the "New Opinions." Hertford was also created Duke of Somerset; and, very soon after, he used his influence to induce the boy to grant him letters-patent creating him **Lord Protector** of the whole kingdom. Thus Henry VIII.'s will was set aside; and Somerset could rule and act alone, without consulting his fellow-executors. In the first year of his rule, he invaded Scotland for the purpose of compelling the Scotch to carry out the marriage

treaty made with Henry VIII., and gained a complete victory over them at **Pinkie**, near Edinburgh. But he did not prevail upon them to allow him to carry off their young queen; the French alliance was too strong, and the young Princess Mary Stuart became the wife of the Dauphin, who, soon after, became Francis II. of France.

**Battle of Pinkie 1547.**

(i) EDWARD VI., until the age of six, was brought up "among the women." Sir John Cheke taught him Latin and Greek; Roger Ascham gave him lessons in penmanship. He could write Latin when he was eight, and he knew several Latin books by heart. He would "sequester himself into some chamber or gallery" to learn his lessons; and he was always very cheerful at his books. He was crowned in Westminster Abbey by Archbishop Cranmer, who placed three crowns in succession on the head of the child—the Confessor's crown, the imperial crown, and a smaller one made specially for himself. He was acknowledged at the same time as "Supreme Head of the Church." He lived a solitary life, and seldom saw his sisters. He signed with the greatest calmness the warrants for the execution of his two uncles; and made the following entry in his diary, 22d January 1552: "The Duke of Somerset had his head cut off on Tower Hill between eight and nine of the clock." He was short of stature, of fair complexion, and grey eyes. Dean Stanley speaks of him as "the tiger cub."

(ii) The story of a minority in England is always the story of a struggle between two interested and ambitious parties. The *personal* government of Henry VIII. had left behind it a body of unprincipled men, who thought more of themselves than of their country. Edward VI.'s reign falls easily into two periods: the first, the ascendency of **Somerset**; the second, of **Northumberland**. Somerset was the head of the reforming, innovating, and revolutionary party; Northumberland was on the side that promoted his own interests.

**2. Somerset's Opinions.**—When Somerset returned to England he summoned the Parliament and set it to work on ecclesiastical business; for he was the leader of those who held what were coming to be called Protestant views, and was strongly in favour of the Reformers and the New Learning. He was also very eager to make himself popular. Accordingly Parliament, at his instigation, and assisted by Cranmer, repealed the "Six Articles" and the statutes against heretics (always excepting the Anabaptists, who were looked upon by both parties as very dangerous), abolished chantries,[1] replaced masses by the liturgy, ordered all statues, images, and pictures to be removed from the churches, and summed up the faith of Englishmen in forty-two[2] articles. The king, who was a mere

[1] Chapels where masses were *chanted* or sung for the dead. Large sums of money were left for this purpose. Chaucer praises his "pore parson" for staying at home, looking after his flock, and not running to London, unto Seynte Poulë's to seeken him a *Chaunterie* for soules."

[2] Afterwards reduced to *thirty-nine*.

child, supported all these measures; and, indeed, his religious zeal surpassed that of Somerset himself. Hugh Latimer, bishop of Worcester, and a great, eloquent, and fearless preacher, had a pulpit erected in the young king's garden; and there the boy would sit and listen to his sermons for hours together.—The other promoters of these changes were Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, and Ridley, bishop of London. They were steadfastly opposed by Stephen Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and Edmund Bonner, bishop of London, formerly of Hereford.

(i) **Gardiner** was thrown into the Tower.

(ii) **Bonner** was deprived of his bishopric, which was given to Ridley. Bonner told his judges that he "had a few goods, a poor carcass, and a soul"; that they might do what they liked with the two first, he would take good care of the last himself.

**3. The New Policy.**—Henry VIII. had taken the utmost care to prevent any change in the doctrines or in the ceremonies of religion in the Church of England; but this policy was almost entirely upset by the new government of Somerset. English was substituted in churches for the old ritual in Latin; the images were pulled down and destroyed, the pictures defaced; the mass was abolished; prayers for the dead done away with; and the English people saw with their eyes and heard with their ears the changes which the "Reformed Religion" was bringing about in the country. Somerset went even further. He disturbed and overthrew the organisation of labour by confiscating the property of all the guilds in England, with the exception of the guilds of London. The merchants, craftsmen, and artisans, who were members of these guilds, had subscribed their money to educate their children and apprentices, to support the old and superannuated guildsmen, to insure their lives, and to pay for masses for the dead. It was on the last of these considerations that their property was confiscated. All this was done, because Somerset had been strong enough to oust the representatives of the Old Religion from the Council of Regency. On the other hand, the clergy received permission to marry; the reading of the Bible was encouraged; and the beautiful prayers of the Common Prayer-Book became the common possession of the whole country.

**4. Discontent.**—The poorer people of the country suffered terribly at this time. The monasteries had been the great mainstay of the

poor and had done all that the Poor Law does now, and more. The monks had been easy landlords and kind neighbours; they kept open house, and had daily meals for the poor at their gates; and, if a poor man had lost a horse or a cow or a sheep by accident or disease, the monks were glad to make him a present of another. Now all this was gone. The new landlords were needy courtiers, who desired to screw every penny they could out of their tenants and workmen; and having got their lands by hypocrisy and wrong,—for, as Bishop Latimer said, "thousands became Gospellers for the Church lands,"—they held them with cruelty and exaction. They even began to seize upon and to enclose the commons. In addition to all this, the coinage was debased; wages would not rise, though prices were everywhere rising; and, owing to the demand for wool, large tracts of land were thrown out of tillage, and were turned into sheep-walks and pasture. To crown all, the plague appeared in 1548; and a disease called the "sweating sickness," as fatal as the plague, attacked the sullen, overcrowded, and ill-fed peasants in 1551.—And now risings took place everywhere; from Devon in the west to Norfolk in the east, the whole country was in a blaze, and the Earl of Warwick was despatched to put down the insurrections. He hanged priests and monks from the church steeples, put the leaders to death, and dispersed the bodies of armed peasants. Robert Ket, a wealthy Norfolk farmer and the lord of three manors, was hanged at Norwich.—Nor were these risings induced by want of food alone. In the north and west of England, the people were strict Catholics, and they resented the abolition of the Mass; the new doctrines were in great favour in London and the large towns, but not in the country; the Reformation was going too fast for the country people. Accordingly, Exeter was besieged by 10,000 men, who were, however, put to rout by Lords Russell and Grey. In no single respect had the policy of Somerset been a success.

(i) The *new* nobles and proprietors held their lands by a *legal* tenure, and pushed their legal rights to the very utmost. The villagers had always had the old rights to the commons, and used to let their pigs and geese graze on them.

(ii) Henry VIII. had himself made £50,000 by debasing the coinage. But, in this "reign" the debasement was much more serious. The Lords of the Council were allowed to reimburse themselves for the money they had spent in putting down the rebellions by coining inferior silver. The consequence was that the good money was sent out of the country: the purchasing power of a shilling was only sixpence;

and "if you should give a poor man three shillings a day for his labour, he could not live on it."

"It is to these events that we owe the institution of the lord-lieutenants of counties, who were now appointed to inquire of treason, misprision of treason, insurrections, and riots, with authority to levy men, and lead them against the enemies of the king."

(iii) The Insurrection in the West (sometimes called the "Prayer-Book Insurrection") was against the New Liturgy and the "reforming" practices of the Council: in the East, it was against the enclosure of the commons. "The Devonshire rising commenced in a church. The Norfolk rising commenced in a fair." "At Norwich it was a time of feasting and holiday for the thoughtless multitude, who revelled in the spoils of the neighbouring deer-parks; and brought in the fat sheep by thousands from the enclosures which they had broken down."—KNIGHT.

(iv) "It appears plain that the Reformation moved on with too precipitate a step for the majority. The new doctrines prevailed in London, in many large towns, and in the eastern counties. But in the north and west of England the body of the people were strict Catholics."—HALLAM.

**5. Somerset's Fall, 1549.**—Somerset's first enemy was his own brother. This was Thomas, Lord Seymour of Sudeley and Lord High Admiral of England. He had married Katharine Parr, the widow of Henry VIII.; and, when she died, he began a correspondence with, and made an offer of marriage to, the young Princess Elizabeth. A bill of attainder was issued against him; he was accordingly not heard in his own defence, but was put to death by the axe on the 20th of March 1549, his own brother, Somerset, signing the warrant for his execution. This was the turning-point of Somerset's career. Extremely popular before, he now began to be generally and intensely hated. His government was wasteful and the taxes high; he had made an enormous fortune out of the Church lands; and he pulled down churches and the cloister of St. Paul's to build a palace for himself in the Strand.[1] Dudley, Earl of Warwick—the son of that Dudley who had been one of Henry VII.'s "ravening wolves," and had practised extortion on so large a scale—was watching him. Dudley conspired with the other members of the Council against him; and Somerset, on hearing this, fled to Hampton Court, taking the young king with him. In a few days Warwick got the boy into his hands, and ordered Somerset to the Tower. After lying there for two months, he pleaded guilty to every count in a bill of indictment, was pardoned, released, and re-admitted to the Council (1550). But in 1552 a charge of felony was brought against him, and he was executed on Tower Hill. The people forgot

**Execution of Somerset 1552.**

[1] Called *Old Somerset House*, now replaced by Somerset House.

his sins and his shortcomings at the hour of his death, surrounded the scaffold, and when his head fell, rushed in to dip their kerchiefs in his blood, and laid them up among their dearest household treasures.

(i) **Lord Seymour of Sudeley**, the Lord High Admiral of England, had refused to send the fleet against the Scotch; had entered into secret relations with the pirates of the English Channel (for whose use he purchased the Scilly Isles as a basis of operations); had started two cannon foundries; and had collected money and munitions of war.

(ii) "He pulled down divers churches and the cloister in St. Paul's to build Somerset House withal."

**6. Northumberland.**—In 1549, on Somerset's fall, Warwick became Lord Protector, and two years later was made Duke of Northumberland. A strong Roman Catholic before, he now gave himself out for a thoroughgoing Protestant, and set to work so eagerly to push forward the Reformation, that the Princess Mary, taking alarm, tried to make her escape from the country. She was prevented; but fear of her Spanish cousin, the Emperor Charles V., removed from her the danger of pressure or molestation. Only, the young king sent for her, talked to her, and earnestly besought her to change her religion. But the reasonings of a boy of fourteen could not go very far with a woman twice his age—a woman, too, born of resolute Spanish blood. In 1553 the king fell dangerously ill; he had always been weak, and now symptoms of consumption began to show themselves.—In this juncture Northumberland found his opportunity. He saw, too, that if the Princess Mary came to the throne, his power was gone. Accordingly, he persuaded the dying lad to alter the succession, to shut out his sisters, and to settle the crown upon Lady Jane Grey, a granddaughter[1] of the Mary Tudor who had married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. The Council would not approve of this; but the vehemence of Northumberland carried everything before it, and at last the patent was signed by the king. Thus, for the second time within seven years, the crown of England was willed away as if it had been a piece of private property. Northumberland married his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley, to Lady Jane; and thus, in his own belief, succeeded in making the throne of England a snug heritage in his own family circle. Edward died at Greenwich a fortnight after signing the patent; and his last prayer was, that England

[1] She was the daughter of Henry Grey, Duke of Suffolk, who married the daughter of Mary Tudor and Charles Brandon.

might be preserved from "Papistry." The fact of his death was kept secret for four days after, until Lady Jane was installed as queen; and, after he was dead, letters were sent to Mary and Elizabeth to come to the sick-bed of their brother, so that their persons might be seized and secured.

Death of Edward VI. 1553.

(i) In the first draft of his will the king wrote that the crown was to pass "to the L' Janes heires masles"; but Northumberland induced him to insert the two little simple words *and her*, so that the clause now ran thus: "to the L' Jane and her heires masles." Meanwhile, Northumberland had made sure of Lady Jane for his own son.

(ii) In furtherance of this scheme, Northumberland showed the most furious violence, "declaring himself ready to fight for it in his shirt, browbeating the judges, and compelling them and most of Council, including Cranmer, to sign the instrument."

(iii) The misrule of Somerset and Northumberland is seen in the following results:—

(a) Poverty and distress throughout the country.

(b) Rise of prices and fall of wages—chiefly owing to the debasement of the coinage.

(c) The expenditure of the Court four times as great as in Henry VIII.'s time, though the king was a mere boy.

(d) The Crown lands were freely parted with by the Protectors to their personal friends and supporters.

**7. The Reformation.**—With or without the help of powerful princes, the progress of the New Opinions and the New Learning was rapid. But the idea of toleration was not at all understood. Both sides believed that it was necessary to punish or even to burn a man's body to save his soul; and "the toleration of heresy," says Sir James Mackintosh, "was deemed by men of all persuasions to be as unreasonable as it would now be thought to propose the impunity of murder." Accordingly, both sides persecuted and executed, when they had the chance and the power.—Edward is said to have been a "diligent, docile, gentle, and sprightly boy;" but it must not be forgotten that he was a *Tudor*. The name always carries with it the idea of a certain amount of cold-bloodedness; and we need not therefore be amazed when we find the young king noting in his journal the executions of his two uncles, Sudeley and Somerset, as "matters of ordinary news, without a single expression of natural feeling." In fact, his counsellors had trained him to stifle his affections, and to make everything second to the business of the State.—The Prayer-Book of the Church of England was compiled by Cranmer, who took

the old Latin services as his foundation, and translated them into his own sweet and pure English. Many Grammar Schools were founded; and the promotion of education is certainly one of the merits of Edward's government.

**8. The Work of Parliament.**—Parliament was, in the reign of Edward VI., merely the instrument for recording and passing the intentions and decisions of the Council of Regency, and more especially, of the two heads of this Council, the Lord Protectors, Somerset and Northumberland. It passed very severe Acts against vagrancy, though it entirely failed to remove the causes which produced the poverty and distress that everywhere prevailed. The two Acts of Uniformity (1549 and 1552), which were passed to enforce the use of the First and the Second Prayer-Books, proved to be the forging of legal instruments of intolerance, which were destined for many years to bring misery upon generations of thoughtful Englishmen. On the other hand, Somerset induced Parliament to repeal the Statute regarding the validity of royal proclamations; to repeal also the Statute of the Six Articles; and to wipe out of the Statute-book the hideous laws, made by Henry VIII. and Cromwell, regarding felonies and treasons.

(i) It was the suppression of the monastic houses that produced so many beggars and vagrants.

(ii) The Parliament of 1552 passed an Act that no one should be convicted of treason without the evidence of at least two witnesses, both of whom should appear for cross-examination.

**9. Great Men.**—The two most prominent men in the reign of Edward VI. are **Somerset** and **Northumberland**. Both were ambitious; and both favoured the New Opinions. But both, at the same time, sought merely to make the New Opinions a means of carrying them into power and keeping them there. The most distinguished ecclesiastic is **Thomas Cranmer**, whom Henry VIII. created Archbishop of Canterbury: he favoured the reforming party. On the opposite side were two eminent prelates—**Gardiner**, bishop of Winchester; and **Bonner**, bishop of London, who were steadfast to the Old religion.

**10. Social Facts.**—This reign is remarkable for the number of good grammar-schools which were founded out of the moneys obtained from the monasteries, chantries, and guilds that were put an

end to. Many of these schools still go by the name of King Edward VI.'s Grammar Schools; and perhaps the most famous of them all is **Christ's Hospital**, in London. The grape-vine is said to have been introduced into England in 1552; and, as the climate of England was at that time much warmer than it now is, the vine seems to have flourished in a great many parts of the south and west.

(i) Grammar Schools were founded at Birmingham, Maldon, Shrewsbury, Tunbridge, King's Norton, Chelmsford, Norwich, etc. That at Birmingham is probably the most successful at the present time, as it has grown with the growth and wealth of the city, and has now developed into six excellent schools—for girls as well as for boys.

(ii) Many suburbs of towns in the south still have the name of **Vineyard**. At Hatfield—the seat of Lord Salisbury, the gardens contained 1400 standard vines two centuries ago: now there is not one.

**11. Scotland, 1542-1554.**—During the minority of **Mary Stuart**, James Hamilton, Earl of Arran, acted as regent, though the infant queen was left in charge of her mother, Mary of Guise and Lorraine. A treaty had been formed with England for the marriage of Mary to the young Prince Edward; but the treaty was broken by the Regent and the mother. In consequence, war was declared at Edinburgh by an English herald; and the Earl of Hertford (after Duke of Somerset) landed an English army at Granton, near Edinburgh. He sacked Leith and set fire to Edinburgh, burned the towns on the opposite coast of Fife, and then made his way to the southern border, leaving behind him a broad band of wasted country, slaughtered Scotchmen, and smoking villages. This was in 1544. Next year he came again at harvest-time, laid towns, manor-houses, churches, and about three hundred villages in ashes, and left in ruins the Abbeys of Kelso, Melrose, Dryburgh, Roxburgh, and Coldstream. In 1547 he made a third appearance, and defeated the Scotch, as has been said, at the Battle of Pinkie. The French sent help; but the English were not driven out of the country until the year 1550. Even those Scotchmen who favoured the English alliance and the English marriage felt angry and ashamed; for, as the Earl of Huntly said, "Thof[1] they likit the marriage, they were na muckle[2] pleased with the manner of wooing."—In 1546 Cardinal Beaton was murdered in his Castle of St. Andrews by a number of the followers of the martyred George

[1] Though. [2] Not much.

Wishart. In 1554 Mary of Guise was made Regent of Scotland. After the marriage of Mary Stuart with the Dauphin,[1] the crown of Scotland was offered to him, when he became King of France, under the title of Francis II., in 1559. This feeble king died six months after; but for that time the two countries of France and Scotland were really united under one crown.—The leaven of religious reform was working in Scotland also with great strength; and its influence with all classes of the people was much greater than in England.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD VI.'s REIGN.

**1547.** **Edward VI. succeeds.**
**Duke of Somerset Protector.**
**Battle of Pinkie.**

**1549.** First Prayer-Book with Act of Uniformity.
**Earl of Warwick Protector.**

**1552.** Execution of Somerset.
Second Prayer-Book with Act of Uniformity.

**1553.** Edward signs a will in favour of **Lady Jane Grey.**
Death of Edward VI.

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1547.** Death of Francis I. of France.
He is succeeded by Henry II.

**1548.** Mary, the young Queen of Scots, is sent to France.

[1] This was the title of the eldest son of the kings of France, from his crest, which was a *dolphin*.

# CHAPTER IV.

# MARY

Born 1516. Succeeded (at the age of 37) in 1553. Died 1558.

Reigned 5 years.

MARY TUDOR, the only surviving child of Henry VIII. and Katharine of Arragon, was born at Greenwich on the 18th of February 1516. She was carefully educated, and wrote rather well. She was illegitimatised by the statute of January 1534, and restored to her rights, January 1544. She married, in 1554, Philip II. of Spain, the son of Charles V., king of Spain and the Netherlands, and Emperor of Germany; but Philip received no share in the government of England. She died in 1558, without children.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| SCOTLAND. | FRANCE. | SPAIN. |
|---|---|---|
| MARY to 1567. | HENRY II. to 1559. | CHARLES V. to 1556. |
| | | PHILIP II. |

**1. Mary, 1553-1558.**—The Lady Jane was proclaimed in London; and Mary was proclaimed in Norfolk, where she had taken refuge with the Howards, who had always been and are staunch Catholics. Northumberland left London with a small force of 10,000 men to seize the person of Mary; but, as he left the city, the people pressed around him with black looks and sullen faces, and the duke remarked to a friend: "The people press to see us, but no man sayeth, 'God speed you.'" On the contrary, high and low ran to the standard of Queen Mary; and among the first to join her were the crews of two ships that had been stationed on the coast to prevent her escape. The Council in London proclaimed Mary queen, and sent an order to Northumberland to disarm. He received the order at Cambridge, at once proceeded to proclaim her himself at the Cross there, and was among the most eager to throw up his cap and to call for three cheers

for the new sovereign. It did not help him. Mary, a few days after, entered London in triumph.

2. **Lady Jane Grey.**—The young girl Jane Grey, Mary's unwilling rival, was only sixteen, beautiful, amiable, of the sweetest and most charming disposition and manners, and wonderfully accomplished and even learned: for she had received her education along with the young King Edward. She, at any rate, had no desire for a crown; her greatest delight was to read Plato in the window corner of a quiet library; and when her father-in-law and four other lords knelt before her as their queen, and pressed her to accept the crown, she shrieked, sank upon the ground, and declared her utter unfitness and unreadiness to accept such a position. On the 7th of July she was proclaimed; on the 17th she was in the Tower. Thus her "reign" lasted only nine days. The Duke of Northumberland was beheaded; but Lady Jane and her husband were only kept in the Tower, where their confinement was not at all rigorous. They were allowed to walk in the queen's garden, and to receive visitors; and it is probable that their lives would have been spared had it not been for after events.—As the Duke of Northumberland had suddenly veered round in politics when he proclaimed Mary at Cambridge, so at his execution he confessed, to the dismay of his Protestant friends, that he died an adherent of the ancient faith.

(i) Jane (*Jana Regina*, as a contemporary chronicler called her) actually "reigned" from the 7th to the 17th of July 1553. Northumberland received from her a commission for the lieutenantship of the army which was signed JANE THE QUEENE.

(ii) On her passage from Whitehall to the Tower by water, the day of her proclamation, she was received by the people in blank silence. The rumour ran that the young king had come to his death by poison. "He was poisoned, everybody says." "The ragged bear [Northumberland] is glad of the king's death," was whispered by some.

(iii) "They have made this poor young lady but a Twelfth-Day Queen," was the remark of the French Ambassador.

(iv) Northumberland said to Sir Anthony Brown that "he certainly thought best of the old religion; but, seeing a new one begun, he would go forward."—"Thus, with a lie upon his lips, he passed from the world, perhaps the worst and most simply selfish statesman who had ever ruled England."—FRANCK BRIGHT.

## GENEALOGY OF LADY JANE GREY.

HENRY VII. *m.* ELIZABETH OF YORK.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Margaret (*m.* James IV. of Scotland). | HENRY VIII. | Mary *m.* Charles Brandon (Duke of Suffolk). |
| James V. | | Frances *m.* Henry Grey (Duke of Suffolk). |
| Mary Stuart (Queen of Scots). | | **Jane Grey** *m.* Lord Guildford Dudley (son of the Duke of Northumberland). |

(i) One clause in Henry VIII.'s will provided that, if all his children should die without issue, the crown should go to the descendants of his *younger* sister Mary, who had married the Duke of Suffolk. Thus he passed over the descendants of his *elder* sister Margaret, who now filled the throne of Scotland.

(ii) Another clause in the will left the crown to Frances, Duchess of Suffolk—the mother of Jane; but she was quite willing to give way to her daughter.

(iii) Henry had not the smallest right, either in law or in the tradition of the constitution, to "leave" the crown; but he was practically a despotic sovereign.

**3. The Spanish Marriage.**—Mary was now thirty-seven. "No English sovereign," says Mr. Froude, "ever ascended the English throne with larger popularity than this lady." This love and popularity she soon lost; and the history of her reign is little more than the history of that loss.—She restored the deprived bishops to their sees; Gardiner came back to Winchester, and Bonner to London; the foreign preachers were expelled the kingdom, and Mass was again said in all the churches. "London alone remained true to Protestantism." But the nation was not offended with all this, for it was hardly Protestant at heart; what the nation did fear and detest was a foreign husband, and, above all, a dark Spanish tyrant and bigot. No one liked the Spanish marriage; most regarded it with dread and dislike. But the queen had set her heart on Philip, the son of the great Charles V.; and men began to dread, and not without reason, that they would see the officers of the Inquisition in the streets of London, and that England would become a province of Spain.

(i) "MARY'S clemency towards those who had taken up arms against her was altogether remarkable. She released from prison Lady Jane's father, Suffolk, and had difficulty even in signing the warrant for the execution of Northumberland. Lady

Jane herself she fully meant to spare, and did spare till after Wyatt's formidable insurrection."—*Ency. Brit.*

(ii) "You know in what state all countries are where Spaniards bear any rule. Sicily, Naples, Lombardy, Sienna, when they had it, and all other places where they have had any authority, do you not know how they are oppressed by the Spaniards? in what a bondage and misery they live? Even so must you look to be in England."—*Montmorenci* (quoted by Knight).

(iii) Another reason why Mary was eager for this marriage was the political one—that she might be strengthened against the claims of Mary Stuart to the crown of England.

**4. Rebellions and their Result.**—Risings accordingly took place in the West, and in the East, and in the Midland Counties of England. Sir Thomas Wyatt, a gentleman of Kent, put himself at the head of a large body of Kentish men and marched upon London, announcing that he wished to "save his country from Spanish fleas and Spanish slavery." The old Duke of Norfolk, now eighty, who had been in prison since Henry the Eighth's time, was sent against Wyatt; but his force, exclaiming, "A Wyatt! a Wyatt! We are all Englishmen!" went over to the side of the insurgents. Wyatt was unable to force London Bridge; and, after a weary march round by Kingston, he fought his way to the Temple Bar, and crying, "I have kept touch," sank exhausted at the barred and bolted gate.—Mary showed the usual cool courage of the Tudors; she made a brave speech to the citizens of London, concluding with: "Stand fast against these rebels and fear them not, for I assure you I fear them nothing at all!" The Duke of Suffolk also raised the standard of rebellion in favour of his daughter JANE at Leicester; but nothing succeeded, and Suffolk and Wyatt were taken and put to death. The two young persons, Lady Jane and her husband, who had had no hand in this attempt, and not a particle of sympathy with it, had also to suffer for it. The Spanish ambassador Renard saw his opportunity, and pressed Mary hard for their execution; there was no safety for any one, he said, till these claimants for the crown were out of the way. He urged that Elizabeth also should be put to death. As, however, no evidence could be found against her, in spite of persistent endeavours to discover it, she was only placed in confinement at Woodstock; but it was determined that Lady Jane and her young husband should die. Young Lord Dudley suffered first; and, as the poor girl walked to the block, she had to step over the blood which

flowed across her path from the headless body of her dead husband. She bent her head meekly upon the block, and paid the penalty of noble birth, high rank, and the greedy ambition of her friends.

**Mary marries Philip of Spain 1554.**

Six months after, Mary was married to Philip at Winchester. Parliament, however, would not permit him to be crowned King of England, nor would it consent that he should succeed Mary if she should die childless. Mary was eleven years older than her husband.

(i) Those who dreaded the coming of the King of Spain agreed to have a simultaneous rising in Devonshire, on the marches of Wales in the Midlands, and in Kent; they intended to proclaim Elizabeth, to marry her to Lord Courtenay, and to place both on the throne.

(ii) Other executions followed those of Wyatt, Lady Jane, and her husband. "On that same day was made at every gate in London, a new pair of gallows,—two pair in Cheapside, two pair in Fleet Street, one pair in Holborn."

(iii) Parliament in accepting Philip as the husband of Mary, laid down these conditions: (a) that Mary was to be sole sovereign; (b) that she was never to go abroad; and (c) that she was not to allow England to be drawn into foreign wars by Philip.

**5. The Reconciliation.**—Mary was an ardent Roman Catholic; and the second dearest wish of her heart was to see England reconciled with the Pope. Her dearest wish was to have a son. The first step towards the reconciliation with the Holy See was to reverse the attainder of Cardinal Pole. This was done; and the Pope appointed him his Legate to England. He came up the Thames "with a full tide" in the brilliant state and elaborate splendour of a Cardinal Prince of the Church; a golden cross gleamed at the prow of his barge. He came as a shepherd and a father: he came to take back the strayed and lost country into the arms of the Church. On the 30th of November 1554 the Lords and the Commons of England walked to Whitehall, knelt down before Cardinal Pole, and received from him upon their knees a gracious absolution for the realm from its sins of heresy and schism. The whole of the statutes—nineteen in number—that had been directed since 1528 against the power of Rome, were swept away by one single act. But Parliament would not give up the Church lands, which were held by the most powerful subjects of the Crown; and the Cardinal declared that he had the power to remit this claim. He only appealed to the conscience of the holders. But not a soul in England answered this appeal; they

stuck to their ill-gotten gains. All—except Mary herself, who gave up the tenths, the first-fruits, and the whole of the Church property that had passed into her hands.

(i) "Pole arrived at Gravesend full of gladness, slept there for one night, and then embarked in the royal barge, all decked with purple, to meet the Queen. Though it was the 24th of November, the sky was clear and the sun bright; the Italian suite of the Cardinal were agreeably surprised in the aspect of the Thames, broad, silvery, undefiled, and bordered by the stately houses and trim gardens of the nobility and great merchants, while hosts of boats of all sizes attended the Procession."—YONGE'S CAMEOS (Fourth Series).

(ii) Tennyson in his play of "Queen Mary," makes CARDINAL POLE say:

"Our silver cross sparkled before the prow,
The ripples twinkled at their diamond-dance,
The boats that followed, were as glowing-gay
As regal gardens; and your flocks of swans,
As fair and white as angels; and your shores
Wore in mine eyes the green of Paradise.
My foreign friends, who dream'd us blanketed
In ever-closing fog, were much amazed
To find as fair a sun as might have flash'd
Upon their Lake of Garda, fire the Thames;
Our voyage by sea was all but miracle;
And here the river flowing from the sea,
Not toward it (for they thought not of our tides),
Seem'd as a happy miracle to make glide—
In quiet—home your banish'd countryman."

(iii) There were in all 40,000 persons in possession of portions of the Church lands.

(iv) Cardinal Pole's attainder was reversed by Parliament.

**6. The Marian Persecution.**—Mary was strongly attached to her mother and to the religion of her mother; she was eager to bring back the nation from its apostasy and schism; and she thought persecution a righteous and a lawful weapon. The Lollard statutes of Henry IV. and Henry V. against heretics were revived; and it was now the turn of the extreme Roman Catholics. The nation and clergy and the party in power were determined to use their position and their victory. Gardiner, now Lord Chancellor, was the mainspring of the persecution that followed; though Bonner, the Bishop of London, has received much of the discredit of it. The fires of Smithfield were hardly ever out. More than a thousand married clergymen were driven from their churches; many fled to Frankfort and Geneva, and among them Fox, the author of the *Book of Martyrs*, and Myles

Coverdale, a translator of the Bible. John Rogers, a canon of St. Paul's, and one of the translators of the Bible, was the first to suffer; and, by the end of Mary's reign, nearly three hundred men, women, and children, had been burnt alive for their religious beliefs. They were mostly poor working people; and the only persons of any distinction who suffered were the five prelates, Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, Hooper, and Ferrars. The teachers of Protestantism were burnt in the places where they had taught, so that their pupils and followers might be struck with terror. Ridley and Latimer suffered at Oxford; and Latimer, an old man of eighty, strove his best to encourage his depressed brother Ridley. "Be of good cheer, Master Ridley," he cried; "we shall this day light a candle in England that all the power of Rome may not put out." When Gardiner died, the persecuting energy of the bishops relaxed; but "rattling letters" from Mary quickened their dying zeal; and then the fires of persecution blazed merrily up once more.

(i) About three hundred victims were put to death by burning in the three years of the persecution.

(ii) "The persecution had sunk now from bishops and priests to the people itself. The sufferers were sent in batches to the flames. In a single day thirteen victims, two of them women, were burnt at Stratford-le-Bow. Seventy-three Protestants of Colchester were dragged through the streets of London, tied to a single rope. A new commission for the suppression of heresy was exempted by royal authority from all restrictions of law which fettered its activity."—GREEN.

(iii) The best way to propagate a creed is to persecute as thoroughly and as bitterly as possible those who believe in it. It was the "legal" persecutions of Queen Mary's time that promoted the spread of Protestantism. But it must not be forgotten that neither side understood the true meaning and value of toleration. The Protestants of the sixteenth century were as keen in persecution, when their own opportunity came, as the Catholics; Cranmer as severe as Gardiner.

**7. The Execution of Cranmer.**—Archbishop Cranmer was the next victim selected. It was a daring thing to think of burning the Archbishop of Canterbury—the Primate of all England. But it was he who had discovered that Henry had been illegally married to the mother of Mary; it was he who had plotted with Northumberland to shut out Mary from the throne; it was he who had compiled the English Liturgy to displace the Mass. He was basely tempted with promises of life if he recanted—promises which were not intended to be kept; and six times did he recant. But at last he knew that his life

would not be spared; and then he spurned away all false compliances and all shrinking cowardice, and his soul, standing face to face with death, rose to the high level of the dread occasion. He was brought on his way to the stake, to St. Mary's, Oxford, to repeat his recantation in the hearing of the people; but he turned upon his persecutors, and with head uplifted and eyes lighted with indignation, spoke slowly and clearly the solemn words: "Here I now renounce and refuse all these things as written by my hand contrary to the truth which I thought in my heart, and written for fear of death to save my life, if it might be. And, forasmuch as my hand offended in writing contrary to my heart, my hand therefore shall be the first punished; for if I come to the fire, it shall be the first burnt." When he came to the stake, he held his right hand steadily in the flame till it was consumed, and never stirred or cried. Tennyson thus describes the scene:—

"Then Cranmer lifted his left hand to heaven,
And thrust his right into the bitter flame;
And crying, in his deep voice, more than once,
'This hath offended—this unworthy hand!'
So held it till it all was burned, before
The flame had reached his body. I stood near—
Marked him—he never uttered moan of pain:
He never stirred or writhed, but, like a statue,
Unmoving in the greatness of the flame,
Gave up the ghost."

Cranmer burnt 1556.

The death of Cranmer was the darkest deed of the Marian Persecution; and, as an English peasant woman expressed it, "the burning of the Archbishop burned the Pope out of the land for ever and ever."—Cardinal Pole was now the new Archbishop of Canterbury; and he held a visitation of the Universities, when he ordered all English Bibles and heretical books to be burned, and the bodies of the foreign preachers of King Edward's time to be taken out of their graves and reduced to ashes.

(i) Reginald Pole was the son of Margaret, daughter of the Duke of Clarence, who was brother to Edward iv. He opposed the divorce of Katharine, and had to leave the country. He retired to Italy, became a reformer of the Catholic Church, and was nearly gaining the Papal chair. He was the leading representative of English Catholicism in Europe. He was attainted by Henry viii.'s request, at the same time that his mother, the Countess of Salisbury, was executed. This attainder was reversed in the reign of Mary, when he was made Papal Legate and Archbishop of Canterbury, in the room of Cranmer.

(ii) The persecutions lost to Mary "the hearts of twenty thousand who were rank Papists within twelve months."

**8. The Loss of Calais.**—Philip did not love Mary. She was older than he,—a thin, wizened, sickly little woman, somewhat sour in temper, and not very well adapted to make a man happy. He had married her to suit his father's policy. He stayed with her a year, and then left her never to return,—except for a short visit of a few months, to urge the queen to join him in the war with France. Her consent was easily obtained, but the result was a disaster. It is true that the Spanish troops gained the victory of **St. Quentin**, but the English forces did not arrive till after the battle. Then the French, on their part, succeeded in taking Calais, which had been in our hands for two hundred years.—It was the custom of the English Government to withdraw most of their troops from Calais in autumn, for the sake of economy. The Duke of Guise took advantage of this, and appeared in midwinter before the town. He had marched his army across the frozen swamp; and the town surrendered in eight days. Only one man lost his life in the siege. Guisnes soon followed; and England in 1558 had not an inch of ground in French territory. Mary was struck to the heart. Her husband had deserted her—she had never had his love; she had lost the love of her people, which she once had; and now this last blow finished her. "When I die," she said, "*Calais* will be found written on my heart." And so the sad, weary, broken life went out; and on the 17th of November 1558, she left only a soiled memory and a humiliated country to her people of England. Twenty-four hours after, Cardinal Pole followed her; and with these two departed the last shred of the power of Rome in this country.

**Loss of Calais 1558.**

(i) "The slaughter of St. Quentin was dreadful. The best blood of France flowed like water."

(ii) After the departure of Philip, and the loss of Calais, Mary would sit on the ground, speechless for hours, "with both her knees drawn upward to her chin." Tennyson makes her say:

> "Women, when I am dead,
> Open my heart, and there you will find written
> Two names, Philip and Calais."

(iii) "The last remnant of the continental dominions of the Plantagenets was gone. Measured by substantial value, the loss of Calais was a gain. English princes were never again to lay claim to the Crown of France; and the possession of a fortress on French soil was a perpetual irritation. But Calais was called 'the brightest jewel in the English crown.' A jewel it was, useless, costly, but dearly prized. If Spain should rise suddenly in her ancient strength, and tear Gibraltar from us, our mortifi-

cation would be faint compared to the anguish of humiliated pride with which the loss of Calais distracted the subjects of Queen Mary."—FROUDE.

(iv) The irony of fate brought about two ridiculous events at the close of Mary's reign : (a) Pope Paul IV. removed Cardinal Pole from his post of Legate on the ground of unorthodoxy—and Pole thought himself the most orthodox of Catholics ; (b) Mary had to forbid the landing of the Pope's letters—just as her father Henry did.

**9. Scotland.**—During the last two reigns the foreign policy of Scotland had been a very simple one. It was merely to keep open some cause of annoyance and quarrel with England, and to preserve the closest alliance with France. The country had, from the middle of the fifteenth to the middle of the sixteenth century, been in a perpetual state of turmoil, civil broil, and foreign war ; and it is worthy of notice, that of the five Jameses who in turn wore the crown, four died violent deaths, and two of them by the hands of assassins who were their own countrymen and their own subjects.

(i) Mary, Queen of Scots, at the age of fifteen, married the Dauphin of France, at Paris, on the 24th of April 1558. The Guises tried to have the crown and sceptre of Scotland brought to Paris. On the death of Queen Mary of England, Mary Queen of Scots assumed the title of Queen of England.

(ii) The friends of reform in Scotland entered, in 1557, into a bond or agreement (or *Deed of Union*) to stand by each other, which was called the *First Covenant.* In it they renounced the authority of the Pope, and promised to use the English Bible and the Prayer-Book of Edward VI. The barons who signed it henceforth called themselves *Lords of the Congregation.* The burning of Walter Mill, an aged priest who had adopted the reformed belief, and who was put to death at St. Andrews in 1558, was the first signal for action.

**10. The Work of Parliament.**—Once more the Parliament of England, as in the time of Henry VIII., made itself the mere servant and recorder of the decisions arrived at by the sovereign and her nearest advisers. In 1553—the first year of Queen Mary's reign, all the laws relating to religion that had been passed in Edward VI.'s time, were annulled by a subservient Parliament. In the following year, the whole Parliament—the Lords and Commons of England—went on their knees to Pole, the Cardinal-Legate ; and, after that unprecedented conduct, proceeded to repeal all the statutes that had been passed against the Pope since the twentieth year of Henry VIII. Not a single member of Parliament, however, even dreamt of giving back a single acre of the monastic lands which, by the aid of their predecessors, had been wrested from the religious houses of England.

Next year, in 1555, Parliament passed "an Act for the renewing of three statutes made for the punishment of Heresies;" in other words, they re-enacted the persecuting statutes of Henry IV. and Henry V. against the Lollards. These acts were to "be revived and be in full force, strength, and effect, to all intents, constructions, and purposes, for ever." In spite of all this, the power and influence of the House of Commons seem to have been growing; and the evidence for this is to be found in the "increasing anxiety of the Court to obtain favourable elections."

**11. Great Men.**—The term *great* can hardly be applied with propriety to any of the statesmen or ecclesiastics of Mary's reign. Among the most distinguished men were the four martyred bishops, **Cranmer**, archbishop of Canterbury, **Hooper**, bishop of Gloucester, **Ridley**, bishop of London, and **Latimer**, bishop of Worcester. On the opposite side were **Gardiner**, bishop of Winchester and Lord Chancellor of the realm, and **Bonner**, bishop of London. Gardiner was the ablest and most trusted counsellor of the much distressed Queen Mary. **Sir Thomas Wyatt** was the brave and loyal leader of the revolt in Kent in favour of Elizabeth and in opposition to the Spanish marriage. Against him was **Renard**, the ambassador of Charles V., whose influence was very powerful when Mary was in love with Philip. Last of all comes, perhaps, the greatest of them all, **Cardinal Pole**, the most distinguished English ecclesiastic in Europe, and (as grandson of the Duke of Clarence) a Prince, not only of the church, but of the blood royal.

**12. Social Facts.**—England, during this reign, was not only troubled by religious persecutions, but frequently visited by the Pestilence. Indeed, the Pestilence was never really absent; for the dirty and slovenly habits of the people, the want of fresh air and fresh water, and the general insanitary condition of the houses and towns, presented to it numerous places where it could lurk and brood —always ready to come out and to assume a virulent and epidemic form.—For the first time in the history of England the law took cognisance of the state of the highways; and Parliament passed an Act which placed upon each parish the duty of repairing the roads in it.—During this reign, the debasement of coin had been stopped, and the currency improved; and, with this improvement in the currency,

trade revived and new enterprises were attempted. Thus trade was opened with Persia and Russia; and the "Russia Company" was established and incorporated in 1554. On the other hand, the growth of commerce was to some extent checked by the granting of monopolies, by a tax put upon exported cloths and another tax on imported French wines. These taxes were imposed by Mary's Private Council, without the sanction of Parliament.

Mary and her advisers showed their contempt for the law of the country not only in imposing taxes and customs duties, but in other things also. For example: (a) Jurymen were sent to prison if they returned a verdict against the wish of the Judge. (b) M.P.s were sent to prison for opposing the measures of the Government. (c) Forced loans were levied on wealthy persons.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF MARY'S REIGN.

**1553.** (a) Proclamation of **Queen Jane.**
(b) Execution of Northumberland.
(c) Laws regarding religion of previous reign annulled.

**1554.** (a) **Wyatt's Rebellion.**
(b) Execution of Lady Jane Grey.
(c) Mary marries **Philip**, son of Charles v.
(d) The **Pope** once more the Head of the Church of England.

**1555.** The **Lollard Statutes** revived.

**1556.** (a) **Cranmer** burnt.
(b) Pole, Archbishop of Canterbury.

**1557.** (a) War with France. Battle of St. Quentin.
(b) The **First Covenant** signed at Edinburgh.

**1558.** (a) **Calais taken.**
(b) Death of Mary.
(c) Death of Cardinal Pole.
(d) Mary, Queen of Scots, marries the Dauphin of France.

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1552.** **Treaty of Passau** (on the Danube) secures toleration for Protestants in Germany.

**1555.** The **Religious Peace of Augsburg** confirms this toleration.

**1556.** (a) The Irish Parliament repeals the Act of Supremacy.
(b) Charles v. abdicates.
(c) Ferdinand I. succeeds him in the German Empire.
(d) Philip II. (the husband of Mary) succeeds him in Spain, Naples, and Sicily.

# CHAPTER V.

# ELIZABETH

## Born 1533. Succeeded (at the age of 25) in 1558. Died 1603. Reigned 45 years.

ELIZABETH TUDOR was born at Greenwich on the 7th of September 1533. She was the only child of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. Along with her half-sister Mary, she was declared illegitimate after her father's marriage with Jane Seymour. She was well educated and knew Latin, French, Italian, and she was also skilled in music. She had more than ten offers of marriage ("half the young princes of Europe sought her hand"), her most distinguished suitor being Philip II., the widower of her half-sister Mary, the most favoured the French Duke of Alençon—"a hideous dwarf, with a pock-marked face, a double nose, a yellow skin, whom she used to call her *petite grenouille.*" During Mary's reign, she lived mostly at Hatfield (the residence of the Cecils), studying Greek, Latin, and Italian. She came to the throne in 1558. Her chief difficulty during her reign was the existence of Mary Queen of Scots; the chief event the defeat of the Armada. She found herself obliged, as a matter of policy, to assist the Huguenots in France, and the Protestants in the Netherlands. She died at Richmond in her seventieth year, on the 24th of March 1603.

(a) Mary Queen of Scots, as the great-granddaughter of Henry VII., had a valid title to the throne of England. Had she succeeded when wife of the King of France, she would have united the three crowns of France, England, and Scotland. This prospect alarmed Philip of Spain; and he supported Elizabeth.

(b) The Pope regarded Mary as the legitimate heir; for the marriage of Anne Boleyn, Elizabeth's mother, had never been valid. He wished Elizabeth to submit her claims to the throne to arbitration.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| SCOTLAND. | FRANCE. | SPAIN. |
|---|---|---|
| MARY to 1567. | FRANCIS II. to 1560. | PHILIP II. to 1598. |
| JAMES VI. | CHARLES IX. to 1574. | |
| | HENRY III. to 1589. | PHILIP III. to 1621. |
| | HENRY IV. to 1610. | |

**1. Elizabeth, 1558-1603.**—Elizabeth was only five-and-twenty when she took upon her shoulders the troubles and affairs of the State. She had inherited some portion of her mother's beauty and

her father's fresh complexion ; and she had clear, bright, quick eyes. Her manners were frank, jovial, and hearty—sometimes even coarse ; she would give one courtier a box on the ear, and attack another with the strong and high-flavoured language of a fishwife. She possessed all the self-confidence, the dauntless courage, along with the hardness and cruelty of the Tudor family ; and, while she flirted and coquetted among her courtiers, the moment she took her seat at the Council-table she became as hard and cold as steel—as clear-sighted and strong-willed as the oldest statesman at the board. Indeed, during the forty-five years of her reign, she showed herself in politics a match for every monarch and statesman in Europe. She had an unerring eye for an able man ; and she chose wise and careful advisers, the chief of whom were **William Cecil** (afterwards Lord Burleigh) and **Francis Walsingham.**

(i) **Elizabeth** was at Hatfield when the news of her sister's death and of her own accession was brought to her. She rose, and exclaimed : "This is the Lord's doing ; and it is marvellous in our eyes !" Most of the English Catholics looked upon Elizabeth as illegitimate, and on Mary Queen of Scots as the rightful heir. Only one bishop—the Bishop of Lincoln—could be got to crown her.

(ii) **Cecil** was Treasurer, and **Walsingham** Secretary of State. For forty years Cecil possessed the confidence of the Queen—was "the oracle she consulted on every emergency, and whose answers she generally obeyed." "This judgment I have of you," Elizabeth said to Cecil, "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 my private will you will give me that counsel which you think best."

Cecil was to Queen Elizabeth what Bismarck was to the Emperor William.

(iii) **Walsingham** was not a personal favourite with Elizabeth : "his religious zeal drew him all his life towards Puritanism."

**2. The State of the Country.**—The fortunes of England were at the lowest ebb. The country felt sore and heavy at the loss of Calais, and was suffering under the troubles and misgovernment of the late reign ; while Protestantism, which had always been attacked either with fire or with exile, had nursed itself into a white heat of anger in its far-off home in Geneva. Spain and France were hostile to England ; and Scotland was likewise an open enemy. But Elizabeth gradually carried the country in safety through all these dangers.—The Supremacy of the Crown over the Church was restored ; but Mary's bishops refused to recognise it, and most of them were deposed ; some were put in prison ; Bonner, indeed, for the

rest of his life. An **Act of Uniformity** was passed which forbade the use of any but the second Prayer-book of Edward; and fines were imposed on those who did not go to church on Sundays and holidays. The Lord's Prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, and the Litany were ordered to be said or sung in English. Two parties resisted these measures—the Roman Catholics on the one side, and the extreme Protestants on the other. The Roman Catholics left the country, and were constantly plotting against the Government, some of them even against the life of Elizabeth; the extreme Protestants (or *Puritans*, as they called themselves) took to worshipping in houses or private chapels of their own. A court, called the High Commission Court, was now established to enforce the Act of Uniformity and to bring these Puritans to their senses; it was armed with power to punish with fines and imprisonment heresies, unlicensed preaching, and absence from church.

**Act of Uniformity 1559.**

(i) All the Bishops, with two exceptions, declined to take the Oath of Supremacy to Elizabeth. They were driven from their sees. **Matthew Parker** was made Archbishop of Canterbury. The dispossessed bishops were of course secret enemies of Elizabeth's Government.

(ii) The Pope—Pius IV.—offered to give his sanction to the English Prayer-Book, if his supremacy were recognised. But the middle classes of England were strongly in favour of Protestantism.

(iii) An **Act of Uniformity** ordered that the amended Prayer-book should be used in all the churches; and the fine for not attending church was one shilling—nearly equal to ten shillings at the present time. Edward VI.'s forty-two articles were reduced to thirty-nine.

(iv) The **Puritan Party** objected to the surplice, to kneeling at the sacrament, to the sign of the cross in baptism, the use of the ring in marriage, the government by bishops, the use of organs, etc. etc.

**3. Elizabeth and the Church.**—The young queen, with that instinct for statesmanship which was innate in all the Tudors, took up a middle position between the Catholics and the Protestants. She wished the Church of England to be the Church of the English people. For this reason, the service was to be read in English; and the English translation of the Bible was to be allowed to circulate freely. But Elizabeth was more stern in her resolution to uphold the Act of Supremacy than she was in regard to the Act of Uniformity. It was not until numerous Catholic plots, in connection with Mary Queen of Scots and her succession to the throne of England, com-

pelled her to take severe measures, that we find her employing persecution in favour of religion. Commissioners were from time to time appointed to carry out the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity; and, in the year 1583, the **Court of High Commission**, a tribunal fraught with danger to the liberties of the subject, was made permanent. About half the Commissioners in this Court were clergymen and bishops. Both Catholics and Puritans were persecuted, the former for denying the supremacy of the queen, the latter for disobeying the Act of Uniformity, which weighed heavily on their consciences as private persons.

**High Commission Court made permanent 1583.**

(i) The **Court of High Commission** was dangerous to the liberties of the subject for two reasons: (i) the crime of "heresy" was vague and undefinable; (ii) the mode of taking evidence in this Court was "contrary to all the most simple ideas of justice and equity." Hume says its "jurisdiction was more terrible than that of the Star-Chamber."

(ii) The Romanist Nonconformists were called **Recusants**; the Protestant Sectarians were called **Puritans**. The Romanists "set up the authority of a foreign power as antagonistic to the power of the Queen of England." The Puritans placed the authority of the Bible—that is, of their own interpretation of the Bible—above that of Ecclesiastical Courts. Hence the nonconformity of the Romanists was regarded as a political offence; and they were handed over to the civil power. The Puritans and Sectaries were delivered to the Bishops and the Ecclesiastical Courts.

**4. Foreign Affairs.**—Philip of Spain, who had offered his hand to Elizabeth, was the head of the great Catholic party abroad; France was engaged in a life-and-death struggle with the Huguenots (as the French Protestants called themselves); but the chief danger to Elizabeth seemed to come from the neighbouring kingdom of Scotland. Mary Stuart, as the great-granddaughter of Henry VII., had taken upon herself the style and title of *Queen of England*, and had quartered the English arms with her own. Elizabeth sided with the Protestants abroad; the Netherlanders had gone so far as to offer her their crown; and in 1562 the Prince of Condé, who was the leader of the Huguenots, placed the ports of Havre and La Rochelle in the hands of the English queen. Thus, speaking broadly, Elizabeth became the head of the Protestant cause, and helped it on in France, in the Netherlands, and in Scotland; while Mary became the centre of the hopes of the Catholics—not in Scotland merely, but also in England.

(i) **Mary Queen of Scots** made a formal demand to be acknowledged the successor

of Queen Elizabeth. She therefore determined to ally herself openly with the English Catholic party; and this was her chief motive in marrying **Henry Darnley**, who was "the first Prince of the Blood in England," for he was the direct descendant of Margaret Tudor, the elder of Henry VIII.'s sisters.

(ii) The following is the genealogy of MARY and of **Henry Darnley**:

JAMES IV. *m.* **Margaret Tudor** *m.* Earl of Angus.

JAMES V. *m.* Mary of Guise. **Margaret** *m.* Earl of Lennox.

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS *m.* **Henry Darnley.** Charles Stuart, Earl of Lennox.

JAMES I. **Arabella Stuart.**

(iii) Elizabeth's policy was to keep on good terms with both France and Spain—to play the one off against the other, and not to enter upon any matrimonial alliance that would compel her to take sides.

(iv) Elizabeth, moreover, by siding with the Huguenots of France, could keep the Catholics employed and weak.

**5. Mary Stuart.**—When the death of Francis II. left Mary a widow in France at the age of nineteen, she resolved to leave the French court and to return to her Scottish subjects and her Scottish kingdom. She was already celebrated as the most beautiful woman of her time; and a certain native sweetness and graciousness, heightened by the polish of manner she had gained in the French court, a warmth of affection, gaiety, grace, and generosity combined with her loveliness to form a charm which almost every one who approached her felt to be irresistible. Fascinating and attractive as she was in private life, she was said to be as cool and astute a politician as Elizabeth herself at the Council-board. Many of the English Roman Catholics had already, in the very commencement of Elizabeth's reign, begun to look upon Mary as the rightful queen of England. Soon after her arrival in Scotland, she married Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley. He was her cousin, and, like herself, descended from Margaret Tudor, the sister of Henry the Eighth; for Margaret had married the Earl of Angus for her second husband, and Darnley was her grandson by this marriage. Darnley was a weak, stupid, conceited, and wicked man; and, "fallen sick with vice and misery," he had come, for the sake of medical advice, to stay at a house near Edinburgh, called Kirk o' Field. This house was blown up in the dead of night with

an explosion which shook the whole city; Darnley's body was found next morning dead among the ruins, and it was generally suspected that James Hepburn, the Earl of Bothwell, incited by Mary herself, had committed the crime. A few weeks after Darnley's murder, Bothwell married Mary, and the horror of such a marriage at such a time with such a man turned from her the affections of a large number of her subjects (1567).

(i) In 1560 Queen Elizabeth sent troops to fight along with the Scottish Protestants; and this is therefore the first time in history when the Scotch and English were allies on the field of battle. This year is also memorable for the first *General Assembly* of the Church of Scotland, held in Edinburgh, in which the Protestantism of the period was itself so intolerant as to make the saying of the Catholic Mass a capital crime.

(ii) **Darnley** had earned the dislike and even the hatred of his wife by his share in the murder of her private secretary **Rizzio**. The "Lords of the Congregation," discontented with Mary's favour of Catholicism, fled into England; and Rizzio was Mary's chief means of communication with the great Catholic Powers abroad. Rizzio was dragged from the private sitting-room of the queen, where he sat at supper with her, was stabbed on the landing outside the door; and the banished Lords returned.

(iii) James VI., then a child of one, was crowned in 1567, and then carried back to his nursery. James Stuart, Earl of Murray, who had fled to France, was recalled and made regent. In 1570 he was shot from a house by James Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. He was very popular, and was known after his death as the *Good Regent*. The Earl of Mar succeeded him as regent; and next the Earl of Morton, who showed himself very active in seizing the Church lands, in which he only imitated Lord Burleigh and Elizabeth herself.

Hamilton, who bore a bitter grudge against Murray for a private injury, posted himself in the upper room of a house in Linlithgow, and shot the Regent as he rode through the narrow street. Scott's "Cadzow Castle" tells the story.

**6. Mary Stuart in Prison.**—Mary was thrown into prison in Lochleven Castle, and, while there, she was persuaded to sign an abdication in favour of her infant son, James VI. Escaping from Lochleven, she made for the Castle of Dumbarton, which was then the strongest fortress in the country. She was, however, intercepted at Langside by the troops of her own half-brother, the Earl of Murray, then regent of the kingdom, and she was so hemmed in that it was impossible to decline battle. She lost. Giving up all hopes of Scotland, she turned bridle, galloped without drawing rein as far as the Solway, took boat and crossed that firth, and was safe the same night in the old Castle of "merry Carlisle." This was on the 16th of May 1568. She wrote to Elizabeth, throwing herself on her protection; but Elizabeth did not

**Mary Queen of Scots in England 1568.**

want to have anything to do with her. Nothing could prevent her becoming a centre of plots and conspiracies; she was a standing danger; no power could deprive her of her quality of queen so long as she lived; and to be a centre of intrigues was indeed her unhappy and troubled fate throughout the rest of her life.

From Carlisle Mary wrote to Elizabeth asking her (a) to give assistance in restoring her to the throne of Scotland. The reply was that the charges made against Queen Mary by the Regent Murray and the Scots Lords must first of all be inquired into. (b) Mary next demanded a free passage to France. This was also declined; as it was felt that the French might again interfere in the internal affairs of Scotland.

**7. Plots.**—For more than thirty years Elizabeth was the object of plots and treasons—plots which were hatched in Spain, carried out in England, and attempted even in her own household. The Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland raised a Roman Catholic rebellion in the north; Pope Pius v. issued in 1570 a bull of deposition (in which she was called base-born, an usurper, and a heretic) against Elizabeth, which was fixed upon the house door of the English ambassador at Paris; and an enthusiast, named John Felton, posted a printed copy of this bull on the palace gate of the Bishop of London. Seminarists—that is, English priests who had been educated abroad in Roman Catholic seminaries or colleges—began in 1574 to come over to England in crowds, and to move from place to place, preaching and dispensing the sacraments, but at the same time distributing political news and hatching political plots. In the manor-houses of the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry, secret chambers were constructed for them, known afterwards as "priests' holes," where they often lay hid for years. When taken, they were put to the torture and frequently executed. Nearly two hundred Seminarists suffered death in this way. Philip of Spain was at the same time sending soldiers, and the Pope was sending priests, to Ireland, where a constant civil war was kept up; in 1580, a Jesuit mission to reconvert England was sent over; while Spanish agents were busy brewing new plots against the life of the queen herself.

(i) The Duke of Norfolk wished to marry Mary; Elizabeth threw him into the Tower.

(ii) The Earl of Northumberland was the head of the **Percies**; the Earl of Westmoreland of the **Nevilles**. On the failure of their rising, both lords fled into Scotland.

(iii) A terrible vengeance was taken on the lower classes, over six hundred of whom were put to death. Those of the gentry who had land were also executed, and their estates confiscated.

(iv) As the Pope's bull released all her subjects from their allegiance, and as a union of the Catholic Powers abroad was highly probable, Elizabeth felt that she might be attacked at any time either from within or from without. But, says Lingard, the Catholic historian, "the time was gone by when the thunders of the Vatican could shake the thrones of princes."

(v) **John Felton**, at his execution, declared himself to be a martyr, and spoke of Queen Elizabeth as "the Pretender."

**8. Sir Philip Sidney.**—Philip of Spain was known as early as 1585 to be preparing for an invasion of England; and Elizabeth had made an attempt to give him a check in the Netherlands, where the Earl of Leicester, her chief favourite, was in command of an English army. He met the Spanish forces near Zutphen; and a great Englishman, Sir Philip Sidney—great as a writer, as a soldier, and as a man—lost his life in the battle. As he was carried off the field mortally wounded, he asked for some water to quench the raging thirst which a severe wound always produces. It was brought; and he was just lifting the water to his lips when his glance fell on a dying soldier, who was eyeing the water with eager, wistful, and thirsty looks. "Thy need is yet greater than mine," said Sidney, and passed the water untasted to his dying comrade. Such acts of self-denial have made the names of English soldiers and sailors illustrious in every land.

**Death of Sir Philip Sidney 1586.**

(i) The **Netherlands** were used by Elizabeth "as a bridle of Spain to keep war out of our own gate." The Netherlanders offered to make her Queen of the States; but she declined. But she accepted the position of **Protector**; and it was in this character that she sent over troops under Leicester.

(ii) But, all this time, Elizabeth was secretly negotiating with the Spaniards; and she was merely using the Netherlands to serve her own interests and her own ends.

**9. The Execution of Mary, 1587.**—While these things were going on in the Netherlands, some zealous Romanists at home began to plot for the assassination of the queen; and Anthony Babington, a gentleman of fortune, seems to have been the main ringleader in this conspiracy. The plot was discovered by Walsingham; and some of the conspirators, when put to the torture, mentioned the name of Mary. She was accordingly charged as an accessory, and tried under an Act of Parliament which had been passed in 1585 to bring to justice all persons concerned in plots against the Crown. Commissioners were sent down to Fotheringay Castle to sit upon the trial. After hearing evidence and the statements of the queen in her own

defence, they returned to London, and there in the Star-Chamber brought in a verdict declaring Mary Stuart "guilty of having compassed and imagined the death of the queen." Parliament met soon after, and sent up to Elizabeth a petition that Mary should be executed in accordance with this verdict; but Elizabeth seemed to be extremely reluctant, though she at last confirmed the decision of the Commission. The joy in London, which had always been a very Protestant city, was extreme; the mob marched through the streets hurrahing, shouting, "making bonfires, and singing psalms in every street and lane in the city;" and steeple rang out to steeple the news of the condemnation of the Scottish Queen. Elizabeth did not, however, actually sign the warrant till the 11th of February 1587; and on the 18th Mary was beheaded in the hall of Fotheringay Castle. She died at the age of forty-four. Though her face still retained its exquisite form, her hair was as white as snow with anxiety and grief; but she died with a calm courage and dignity, which through all her unhappy and mistaken life had never left her. She had set aside her own son, because he was a Protestant, from the succession to her rights on the crown of England; and she had sent word in 1586 to Philip of Spain that she had chosen *him* as her heir.

**Execution of Mary Queen of Scots 1587.**

(i) The letters of the conspirators were hidden in beer barrels carried in for the use of Queen Mary's household; but Walsingham was able to obtain a copy of each letter.

(ii) The conflicting motives and emotions that disturbed the mind of Elizabeth and drew her in different directions are well described by Spenser (in the *Faerie Queene*, B. v. Canto ix.):

> But then for her, on the contrary part,
> Rose many advocates for her to plead;
> First there came Pity, with full tender heart,
> And with her joined Regard of womanhede;
> And then came Danger, threatening hidden dread,
> And high alliance unto foreign power;
> Then came Nobility of birth, that bred
> Great ruth thro' her misfortune's tragic stowre,
> And lastly Grief did plead, and many tears forth powre.

(iii) "Mary was for years the terror of England. Her destruction was 'the Great Cause' to which the highest and the humblest in the land looked as a relief. If her death was a crime, it was a national crime."—KNIGHT.

**10. The Invincible Armada, 1588.**—Philip of Spain was at once the most powerful monarch and the hardest working statesman in the whole of Europe; and he was also the great support and mainstay of

Catholicism. By his aid Italy and Spain lay bound in the hands of the Inquisition, and the Netherlanders lived in daily terror of the rack, the sword, and the stake. To break down the power of England, which, under Elizabeth, was the leader of the Protestant cause in Europe, now became his sole aim—the one subject of his thoughts and wishes day and night. The Catholic world expected it of him; and he made up his mind to spend every doubloon[1] in his treasury (though "Spain had become the poorest country in Europe, and her people the most heavily taxed people in the world"), and every drop of blood in his army to satisfy this expectation. For three years did he work hard, hoarding money, mustering soldiers, and collecting ships from every port on the Spanish coast. The mighty fleet, called by Philip himself *The Invincible Armada*, at last assembled in the Tagus.—Meanwhile the English were not idle. The nation rose as one man—Catholic and Protestant stood shoulder to shoulder, and in the same ship pulled at one rope. The nation, too, had been in training for a great sea-fight. Francis Drake, a Devonshire man, had made himself a name and a terror to the Spaniards, by cutting out and waylaying their treasure-ships, as they came laden with gold and silver from the mines of the New World, and had been the first man to go round the world in one voyage. Hawkins[2] and Raleigh, both Devonshire men, had also distinguished themselves as explorers, fighters, and sailors. Martin Frobisher and John Davis had both tried to discover the famous North-West passage; and though they had not succeeded, they had given their names to the great straits which lie to the west of Greenland. It was under men such as these that English sailors were trained, and that the foundation of our present Empire of the Seas was laid.

(i) Mary Queen of Scots had made Philip her heir; and he now laid claim to the succession to the Crown of England.

(ii) The full title of the **Armada** was the "Most Fortunate and Invincible Armada." *Armada* (Spanish form of the Latin *armata*) means simply *armed power*.

(iii)

A Spanish fleet affront our English shores!
It must not be; it shall not! Sink or swim
Our cause, our lamp of hope burn bright or dim,—
Long as o'er English cliff the osprey soars,
Long as on English coasts the breaker roars,
No threatening flag shall scale our blue sea-rim,
No smoke from Spanish guns our skies bedim,
No foot from Parma stain our household floors!—DE VERE.

[1] A Spanish gold coin, worth about 66*s*.

[2] But to Hawkins belongs the discredit of having been the man who began the slave-trade between Africa and America.

**11. The Coming of the Armada.**—On the 29th of May 1588, the Armada set sail with the blessing of the Pope and a consecrated banner; on the 19th of July the topmasts of the Spanish ships were descried from Lizard Point, and the English beacons upon every hill along the coast flared out the news from Cornwall to Kent. The Armada consisted of 129 ships of war of a size never before seen, with an army of 22,000 men and 2360 brass cannon on board to conquer England, and another army of 180 priests and monks to convert England. As apparatus and machinery for this latter task they brought with them whips, chains, thumbscrews, and those other instruments of torture and persecution which the Inquisition had found so useful in the Netherlands. The Armada came on up the Channel in a majestic and splendid crescent.—The royal Navy of England then consisted of only thirty-six sail, and these of a size not much larger than a modern yacht; but cities and towns, nobles and merchants, ladies and private citizens vied with each other in self-sacrifice, gave up their money and jewels, fitted out vessels at their own expense, and joined in the purchase of cannon and ammunition. London sent double the number of ships and men asked of it; and very soon a fleet of 191 ships—small but active, and filled with daring sailors—covered the waters and patrolled the expanse of the Channel. The Armada was making for the city of Dunkirk, where it was to take on board the grand army of the Duke of Parma, which had marched from the Netherlands to meet it.

(i) The largest ship in the whole English fleet was the *Triumph*—a vessel of only one thousand tons. Lord **Howard of Effingham** was Admiral in chief command.

(ii) Of the Spanish fleet, 65 were large galleons, with enormous castle-like buildings both in bow and stern; and 4 great galleasses, each rowed by 300 slaves.

**12. The Rout of the Armada.**—Slowly but grandly, and it seemed with irresistible power, the Spanish fleet moved in unbroken order up the Channel. But the little English vessels sailed two feet for the Spaniards' one, and fired four shots for the Spaniards' one. The Spaniards were poor seamen and bad gunners, and their shot passed clean over the English ships; and so, closing in and drawing off, now steering boldly in and pouring shot into the enemy's stern, now playing at long bowls from a distance, the English kept up a running fight for a whole week, until at length the Armada cast

anchor in the roads of Calais. Now, in the dead of night, Howard sent eight fire-ships among them; and the Spaniards, struck with panic, hove anchors or cut their cables and stood to sea. At last had come the chance for the English vessels. Three or four closed round each mighty man-of-war, and they poured shot into these unwieldy floating castles until the Spaniard struck or sank. Many of the crowded galleons "had become mere slaughter-houses." The wind was blowing right up the Channel: they could not return by the way they came, and no road was left open to them but to go round by the Orkney Islands. In these northern seas their huge high-built ships met the full fury of the northern blasts. Only fifty-three vessels, creeping painfully home with shattered yards and broken rigging, reached Corunna, their sailors half dead with over-work and want of food; and the shores of the Orkneys, the Hebrides, and Ireland were strewn thick with fragments of ships, with mast and plank, with dead bodies of soldier and sailor. In one cove near Sligo 1100 Spanish corpses were cast up by the sea.—And so the power and the pride of the mighty Spaniard were broken; so ended the greatest danger to the liberty of England and of Europe that had ever been plotted against any nation by foreign prince.

(i) "The English ships, being far the lesser, charged the enemy with marvellous agility; and, having discharged their broadsides, flew forth furiously into the deep, and levelled their shot directly, without missing, at these great ships of the Spaniards." "The feathers of the Armada were plucked one by one."

(ii) When the fire-ships drifted among the Spanish vessels, "some cut their cables, others let the hawsers slip, and happiest they who could first be gone, though few could tell what course to take."

(iii) Philip was not depressed by the terrible disaster, and by the loss of nearly eighty ships: he said he would go on and try again and again, even if it should come to selling the silver candlesticks that stood upon his table.

(iv) The expedition to Cadiz, under Lord Howard and the Earl of Essex, which inflicted on the Spaniards a loss of four millions sterling, is described by Macaulay as "the most brilliant military exploit that was achieved on the Continent by English arms during the long interval that elapsed between the Battle of Agincourt and the Battle of Blenheim." It took place, after the defeat of the Armada, in 1596.

**13. The Earl of Essex.**—Queen Elizabeth had, in spite of her coldness and calculating power at the Council-board, always had her favourites at court. The Earl of Leicester, who had long been first favourite, died in the midst of the national rejoicing for the great

victory; and Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, soon filled his place in the favour of the Queen. Essex had as a young man shown dauntless courage and immovable presence of mind at the taking of Cadiz; but he was far from being strong enough and wise enough to fill the difficult post of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. To that country, however, he was sent, with the immediate purpose of breaking the power of the rebellious Earl of Tyrone. Instead of subduing the Irish chieftain, however, he made peace with him. A reprimand was sent out. Essex took alarm, conceived the idea that his rivals were undermining him, left his post without leave, and, presuming on the queen's personal fondness for him, suddenly presented himself before Elizabeth. Instead of being affectionately welcomed, he was at once thrown into prison. Before long, however, he was set at liberty; and he lost no time in trying to rouse the Londoners to revolt. The discontented of all classes flocked to his standard; but he was quickly beaten by the Government troops, thrown into the Tower, tried, condemned, and beheaded at the age of thirty-four. This was in 1601.

**Execution of Essex 1601.**

(i) "On the 28th of September, about ten o'clock in the morning, my Lord of Essex lighted at the court-gate in post, and made all haste up to the presence, and so to the privy chamber, and stayed not till he came to the queen's bed-chamber, where he found the queen newly up, with her hair about her face: he kneeled unto her, kissed her hands, and had some private speech with her, which seemed to give him great contentment; for, when he came from her Majesty, he was very pleasant, and thanked God, though he had suffered much trouble and storms abroad, he found a sweet calm at home. 'Tis much wondered at here, that he went so boldly to her Majesty's presence, she not being ready, and he so full of dirt and mire, that his very face was full of it."

(ii) Essex was executed in private.

**14. The Elizabethan Literature.**—The steady triumph which the policy of Elizabeth and her ministers achieved gave to the nation a peace and a settled quiet under which all kinds of industry, commerce, enterprise, and thought prospered and grew in daily strength. England had become a quiet and happy country, and the "merry songs of peace" were heard in every hamlet and every village. The imagination of Englishmen had also been fired and exalted by the great expeditions and voyages undertaken by Drake and Hawkins and Frobisher; and tales of new countries and new races constantly whetted the keen appetite for wonders. Ever new worlds of fact

and of fancy appeared to dawn upon the wondering thoughts of the people; and it was at this time that English poetry reached the highest point it has ever touched in the history of the nation. Indeed, the literature of Elizabeth's time is unequalled; and there never came together so splendid a galaxy[1] of great writers as that which shone in London in the year 1590. In that year were met in London, Spenser, Chapman, Drayton, Shakespeare, Bacon, Raleigh, Ben Jonson, Marlowe, and other men nearly as great. Of these men Shakespeare was the greatest, and the form of literature which he brought to a height it never came near before, or has come near since, was the dramatic. The greatest narrative poet was Spenser; the greatest prose writer was Hooker; and the greatest philosopher, Lord Bacon. So wonderful a blossoming and fertility of mental power had hardly ever been seen in the history of the world, and never in the history of England; and much of it was due to the settled order produced by the government of Elizabeth. Shakespeare makes one of his characters prophesy of her—

> "In her days every man shall eat in safety
> Under his own vines what he plants, and sing
> The merry songs of peace to all his neighbours."

And the prophecy came true.

England became "a nest of singing birds."

**15. Death of Elizabeth.**—As the queen grew older, her friends and counsellors were taken away by death; a new generation was growing up that had never known, except from hearsay, the triumphs of her youth; and England had become more serious, more moral, more Protestant, and perhaps more prosaic. Elizabeth, for her part, was as young and gay as ever. At the age of sixty-seven she flirted and danced and frolicked with her courtiers with as much sprightliness and as much apparent vigour as at thirty. She was more greedy of compliments than ever; but her face was drawn and wrinkled, and her figure had wasted down almost to a skeleton. The execution of the Earl of Essex sank into her heart, and she never quite got over it. At last, in the beginning of the year 1603, she grew seriously ill, and the weakness of old age could not throw off the illness. She who had never feared threat or plot, king or kaiser,

[1] Literally, *milky way*; but applied metaphorically to any assemblage of *stars* in literature, art, or science. Compare the use of the word *archipelago*.

was now filled with the hourly dread of an invisible assassin. She lay upon the floor, propped up with pillows, by her side a sword, which from time to time she thrust through the arras;[1] day and night she hardly moved or changed her position, never looked up, never spoke a word. She refused to name her successor. If her counsellors hinted the need of this, she flashed out upon them, and said it was like "pinning her shroud round her face." All the reply they got from her was, "Who should succeed me but a king?" and the only possible meaning of this was, James the Sixth of Scotland. In the end of March she lay dying in her palace of Richmond; and Sir Robert Carey, booted and spurred, sat in a neighbouring room, with his horse ready saddled, to carry to Scotland the news of her death. At two o'clock in the morning of the 24th of March 1603, a light in a certain window in the palace was put out: this was the signal. Carey galloped off; and, riding day and night, he reached Edinburgh on the 27th, and bent the knee to James as the new king of England. Cecil had James I. at once proclaimed in every town in the country.

**Death of Elizabeth 1603.**

> "Death crept on. Her face became haggard, and her frame shrank almost to a skeleton. At last her taste for finery disappeared, and she refused to change her dresses for a week together. . . . Gradually her mind gave way. She lost her memory; the violence of her temper became unbearable; her very courage seemed to forsake her. . . . Food and rest became alike distasteful. She sat night and day propped up with pillows on a stool, her finger on her lip, her eyes fixed on the floor, without a word. . . . Cecil asserted that she 'must' go to bed, and the word roused her like a trumpet. 'Must!' she exclaimed, 'is *must* a word to be addressed to princes? Little man, little man, thy father, if he had been alive, durst not have used that word.' Then, as her anger spent itself, she sank into her old dejection. 'Thou art so presumptuous,' she said, 'because thou knowest I shall die.'"—GREEN.

**16. The Character of Elizabeth.**—The chief external characteristic of Elizabeth was personal vanity and fondness for show. Her young courtiers humoured this, and bowed their way up to her with their hands shading their eyes, as if they were dazzled to look upon that "divine beauty." She wore the bravest dresses; she had a new one almost every week, and she left behind her three thousand rich dresses in her wardrobe. At court and on a journey she blazed with jewels, and she was never tired of processions and public progresses. —On the other hand, it cannot be denied that she loved her country. Speaking to her first Parliament, she told them in earnest and burning words, such as are not often found in royal speeches: "Nothing —no worldly thing under the sun—is so dear to me as the love and

[1] The embroidered hangings round the room. The name comes from the town of *Arras*, in French Flanders.

goodwill of my subjects!" And she roused the blood of her fighting men at Tilbury with sentences that thrilled through them like the piercing notes of a trumpet: "I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman; but I have the heart of a king, and a king of England too." She was thrifty even to parsimony; she was without fear, without love, and without hate; she knew the temper and feeling of the country better than any of her statesmen; she made England a great continental power; she made London the mart of the world; and her self-confidence, courage, and power of insight never forsook her.

**Elizabeth** died in the 70th year of her age, and the 45th of her reign.

**17. The Work of Parliament.**—Elizabeth's Parliament of 1559 passed the **Act of Supremacy**, with certain penalties attached; and thus placed all jurisdiction over ecclesiastical matters in the hands of the Crown. In the same year was passed the **Act of Uniformity**, which established the Revised Prayer-Book, appointed it to be read in all churches, and punished with fines and imprisonment those who refused. In the year 1562, the Pope issued an order forbidding the presence of all good Catholics at the new worship which had been introduced into the Church of England. Parliament replied by imposing the Oath of Supremacy on all members of the House of Commons; and this measure had the unhappy effect of excluding from that House all conscientious Catholics. In the year 1570 Pope Pius v. had issued a bill to release all the subjects of Elizabeth from their allegiance to her; and, in 1571, Parliament passed an Act against the introduction of papal bulls into the country. By the year 1593, the country had begun to be disturbed by the activity of the Puritans on the one side and of the Romanists on the other; and Parliament passed severe Acts, with penalties attached, against both parties. In 1601, two years before the death of Elizabeth, Parliament laid before the queen the strongest representations against monopolies; and Elizabeth, after considering them along with her advisers, was persuaded to consent to their abolition. In the same year, the first regular **Poor-Law** passed in England was enacted; and this Act empowered the Overseers of the Poor to levy rates on the land for the purpose of finding work for the poor and indigent, and also of maintaining those who were not strong enough to labour. It will be seen

from this short account that most of the work of Elizabeth's Parliaments related to ecclesiastical matters. Elizabeth, though strongly averse to Parliaments, was, like other English sovereigns, compelled now and then to call them for the purpose of procuring subsidies; and the House of Commons was vigorous enough to use these opportunities as a means of gaining new rights and privileges. The two chief rights which the House of Commons extorted were (a) freedom of its members from arrest, and (b) freedom of speech on all important matters of State.

(i) The first Statute of the Session of 1571 made it treason to say that the Queen ought not to possess the crown, or to affirm that she was a heretic, schismatic, tyrant, etc. Another statute enacted that the publishing of a papal bull should be accounted high treason; and that the introduction into the kingdom of crosses, beads, pictures, etc., should be regarded as an infringement of the Act of Praemunire.

(ii) Mr. Secretary Cecil (the son of Lord Burleigh) spoke thus to the House of Commons:—"And because you may eat your meat more savoury than you have done, every man shall have salt as good and cheap as he can buy it or make it, freely without danger of that patent which shall be presently revoked. The same benefit shall they have which have cold stomachs, for aquavitae and the like. And they that have weak stomachs, for their satisfaction, shall have vinegar and alegar, and the like, set at liberty. Train-oil shall go the same way; oil of blubber shall march in equal rank; brushes and bottles endure the like judgment." Monopolies and "patents" had also been given for starch, leather, cards, glass—and, indeed, for almost everything purchaseable.

(a) The word *danger* comes from the Low Latin word *dominium*, absolute authority or complete lordship. Shakespeare, in the *Merchant of Venice*, uses it in the same sense, when he makes Portia say to Antonio, "You stand within his (Shylock's) danger, do you not?"

(b) *Alegar*=vinegar, made from sour ale. So *vinegar*=*vin aigre*, sour wine.

**18. Great Men.**—The age of Elizabeth was fertile in great men in every department of human thought and action. England had never before seen a time so fruitful in great events, great actions, great books, and great men. The two most distinguished statesmen of the age were **William Cecil**, Lord Burleigh (who was succeeded by his son **Robert Cecil**, Earl of Salisbury), and **Sir Francis Walsingham**. The two most prominent men in the Church were **Parker** and **Grindal**, both of them Archbishops of Canterbury. In naval and exploring expeditions, the names of **Lord Howard** of Effingham, of **Sir Francis Drake**, of **Sir John Hawkins**, and of **Sir Humphrey Gilbert** stand out above the rest; while **Sir Walter Raleigh** unites in his own person the high qualities of explorer, poet, historian, and statesman. Among men who rose to high positions by their social powers and their

personal influence with the Queen were—in the first part of her reign, **Robert Dudley**, Earl of Leicester; and in the second part, **Robert Devereux**, Earl of Essex.

**19. Commerce.**—The settled peace which Elizabeth and her advisers were able to give to England enabled commerce to make long and rapid strides. An enormous impetus was given to ship-building. The daring sailors—mostly Devonshire men—who carried the flag of England into every sea, not only made us acquainted with new countries, but opened up new markets for the growing trade of England. Sir John Hawkins opened up a trade with the west coast of Africa in 1562; though this trade was at first chiefly in negroes. The London Royal Exchange, built at the expense of Sir Thomas Gresham, was opened by the Queen in person in the year 1571. Trade was begun with Turkey in 1583. A company of London merchants received a charter for exclusive trade with the East Indies, and took the title of the **East India Company**.—The world was, during this reign, three times circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake; and many discoveries were made by other brave sailors, such as Hawkins, Davis, and Frobisher.—Against all this activity in navigation and commerce must be set the prevalence of **monopolies**, which impeded commerce and manufactures in almost every department and every kind of raw material.

**Frobisher's Straits** were discovered by Sir Martin Frobisher in 1587; and **Davis Straits** by John Davis in the same year.

**20. Social Facts.**—The country was very prosperous during the reign of Elizabeth; and the standard of comfort and health, both in dwellings and in food, had greatly risen everywhere. The Elizabethan manor-house of the country squire was beautiful as well as comfortable; it had its hall and buttery, its dining-room and parlour, its great kitchen, its chapel, and its smoking-room. It was surrounded with a moat; and it possessed a flower-garden as well as a kitchen-garden.—Agriculture improved greatly; and one acre, under the better agricultural methods, now produced as much as two acres in any previous reign.—The manufacture of woollens flourished exceedingly; and Norwich became the centre of this manufacture.

(i) The Elizabethan manor-house had two projecting wings and a central part; and the letter E is said to have suggested its form.

(ii) Pocket-watches were introduced in 1577; and coaches in 1580.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF ELIZABETH'S REIGN.

1558. **Accession of Elizabeth.**

1559. **Act of Supremacy.**
**Act of Uniformity.**

1568. **Mary, Queen of Scots, flees to England.**

1569. **Northern Insurrection** in favour of Catholicism and Mary.

1570. Pope Pius v.'s Bull releasing Englishmen from allegiance to Elizabeth.

1575. Elizabeth offered the sovereignty of the Netherlands.

1585. Treaty between Elizabeth and the Netherlands.

1586. **Trial of Mary Queen of Scots.**

1587. **Execution of Mary.**

Pope Sixtus v. proclaims a Crusade against Elizabeth.

1588. **THE INVINCIBLE ARMADA.**
Death of Leicester.

1590. Death of Walsingham.

1591. Expedition to help Henry iv. of France.

1592. Second Expedition in aid of Henry iv.

1596. Taking of Cadiz by Howard and Essex.

1598. **Death of Burleigh.**

1600. **East India Company** receives a Charter.

1601. **Execution of Essex.**
Abolition of Monopolies.

First regular **Poor-Law.**

1603. **Death of Elizabeth.**

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

1559. Return of **John Knox** to Scotland from Geneva.

1561. Return of **Mary Queen of Scots** to Scotland.

1566. Birth of **James VI.** (I. of England).

1567. Abdication of Mary Queen of Scots.

1568. Insurrection of the Netherlands against Spain.

1572. **Massacre of St. Bartholomew,** or "the Paris Matins."

1576. **Henry of Navarre** (afterwards Henry iv. of France) takes the lead of the French Protestants.

1579. **Desmond's Rebellion** in Munster.

1584. Assassination of **William of Orange.**

1590. **Battle of Ivry.** The Catholic League defeated by Henry iv.

1592. Establishment in Scotland of **The Presbyterian Church.**

1598. **Edict of Nantes.**

# PLAN OF DATES

# SIXTEENTH CENTURY

# ENGLAND IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

## (WITH THE AGE OF ELIZABETH).

**1. Introductory.**—The Tudor Period was in almost every sense—political, social, intellectual, and geographical—**the Age of New Things.** The Revival of Learning, the Invention of the Printing Press, the Discovery of the New World, the Rise of Commerce, the Foundation of our Colonial Empire—all these gave a stimulus to the feelings and thoughts of Englishmen such as history can show no other record of. England, moreover, was becoming a new England by the immense political changes that were taking place. The old feudal nobility was gone; the old castles were no longer defensible—gunpowder had made the bow and arrow useless; the government was centralised in the hands of the King and his council, for the King had the only park of artillery in the kingdom; trade and commerce took rapid strides, and with them rose a new, important, wealthy, thoughtful, and vigorous middle-class.

**2. Land.**—The great change in regard to the land was the system of **Enclosures.** The chief source of wealth for England in this century was the growth of wool and the weaving of cloth; and the landowners found it better to substitute pasturage for tillage, to feed sheep rather than to grow corn. Hence they enclosed large breadths of land, and fewer ploughmen and labourers were required. The land was "decayed of people;" houses, villages, and towns were pulled down; and, where two hundred labourers used to be in regular employment, two or three herdsmen were found to be sufficient. It was in vain that Parliament strove to put a stop to the destruction of houses and the enclosure of land. In 1535, an Act was passed which forbade any one person to keep more than 2000 sheep; but the temptation to make money by the sale of wool was too powerful for most. A large number of labourers thrown idle and prevented from earning an honest living—this was seen; what was not seen was the large number of manufacturers, retailers, and merchants who prospered by the growth of wool in the great towns and cities. In time the difficulty righted itself; and England grew a proper proportion of grain to wool

# THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

| A.D. 1500 | 1501 | 1502 | 1503 | 1504 | 1505 | 1506 | 1507 | 1508 | 1509 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Marriage of Arthur, Prince of Wales, with Katharine of Arragon. | Death of Prince Arthur. The Princess Margaret marries James IV. of Scotland. | Treaty of Perpetual Peace with Scotland. | | | | | | Death of Henry VII. HENRY VIII. Henry marries Katharine of Arragon. |

| 1510 Empson and Dudley executed. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1511 | 1512 | 1513 Battle of Flodden. |
| 1514 | 1515 Wolsey Lord Chancellor. | 1516 |
| 1517 REFORMATION IN GERMANY. | 1518 Wolsey Papal Legate. | 1519 |

| 1520 Field of the Cloth of Gold. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1521 Henry made "Defender of the Faith." | 1522 | 1523 |
| 1524 | 1525 | 1526 |
| 1527 | 1528 | 1529 Fall of Wolsey. More Chancellor. |

| 1530 Death of Wolsey. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1531 Henry Head of the Church. | 1532 Annates abolished. | 1533 Henry marries Anne Boleyn. Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury. |
| 1534 Act abolishing the authority of the Pope. Act of Supremacy | 1535 | 1536 Union of England and Wales. The Pilgrimage of Grace. |
| 1537 Edward VI. born. | 1538 | 1539 Thomas Becket's bones burned. Larger Monasteries suppressed. |

| 1540 Cromwell executed. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1541 | 1542 Henry king of Ireland. Mary Stuart born. | 1543 |
| 1544 | 1545 | 1546 Cardinal Beaton assassinated. |
| 1547 Death of Henry VIII. EDWARD VI. Somerset Protector. | 1548 | 1549 First Prayer-Book. Warwick Protector. |

| 1550 | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1551 | 1552 Execution of Somerset. Second Prayer-Book. | 1553 Death of Edward VI. MARY. Execution of Northumberland. |
| 1554 Wyatt's Rebellion. Execution of Lady Jane. Mary marries Philip of Spain. | 1555 Persecutions of Protestants. | 1556 Cranmer burnt. Pole Archbishop of Canterbury. |
| 1557 Battle of St. Quentin. The First Covenant signed at Edinburgh. | 1558 Calais taken. Death of Mary. ELIZABETH. | 1559 Act of Supremacy. Act of Uniformity. |

| 1560 | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1561 Mary Stuart returns to Scotland. | 1562 | 1563 The Thirty-Nine Articles ratified. |
| 1564 Shakespeare born. | 1565 Mary Stuart marries H. Darnley. | 1566 Birth of James VI. (I. of England.) |
| 1567 Murder of Darnley. | 1568 Mary Queen of Scots flees to England. | 1569 Northern Insurrection of Catholics. |

| 1570 Pope Pius's Bull releasing Englishmen from their allegiance. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1571 | 1572 Massacre of St. Bartholomew. | 1573 |
| 1574 Villenage abolished in the Royal Manors. | 1575 Elizabeth offered the sovereignty of the Netherlands. | 1576 |
| 1577 Drake begins his voyage round the World. | 1578 | 1579 Desmond's Rebellion in Munster. |

| 1580 | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1581 | 1582 Edinburgh University founded. | 1583 |
| 1584 | 1585 Treaty with the Netherlands. | 1586 Trial of Mary Queen of Scots. |
| 1587 Execution of Mary. Pope Sixtus V. proclaims a Crusade against Elizabeth. | 1588 THE INVINCIBLE ARMADA. Death of Leicester. | 1589 |

| 1590 Death of Walsingham. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1591 | 1592 The Presbyterian Church established in Scotland. | 1593 Act to compel attendance at the Church of England. |
| 1594 | 1595 | 1596 Taking of Cadiz by Howard and Essex. |
| 1597 | 1598 Death of Burleigh. | 1599 Essex Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. |

By permission of D. Bremner, Esq., Q.C.

(i) Sir Thomas More writes ironically: "Your sheep, that were wont to be so meek and tame, and so small eaters,—now, as I say, be become so great devourers, and so wild, that they eat up and swallow down the very men themselves. They consume, destroy, and devour whole fields, houses, and cities."

(ii) "They enclose all into pasture; they throw down houses; they pluck down towns, and leave nothing standing, but only the church, to be made a sheep-house."

**3. Population.**—The population of England at the beginning of the sixteenth century was probably about four millions. At the end of the century it was about five millions—or considerably less than the population of London and its suburbs at the present day.

**4. Houses.**—With the centralised power of the Tudor kings, strong castles were no longer built by barons for war or for defence; but in their stead rose handsome brick or stone mansions, with quaint gables, pleasant bay-windows, decorated chimneys, and beautiful terraces in front. The English manor-house is typical of the gentry of England. "The house," says Sir Philip Sidney of his own Kentish seat at Penshurst, "was built of fair and strong stone, not affecting so much any extraordinary kind of fineness, as an honourable representing of a firm stateliness." Glass was now cheap; and the windows were numerous, and fair and large. Inside, the receiving rooms or "chambers of presence," were hung with rich tapestry, or wainscoted with carven oak; the hall was no longer used to dine in, but had become a mere entrance to the house; and the private rooms were distributed into "My lord's side" and "My lady's side."—The yeoman's house was built of wood; and here too, many comforts had entered. No longer a pallet of straw and a log of wood for a pillow; but feather-beds and soft pillows and blankets had become usual. The old English love of flowers was manifest everywhere—both inside and outside: the floors were on occasions strewn with sweet herbs, the bedrooms smelt of lavender; while roses, pinks, columbines, hollyhocks, sweet-william, and other flowers surrounded the house.

(i) "The floors of the earlier part of the 16th century were mostly of clay, and strewed with rushes. Fresh rushes are periodically laid over them; but the old ones remain for, perhaps, twenty years together."

(ii) "Our fathers, and we ourselves, have lain full oft upon straw pallets, or rough mats, covered only with a sheet, and a good round log under the head for bolster. If it were so that our fathers, or the goodman of the house, had within seven years after his marriage purchased a mattress or flock-bed, and therewith a sack of chaff to rest his head on, he thought himself to be as well lodged as the lord of the town."—HARRISON.

**5. Manners and Customs.**—The increasing wealth of the country brought with it an increase of comfort, luxury, and enjoyment. The dinner-hour for the majority of people was eleven; and supper

was at seven o'clock. At feasts and on holidays, at Whitsuntide and Yule-tide, the spirit of revelry entered into all; and an enormous amount of eating and drinking was got through. At bridals and at christening feasts each guest brought with him his own provisions; and all the host was expected to provide was bread and ale and dancing room. The ale was home-brewed; and it was only in the houses of the rich that wine was drunk. With the change from tillage to pasturage, beef and mutton became cheap; and the farmer and yeoman fed on salt-beef and roast mutton, which they washed down with potent ale. The rich ate wheaten, and the poor barley, bread; and puddings with spices, almonds, and currants from the East came into vogue in Queen Elizabeth's time.—In dress the people, influenced by the example of Queen Elizabeth herself, began to be very extravagant. Wreaths of gold and jewels in the hair, which was fixed on small bolsters, rings of precious stones in the ears, great cambric ruffs round the neck, "smeared in the devil's liquor, starch," velvet hats, immense farthingales or hooped petticoats, stomachers blazing with jewels—such were some of the features of the dress of high-born or wealthy ladies. And even the yeoman's daughter and the cottager's daughter "will not stick to flaunt it out in such gowns, petticoats, and kirtles as these." The men were not less brave in their apparel. Italian cloaks, Spanish mantles, French caps, and Scotch daggers formed the fashionable outfit for men in the times of the Tudors.

(i) In 1508, a calf cost 2s. 6d.; a sheep 1s.; and a round of beef 9d. The skilled artificer had 6d. a day; and the labourer 3d. to 3½d.

(ii) "There is no small innkeeper, however poor and humble he may be, who does not serve his table with silver dishes and drinking-cups."

(iii) "The Duke of Buckingham wore at the marriage of Prince Arthur, in 1501, a 'gown wrought of needlework and set upon cloth of tissue furred with sables, the which gown was valued at £1500'—at least £15,000 of our money."

"I think," says Portia in "The Merchant of Venice," of her English guest, "he bought his doublet in Italy, his round hose in France, his bonnet in Germany, and his behaviour everywhere."

(iv) "The farmer of the sixteenth century pursued many trades in his little homestead. He had eels in his stew, and bees in his garden. He grew his own hops and made his own malt. He raised his own hemp and twisted his own cart-ropes. His flax was cleaned and spun at home. Some of his wool he sold to the webster, and some kept the spindles moving on his kitchen floor. He sawed out his own timber. He made his own mud-walls round his cattle-yard. He was his own farrier. He killed his sheep or his calf without the aid of the butcher. He made his own candles and his own charcoal. He cultivated herbs for physic, which his wife dried or distilled. His cheese was manufactured in his own press."—KNIGHT.

*Stew* was a fish-pond, for keeping fish alive till they were wanted for cooking. The word is connected with *stow* a place, and *stow* (away), to put in a place.

*Webster* is the old feminine of *weaver*. It afterwards came to include weavers of both sexes.

**6. Trade.**—The two chief manufactures of England during the Tudor Period were the weaving of cloth and the tanning of leather; and cloth and leather were the two largest exports from the country. The chief export in the fifteenth century was wool; in the sixteenth it was cloth. The first great impulse to trade was given by the commercial treaty of 1496—a treaty with the Netherlands called the **Magnus Intercursus** (The Great Intercourse), by which Henry VII. secured for the merchants of both countries what was practically free trade. This trade was conducted chiefly by the **Merchant Adventurers**, who obtained a Royal Charter in 1501.—The daring and perseverance of English sailors opened up, in many parts of the world, new markets for English merchants. The Russian Company was founded in 1532 for the purpose of trading with the towns of the Baltic. The Turkey Company received a charter in 1581 to allow it to trade with the Levant. The East India Company, which was destined to become one of the great political powers of the world, received its first charter from Elizabeth in 1600; and it gradually amassed wealth and lands for the next two hundred and fifty years. The greatest and most rapid expansion of English trade took place in the reign of Elizabeth. London now began to take the foremost position in commerce of all the towns of England—a position which it has held ever since. The wealth of the traders of London was the envy and amazement of foreign travellers.

The Italian Ambassador wrote home: "In one single street, named the Strand, leading to St. Paul's, there are fifty-two goldsmiths' shops, so rich and full of silver vessels, great and small, that in all the shops in Milan, Rome, Venice, and Florence put together, I do not think there are to be found so many, or of the magnificence to be seen in London."

**7. The Church.**—While the changes in all parts of English society and of the political constitution during the sixteenth century were so great as to amount to a revolution, the change in the position of the Church was the greatest of all. In the time of Henry VII. the Church held nearly one-third of all the land in the country, could keep the nation in peace, or could give its voice for foreign war. It was the chief, almost the only, repository of learning. The monasteries of England numbered 645, with revenues to be counted by millions. After the deaths of so many barons in the Wars of the Roses, it held the largest number of seats in the Upper House:—the Spiritual Lords were nearly twice the number of the Lords Temporal. Much of the legal jurisdiction of the country was in its hands; for all criminals who could read could demand that their cases be taken out of the King's Courts into the Courts of the Church. It controlled the settlement and transmission of the lands of laymen

for in its hands rested the drawing up and the carrying out of wills. The good of the country,—diplomacy,—the organising of war,—social arrangements (through its power in the confessional),—the management of all these made the Church by far the most influential body in the kingdom.—The action of Henry VIII. changed all this. And, in the reign that followed, during the minority of Edward VI., the first **Act of Uniformity** of 1549 transferred the temporal, and much of the spiritual, power of the Church to the hands of the Government for the time being. Even points of faith and doctrine were discussed by the laity of England and settled by them. The Revival of Learning deprived the Church of its monopoly of scholarship. Greek poetry and Greek Philosophy were looked upon with suspicion by churchmen; and much of the scholarship of the country passed into the hands of laymen—such as Thomas More and Roger Ascham. Much of the wealth of the Church went to establish Grammar schools; and the laity displayed a stronger anxiety for learning than was shown by the clergy.

(i) The spirit of the Renaissance was actively at work amongst the subjects of Elizabeth, blunting the edge of religious controversy, and sending men in search of earthly beauty and enjoyment, instead of spiritual growth. . . . Holding out its hand, as in Spenser, to Protestantism, it was in the main, as in Shakespeare and the dramatists, neither Catholic nor Protestant."—GARDINER.

(ii) The list of the Privy Council in 1552 contains only two names of clergymen.

**8. London.**—The capital of England presented a very different appearance under Elizabeth from what it does in the reign of Victoria. The City proper was surrounded by walls, with gates and towers at intervals. But even the City was not crowded with buildings; it was more like a country town, with gardens here and there, and the smell of flowers and the may in many of its streets. Chancery Lane, now the crowded abode of lawyers and law-offices, was a real country lane, with fields and trees on either side. In Drury Lane there were, on one side of it, no houses at all; on the other side, some half-dozen, including Drury House. The Strand was lined with houses on both sides as far as Charing Cross; but behind each house was a large and well-laid-out garden, some of them stretching down to the river. Covent Garden was the garden of a convent; Hay Market had not a single house; nor had Hedge Lane, which is now called Long Acre—one of the most crowded parts of London. Deer fed in St. James's Park. The Thames ran sweet, clear, and sparkling between noble country-houses on the left, and green fields on the right hand. In Southwark, which had only about a score of houses, there was a ring for the baiting of bulls and bears. The citizens walked out to Holborn, and even as far as Bloomsbury, for change of air; and the

fresh country air of Fetter Lane was recommended for children and invalids.

**9. Language.**—The English Language was, in the Tudor period, pretty much what it is now. It had lost most of its inflections, and hence was easier to speak and to write. But the vocabulary of the Tudors was not so rich as the vocabulary of the nineteenth century. Such words as *virtue*, *vice*, *study*, *justice*, *pity*, *compassion*, *profit*, *colour*, *grace*, and *favour* were absent from our language in 1550. But the saturation with Norman-French was complete ; and this element lent rich colour and varying hues to the English of Shakespeare and the other Elizabethan dramatists. The chief differences between Tudor and Victorian English lay in the pronunciation and the spelling. Englishmen still sounded **a**, **e**, and **i**, as *ah*, *eh*, and *ee*—as is still the custom on the Continent: and the spelling was pretty much according to the "sweet will" of the printer or transcriber. The new sense of freedom which was felt from the almost complete loss of grammatical inflection stimulated the Elizabethan dramatists to take the wildest liberties with our language ; and a word could be employed in any function—could figure as any part of speech. Shakespeare speaks of "a seldom pleasure," "the under eye," "the fairest she" ; talks of the "backward of time," to "tongue and brain" (for to speak and think), to "askance his eyes," to "happy a friend," to "false a friend," and to "malice an enemy."

(i) Mr. Ellis gives the pronunciation of the well-known line—

"One touch of Nature makes the whole world kin," as
"Oan toosh of nahteur maks the whol world keen."

The pronunciation of *one* as *wun* is from a West of England dialect; the regular and orthodox pronunciation is found in *atone* and *alone*.

(ii) The following lines are in the spelling of the First Quarto (1600) edition of *The Merchant of Venice* :—

——when I told you
My state was nothing, I should then haue told you
That I was worse then nothing ; for indeed
I haue ingag'd my selfe to my deere friend,
Ingag'd my friend to his meere enemy
To feed my meanes.

Such spellings as *sadnes*, *burgars*, *pieres* (piers), *rodes* (roads), *leysures* are also found

(iii) When the adjective lost its inflections, it formed a looser connection with its noun than it can form in German or in French ; and Shakespeare seems at times to run riot in this freedom. Thus, *a thirsty evil* means *an evil thirsted for* ; *old woes* = the *woes of old age* ; *my old excuse* = my excuse *for being old* ; a *murderous shame* = a *shameful murder* ; *excellent differences* = *different excellences* ; and *estimable wonder* = *admiring*

*esteem.* Again, *his banished years* means *the years of his banishment*; *with imagined wing* means *with the wings of imagination.* In the well-known passage in *Hamlet*,

——the funeral bakëd meats
Did *coldly* furnish forth the marriage tables,

*coldly* means *after they had been allowed to get cold.*

(iv) "For freedom, for brevity, and for vigour, Elizabethan is superior to modern English."—ABBOTT.

**10. Literature.**—The **Elizabethan Age of English Literature** is by far the greatest and richest that our history can show. Almost every kind of writing in prose and in verse reached a height which it never approached before, and seldom since. **Edmund Spenser** (1552-99), who has been rightly called "The Poets' Poet," gave to England one of its greatest and sweetest poems in the "Faerie Queene." Sir Thomas **Wyatt** and the Earl of **Surrey** had preceded him, the former in introducing to our literature the sonnet, the latter, blank verse. But it was in the highest form of poetry—the **Drama**—that the mighty genius of the Elizabethan Age found its culmination. The drama aims at giving, in its most vivid and condensed form, the very essence of the many-coloured and ever-varying story of human life; and no English drama has ever approached in excellence and variety the drama of the Elizabethan age. The three greatest names in drama are **William Shakespeare**, **Ben Jonson**, and **Christopher Marlowe.**—In prose the two most distinguished names are **Francis Bacon** and **Richard Hooker.** Both of these men excelled in expressing the results of deep thought and careful observation of human life in the most pithy, powerful, and rhythmic language.

(i) **Wyatt** (1503-42) and **Surrey** (1517-47) have been called "the twin-stars of the dawn," and the "founders of English lyrical poetry."

(ii) **Edmund Spenser's** first great work is the "Shepherd's Calender." It appeared in 1579—a most notable year in the history of our literature. "Without calling Spenser the greatest of all poets, we may still say that his poetry is the most poetical of all poetry."—CRAIK.

(iii) **Shakespeare** (1564-1616) was born at Stratford-on-Avon. His two greatest tragedies are **Hamlet** and **King Lear.** His finest comedy is **As You Like It.** He died just eight years after Milton was born.

(iv) **Ben Jonson** (1573-1637) wrote both prose and verse. His greatest drama is **Volpone** (or "The Fox"). He was buried in an upright position in Westminster Abbey; and the stone over his grave still bears the inscription "O rare Ben Jonson!"

(v) **Christopher Marlowe** (1564-93) was a M.A. of Cambridge. His greatest play is "The Life and Death of Dr. Faustus," which contains some of the noblest lines in the language. His "Edward II." inspired Shakespeare's marvellous series of history plays.

(vi) **Richard Hooker** (1553-1600) was Master of the Temple in 1585. He is the author of "**The Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity.**"

# BOOK VII

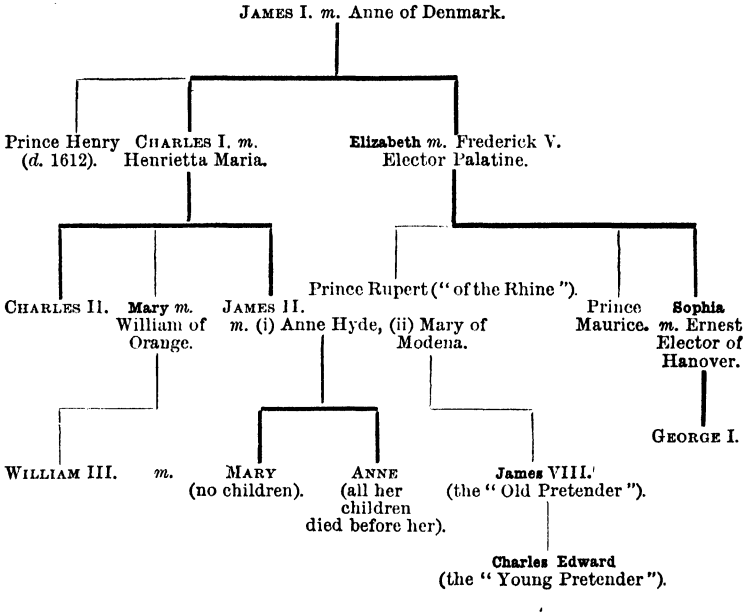
# THE HOUSE OF STUART

AND

# THE COMMONWEALTH

# THE HOUSE OF STUART

## (AND ITS CONNECTION WITH THE HOUSE OF HANOVER).



# CHAPTER I.

## JAMES THE FIRST

**Born 1566. Succeeded (at the age of 37) in 1603. Died 1625. Reigned 22 years.**

JAMES STUART, VI. of Scotland and I. of England, was born in Edinburgh Castle in 1566. He was the only child of Mary Queen of Scots and Henry Darnley, both of them grandchildren of Margaret Tudor. He was crowned King of Scotland when he was a year old, and succeeded to the crown of England on the death of Elizabeth in 1603. In 1585 he became a pensioner of Queen Elizabeth's. In 1589 he married a Protestant Princess, Anne of Denmark. They had three children: Prince Henry, who died in 1612; Charles I.; and Elizabeth, who married Frederick, Count Palatine. It was through this marriage that the House of Hanover came to the throne in the person of George I., who was the grandson of this Elizabeth. James I. died in the year 1625.

Mary Queen of Scots was herself the grandchild of Margaret Tudor, through her first husband, James IV. Darnley was also the grandchild of Margaret Tudor through her second husband, the Earl of Angus. Thus they were cousins, and, on the grandmother's side, both of English descent.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| FRANCE. | SPAIN. |
|---|---|
| HENRY IV. to 1609. | PHILIP III. to 1621. |
| LOUIS XIII. | PHILIP IV. |

**1. James I., 1603-1625.**—James of Scotland was about thirty-seven when he was called to the throne of England. He had been nominally a king ever since he was a year old, but really a pensioner of Queen Elizabeth; he was now a king in reality—a king with large powers, vast wealth, and great influence. He took a month to travel from Edinburgh to London; and his progress was one long triumphal procession the whole way. The noblemen and gentlemen of every

county met him on horseback at the borders of their own shire, and escorted him across the breadth of it, handing him over to a similar convoy before they parted with him. Every town upon the road made high holiday. The jails were thrown open, and every prisoner—with the exception of those who had committed murder—was set free. When the royal cavalcade was nearing London, the lord mayor, the aldermen, the great livery companies, with the wealthy merchants—all well mounted, magnificently dressed, and with chains of gold about their necks—met their new king at Theobalds in Hertfordshire, and gave him a welcome such as he had never before received in his life.—But the new king possessed neither the handsome person nor the royal bearing of King Henry VIII. or of Queen Elizabeth. He was, on the contrary, mean-looking and ungainly; his head was big and ill-shaped; he was goggle-eyed; his legs were bent and rickety; his tongue too large for his mouth; his habits were unclean (he never washed his hands), and his manner was common, uncouth, and utterly wanting in personal dignity. So weak and cowardly was he, that the sight of a drawn sword made him shudder; and he rode so badly, that every one smiled as he jolted along on horseback. He had been carefully educated by the great Scottish scholar George Buchanan, and he was in some respects a learned man; but he had few or none of the qualities of a ruler, and he certainly did not understand the England or the English he had come to reign over. His chief adviser, after he came to England, was **Robert Cecil**, the son of Elizabeth's counsellor, Lord Burleigh.

(i) JAMES I. was in reality a foreigner, ignorant of English traditions, constitutional rights and privileges, and of the inherent rights and powers of the English Parliament. "James brought with him from Scotland no practical knowledge of the English character or of the wants of the English people."—GARDINER.

(ii) James ordered a cut-purse (=pickpocket) to be hanged at Newark without form of trial. This was a violation of English law and of all the English charters. Harrington, an able Englishman, wrote to a friend: "I hear our new king hath hanged one man before he was tried: 'tis strangely done. Now, if the wind bloweth thus, why may not a man be tried before he hath offended?" He never repeated this offence against legality; and it may therefore be supposed that Cecil gave him some advice on the subject, and told him that he was breaking the ancient laws of England.

(iii) While Elizabeth was very sparing of honours, even to her statesmen and soldiers, who had served her long and well, James showered the honour of knighthood on two hundred and thirty-seven gentlemen, during the course of his journey of thirty-two days to London. "Come," he would say, "we have been making a night of it; let

me make a knight of you: rise, Sir Basil Brooke!"—The "Modern Solomon" was fond of puns, verbal pedantries, etc.

> "The English people had been governed during nearly a hundred and fifty years by princes who, whatever might be their frailties or their vices, had all possessed great force of character, and who, whether beloved or hated, had always been feared. Now at length, for the first time since the day when the sceptre of Henry IV. dropped from the hand of his lethargic grandson, England had a king whom she despised. Nature and education had done their best to produce a finished specimen of all that a king ought not to be."—MACAULAY.

(iv) The Stuart Dynasty reigned in England 111 years.

(v) "On the day of the accession of James the First, England descended from the rank which she had hitherto held, and began to be regarded as a power hardly of the second order."—MACA

**2. James's Opinions.**—His chief theory about government was, that kings ruled by "divine right," and that they were responsible, not to their subjects, but to God alone. In this doctrine he carefully brought up his children, and it was destined, as time went on, to bring one of them to ruin and the block. The corresponding doctrine on the part of his subjects was the doctrine of "passive obedience"; and this was very soon widely and earnestly preached by most of the Anglican bishops and clergy. The English nation was at this time divided into three great parties—the Church party, the Roman Catholics, and the Puritans; and each of these parties had been intrigued with, and secretly encouraged to look for special favour from the new king. The Catholics remembered that James's mother had been a Catholic; the Puritans could not forget that he had been brought up in Scotland as a Presbyterian.

(i) The Pope was no longer accepted in England as the Overlord of the king. When the question arose, Who *is* the Superior of the king? the only possible reply was GOD. Hence arose the idea of "Divine right."

> "The king was created by God." It was easy to alter this slightly, and say, "He was created king by God."

(ii) The divine right of kings, translated into practical politics, became **absolute monarchy**; translated into the duty of subjects, it became **passive obedience**. This latter doctrine was warmly advocated by the Anglican bishops and clergy.

> The phrase "absolute monarchy" has two meanings:—one *external*, the other *internal*. The external meaning is that no foreign power, such as the Pope, has any rule in the kingdom. The internal meaning, which James advocated, was that the king *alone* had power in the kingdom, was above the law, and that all other powers were *derived* from him.

(iii) The divine right of kings became, again, in the sphere of the Church, the **divine right of bishops**. James's maxim, which he was fond of perpetually quoting, was "No bishop, no king!" Hence his confirmed hatred of the Puritan party.

(iv) James, when in Scotland, had thanked God that he was a member of the "poorest Kirk in the world," but he was very glad to throw off the yoke of the dis-

cipline of Presbyterian ministers, and, when in England, to embrace with ardour the hierarchical constitution of the English Church. He could at last speak out his belief: "No bishop, no king!" At the Hampton Court Conference James said, "A Scottish Presbytery agreeth as well with a monarchy as God and the devil. Then Jack and Tom, and Will and Dick, shall meet, and at their pleasure censure me and my council, and say, 'Nay, marry, but we will have it thus.'"

**3. Arabella Stuart.**—James had hardly reached his palace in London before a plot was discovered to place his cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne—a plot devised and promoted chiefly by Sir Walter Raleigh. Raleigh was condemned to death; but his sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life, and he was sent to the Tower, where he remained for nearly thirteen years.—The lady had herself taken no part in the conspiracy, and was accordingly left unmolested. But, eight years after, she contracted a secret marriage with William Seymour, a descendant of the Duchess of Suffolk; and this union of two possible claimants to the throne very much alarmed James, who threw her, without trial or form of law, into the Tower, where, not long after, she died insane from confinement and misery.

**Main and Bye Plots 1603.**

(i) There were really two Plots: the **Main Plot** and the **Bye Plot** or **Surprise Plot.** The object of the first plot, which was entered into by Raleigh, Lord Cobham, and others, was the overthrow of James's adviser, Cecil, and the placing of Arabella Stuart on the throne, by the aid of Spain. The object of the second plot was to seize the person of the king, and compel him to grant toleration to the Roman Catholics, on the one hand, and to the Puritans on the other.

(ii) The following table shows the relationship between Arabella Stuart and William Seymour—

HENRY VII.

JAMES IV. *m.* **Margaret** *m.* Earl of Angus. — **Mary** *m.* Duke of Suffolk.

JAMES V. — Margaret Douglas *m.* Earl of Lennox. — Frances Brandon (Duchess of Suffolk).

MARY *m.* Henry Stuart (**Lord Darnley**). — Earl of Lennox. — Jane Grey. — Catherine Grey.

Edward Seymour.

**JAMES I.** — **Arabella Stuart** *m.* **William Seymour.**

**4. The Hampton Court Conference.**—The Puritans, though the king disliked them, were the strongest and most numerous party in Parliament, and they were determined to make all the use they could of their power. A body of them met James on his way to London, bearing in their hands a long roll of paper, which they called the "Millenary Petition," and in which they set forth that a thousand[1] ministers were "groaning under a common burden of human rites and ceremonies." The petition was also filled with complaints against the Church. To settle these differences between the Puritans and the Churchmen, James, who threw himself into the arms of the High Church party, summoned a conference of the leading men of both parties. The conference met at Hampton Court, a beautiful village on the Thames, where Cardinal Wolsey had, in the sixteenth century, built himself a palace, which he afterwards presented to his master, Henry. James himself took the chair at this conference; and being well armed with all kinds of theological learning, and fond of theological discussions, he joined in the debates, and effectively put to silence the oratory of the Puritan divines. He saw, or thought he saw, the republican tendency of the Puritan party; and he maintained that the Church must be ruled on the same principles and in the same manner as the State. He was never tired of reiterating his favourite formula, "No bishop, no king."

**Hampton Court Conference 1604.**

(i) The "Conference" was to a large extent a sham. For James had, before the Conference, held a conversation with the Bishops, and agreed with them as to how much (or rather how little) he should do for the Puritans. After the Conference, he said, "I will make them conform, or I will harry them out of the land."

(ii) "Royalty never displayed itself in a more undignified manner. Episcopacy never degraded itself more by a servile flattery of royalty. . . . Harrington, who was present, says, 'The king talked much Latin, and disputed with Dr. Reynolds; but he rather used upbraidings than argument, and told the petitioners that they wanted to strip Christ again, and bade them away with their snivelling. . . . The bishops seemed much pleased, and said his majesty spoke by the power of inspiration.'"—KNIGHT.

Bancroft, Bishop of London, fell on his knees and exclaimed: "I protest my heart melteth for joy that Almighty God, of His singular mercy, has given us such a king as since Christ's time hath not been."

**5. The Bible.**—The only good fruit of this Conference was the new translation of the Bible. Forty-seven divines, Episcopalian and

[1] Only 750 actually signed.

Puritan, were engaged on the work for three years. The basis of this new version was Tyndale's scattered translations of different parts of the Bible, which had been collected, edited, and completed by his friend Myles Coverdale. Coverdale's version had been re-edited by Archbishop Parker and others, and published as the *Bishops' Bible;* and the new translators, though constantly examining and comparing the original Hebrew and Greek, kept as close to the language, style, and rhythm of these previous versions as they possibly could. The new translation appeared in 1611, and it is still the version in which we read.

**Authorised Version published 1611.**

(i) "England became the people of a book; and that book was the Bible. It was as yet the one English book which was familiar to every Englishman; it was read at churches and read at home, and everywhere its words, as they fell on ears which custom had not deadened to their force and beauty, kindled a startling enthusiasm."—GREEN.

(ii) "As a mere literary monument, the English version of the Bible remains the noblest example of the English tongue. Its perpetual use made it from the instant of its appearance the standard of our language."—GREEN

**6. The Gunpowder Plot, Nov. 5, 1605.**—The Roman Catholics had cherished strong hopes, not only of freedom from persecution, but of seeing their religion once more established by law; and James certainly did not allow them to be molested during the first year of his reign. But, soon after, the persecution began again, and with greater bitterness and severity than ever, and six thousand Catholic recusants[1] were brought before the courts in one single year. They now saw what the promises of James were worth. Driven to despair, and with no hope of help from abroad, a small band of them came to the desperate resolution of destroying, at one terrible blow, both Parliament and King. Robert Catesby—a Northamptonshire gentleman—was the chief ringleader. After disposing of the King, the Lords, and the Commons, Catesby and his followers were to make for the country, raise the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry, and proclaim one of the king's younger children. A vacant cellar under the Houses of Parliament was hired. Thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were piled against the wall and covered with fagots of firewood; and Guy Fawkes, a Yorkshire gentleman, who had served in the Spanish army, was induced to carry

**Gunpowder Plot 1605.**

[1] Persons who refused to go to church (*i.e.* to the Episcopal church).

out the dark and desperate design. Everything was ready; the king was to open Parliament on the 5th of November; and on that night the mine was to be fired. Fawkes was ready in the cellar with his lantern and a slow match. An anonymous letter to Lord Monteagle, who was a Roman Catholic peer, warning him to keep away from the House on that day, as "the Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see who hurts them," was shown to Cecil, who laid it before the Council. The king guessed that gunpowder was meant. A search was made on the 4th, and Fawkes and the gunpowder were both discovered in the cellar.

(i) James was foolish enough to put in force an old law against the Catholics, and to exact a fine of £20 a month for non-attendance at church, and even to demand the arrears due during a time when the law itself was in abeyance! Those Catholics who had land forfeited it; those who had none lost their goods and chattels. Many were ruined—Catesby, the originator of the Gunpowder Plot, among them. "The mere fact of saying the mass was sufficient to bring the priest under the penalties of treason; and those penalties were extended to all who should assist or 'comfort' him."

(ii) The letter seems to have been written by **Francis Tresham**, the brother-in-law of Lord Monteagle.

(iii) The theory in Elizabeth's time was that the English Church was the English Nation in its religious aspect; but this was no longer true as regards either the Catholics or the Puritans.

**7. The Results of the Plot.**—The other conspirators fled; they were chased from county to county; some of them were sabred at Holbeach House in Worcestershire; others were captured and put to death as traitors; Fawkes was tortured on the rack, but no degree of agony or prolongation of pain could extort from him a single syllable against any other person. This horrible project made the condition of the Roman Catholics much worse than it had ever been; "a frenzy of horror and dread" filled and shook the minds of English Protestants all over the land; new statutes were passed against the Catholics; and only those who were rich enough to bribe the courtiers could escape the penalties of being recusants. Even the Queen herself did not disdain to finger their bribes. No Roman Catholic was allowed to live in London; no one could be a lawyer or a doctor. In fact, the Catholics were practically outlawed. A new oath was also devised, which compelled them to renounce in the strongest terms the doctrine that princes who had been excommunicated by the Pope could be deposed or put to death by their own subjects. This oath

broke up the Catholics into two parties—the one willing to take it; and the other, with the approval of the reigning Pope, Paul the Fifth, sternly refusing to take any such oath upon their conscience.

(i) "Catholic recusants were deprived of nearly all their civil rights; heavy fines were levied if their children remained unchristened, and if they absented themselves from church; while, if the children were sent abroad to be educated, they became incapable of inheriting, and their property passed to the nearest Protestant successor. They were all, too, by the mere fact of their being Catholics, excommunicated."—FRANCK BRIGHT.

(ii) From this time began the long series of "Catholic Disabilities." From this time, too, arose the custom in England of ascribing every misfortune that happened to the "malice and wickedness" of the Catholics. Thus the fire of London in 1666 was attributed to them; and an inscription to this effect was placed on "London Pillar," better known as "The Monument." It is to this that Pope, himself a Roman Catholic, alludes when he says:—

"Where London's column, pointing to the skies,
Like a tall bully, lifts the head and *lies*."

**8. Ireland** (i)—**The Plantations.**—Henry VIII. had had a scheme to settle in different parts of Ireland one family from every parish in England; but it was never carried out. Chance threw in James's way a speedier and surer mode of colonisation. Two powerful earls in the large province of Ulster, the Earl of Tyrone and the Earl of Tyrconnel, made an attempt, soon after the accession of King James, to throw off the English yoke, and to make themselves independent. Their conspiracy was discovered, they were attainted of treason, and fled to Spain. Their lands were forfeited; and in this way about two million acres of land fell to the English crown. Thus it happened that in 1608 the greater part of Ulster came into the hands of James, who granted portions of it to English and Scotch settlers, whose settlements were called *plantations*. To raise funds for their protection, the king invented the new title of *Baronet*, which he sold for £1080, a sum which was considered equal to the support of thirty soldiers for three years. A large tract of land was granted to the citizens of London, which they still possess, and which goes by the name of Londonderry. The system of "planting" was extended to Leinster; but the confiscation of their lands left in the hearts of the Irish landowners a deep, strong, and rankling sense of injustice, which has not died out even in the present day. The native owners were turned adrift; their followers—called *septs* or clans—were

carried away to other parts of the island; and the memory of their wrongs lives even now in wild song or well-known story or family tradition.—Much the same policy was carried out in the Highlands of Scotland. Argyll and Huntly were intrusted with full powers to "plant" and settle the Highlands, to root out lawless clans, to keep the chiefs in good order, and to compel them to send their children to school in the Lowlands.

(i) "Extraordinary inducements were held out to English capitalists to settle in the North of Ireland; the Corporation of London received large grants of land in the county of Derry, upon their engagement to spend £20,000 upon the colony, and to build two towns. Hence the cities of Londonderry and Coleraine."—KNIGHT.

(ii) "The forfeited lands were divided amongst 104 English and Scots, 56 servitors, and 286 natives. Thus was Ulster to become, but not without its periods of fierce contention and of terrible massacre, the most prosperous and enlightened province of Ireland. It became the seat of agricultural and commercial industry."—KNIGHT.

(iii) "The evicted natives withdrew sullenly to the lands which had been left them by the spoiler; but all faith in English justice had been torn from the minds of the Irishry, and the seed had been sown of that fatal harvest of distrust and disaffection, which was to be reaped through tyranny and massacre in the age to come."—GREEN.

**9. Ireland** (ii)—The Lord-Deputy of Ireland during this reign was **Sir Arthur Chichester**, afterwards Lord Chichester of Belfast. He was one of the best and most reasonable Englishmen who have ever held rule in Ireland. In 1605 he abolished martial law in that country, issued orders for the protection of the poor, and introduced the English laws and customs relating to the holding of land. He proposed to settle Ulster by giving the first choice of land to the Irish natives, and after they were satisfied, the remainder to English and Scotch colonists. But this just and sensible arrangement was upset in London; the forfeited country in Ulster was "treated as a sheet of white paper"; and the native Irish were deported to the worst and most barren parts of the country. He was ordered to drive the Irish by persecution into the Protestant churches; but he steadfastly declined this base kind of work, and was recalled from his post. The persecutions for religion and the deprivation of their lands left in the minds of Irishmen feelings and memories that were handed down from father to son, and sowed the seeds of a rebellious spirit that is not yet dead.

(i) "**Baronets** were first created by James I. in 1611, when, being in want of money for the support of the army in Ulster, he offered the title of *baronet* to all who would

pay into the Exchequer £1080." These baronetcies were ostensibly created for the military defence of the Pale.

(ii) "The Pale" was the part of Ireland where English law had force. It was also called "the English land." "Bullied by the crown, 'cessed' by the Parliament, subjected by their lords at once to feudal dues and to tribal impositions, plundered by corrupt judges and extortionate deputies, blackmailed by the Irish in time of peace, and harried by both sides in time of war, the dweller in the Pale was probably the most wretched of all the wretched inhabitants of Ireland."—Low and PULLING'S *Dictionary of English History*.

**10. James and his Parliaments.**—The reign of James was almost one long quarrel with the House of Commons. The Puritan party was strong in the House of Commons; and the sense of the rights and privileges of Parliament had always been strong in English representatives. James and his Parliaments held very different views both in politics and in religion; and their relations from the first had always been strained and mistrustful. They were determined to have their old traditional English rights and freedoms; he strove for absolute power. He asked them for money, and they told him to send away his favourites. This struggle, which was prolonged into the next reign, broke up the almost absolute monarchy established by the Tudors, gradually destroyed the power of Charles, resulted in a republic, and finally brought about what is called constitutional government in Great Britain. James, with his notions of divine right, would have gladly done without Parliament altogether; but, since he came to England, he had got into the habit of spending too much money, and he had constantly to go begging to the House of Commons for new supplies. That House now began to act upon the principle, which is one of the corner-stones of the British constitution: "No supplies until grievances have been redressed." James, finding his way stopped here, had recourse to every base plan for raising money. He extorted benevolences; he sold titles of nobility; he demanded purveyances;[1] he re-established monopolies. From 1610 to 1614 James ruled without a parliament. In 1614 his need of money compelled him to summon a new House; and in this Parliament sat some who were afterwards leaders in the great struggle, among them **John Pym** and **Sir John Elliot**. When the king asked for supplies, they demanded that he should give up his practice of illegal

[1] Right of maintenance for himself and court, in whatever part of the country they are travelling. The designation "Purveyor to Her Majesty" is now all that remains of this custom.

taxation by Impositions; but his only reply was to dismiss them, and to shut up four of the leading members in the Tower. For the next seven years he ruled as an absolute monarch.

(i) Servile judges decided, in a case brought before them in 1608, that the king had the power to regulate the Customs duties. Accordingly, Cecil had a "Book of Rates" prepared and published, which increased these duties to a large amount. The additions made to the duties by Cecil for the purpose of getting money for the king without the aid of Parliament were called **Impositions**. These Impositions, then, were not laid on by the authority of Parliament, but "under the Great Seal." When the Commons disputed them, the king commanded the Commons not to discuss a question "which touched his prerogative."

(ii) "The commerce of the country had become an important source of its wealth: and, if the king could tax merchandise without the consent of Parliament, the one great restraint upon despotic power would soon be swept away."—KNIGHT.

(iii) The laws of Elizabeth's Parliament regarding **monopolies** were evaded by granting them, not to individuals, but to companies.

(iv) On several occasions, James stated, in a perfectly plain manner, his own theory regarding kings and parliaments. In one of his books, "the True Law of Free Monarchies," he says: "Although a good king will frame all his actions to be according to law, yet he is not bound thereto, but of his own will, and for example-giving to his subjects." And when the Commons declared that freedom of speech was their "ancient and undoubted right," James replied that all their rights and privileges were derived from "the grace and permission of his ancestors and himself."

(v) James's reasoning went in this way: (i) The king rules by divine right; his person is sacred; his will is law; there is no law but his will. (ii) The people are the property of the king; they may be allowed to take part, by their representatives, in the work of government; how much and how far depends entirely on the gracious pleasure of the king. (iii) When the Parliament or "National Council" passes a law, the king is not bound by it; nor need the king govern with and by parliaments except in so far as he chooses. (iv) The king is not bound to keep his word to his subjects; but subjects are bound to keep their promises to the king.

**11. The Growing Power of Parliament.**—In 1621 the third Parliament of James was summoned; and this time it began an attack upon monopolies and those who held them. It also struck at court favourites, and at those who corrupted the administration of justice. It struck at the highest legal personage in the realm. This was no other than the great Bacon, one of the greatest thinkers and philosophers that ever lived, who had been Lord High Chancellor since the year 1618, and who had received bribes even when acting as a judge. A bill containing twenty-two counts was brought against him in the House of Lords. He confessed his guilt, was dismissed

from his office, ordered to pay £40,000, and to be imprisoned[1] in the Tower during the king's pleasure. In the same year the House of Commons entered in its journals a motion, that "in the handling of the business of the State, every member of this House hath, and of right ought to have, freedom of speech to propound, treat, and reason about the same." James sent for the journals, and tore out the motion with his own hand; "I will govern," he cried, "according to the common weal, but not according to the common will."

(i) **Bacon** was proceeded against by **Impeachment.** In this process, the Commons are the accusing party, and the Lords are the judges.

(ii) "The charge," says Professor Gardiner, "that Bacon knowingly and corruptly sold or delayed justice falls entirely to the ground." It seems to have been the practice in these times for both parties to a suit to send presents to the judge. Bacon saw that the attack came from his political enemies, and that the Court could not save him; to ensure a lenient sentence, he submitted. He said himself: "I was the justest judge that was in England these fifty years; but it was the justest censure in Parliament that was there these two hundred years."

**12. Foreign Relations.**—James was as little successful in his relations with foreign powers as he was in his relations with his subjects. In the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, Frederick v., Elector Palatine (who had married Elizabeth, James's only daughter), was offered the crown of Bohemia by the leaders of the Protestant party. The English people were eager to help the Elector and the Protestant cause in Europe; but James, who was in great dread of the power and influence of Spain, determined to remain neutral. He did indeed send a small number of men to help his son-in-law; but the Elector was driven out of the Palatinate. When the English people loudly expressed their dissatisfaction, the king told the Commons that the discussion of such matters touched on his prerogative; and he issued a proclamation "forbidding all men to speak of state affairs."—James was eager that Charles, now his only son (for Prince Henry had died in 1612) should marry the Infanta of Spain. The country was strongly against this marriage; for it was felt that it would lead to increased liberties and indulgences for the Roman Catholics. However, a "Secret Treaty" of marriage was drawn up; and one clause in that treaty insisted on the restoration of the Palatinate to James's son-in-law. Charles and Buckingham made a secret journey in disguise to Madrid, where all seemed to go well with his suit; but the agree-

[1] The fine was remitted, and he was released in two days.

ment for the marriage was finally broken off. The year after, in 1624, war was declared against Spain; Parliament voted subsidies; and an army was raised, which, however, was never sent to Spain. Charles, not long after, married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France.

(i) The Palatinate is a fertile district on the left bank of the Rhine, and south of Mainz. It is now an appanage of the crown of Bavaria.

The revolt of the Bohemians was the cause of the "Thirty Years' War" (1618-48), in which the great names of Wallenstein, Tilly, and Gustavus Adolphus are conspicuous.

(ii) Charles, in his journey to Madrid, took the name of John Smith; Buckingham was Thomas Smith. James wrote of them as "sweet boys and dear venturous Knights, worthy to be put in a new romance." (When Louis Philippe fled from Paris in 1848, and crossed to Newhaven, he travelled under the name of Mr. William Smith.)

(iii) James's general policy of peace with Spain was not popular in the country. English seamen had made a great deal of money in Elizabeth's time by capturing the treasure-ships bound from South America to Spain, laden with bullion, by attacking and plundering Spanish towns, and by a kind of piracy on the high seas; and the people had no wish to be at peace with Spain, as long as there was a chance of carrying on this lucrative game.

**13. The King's Favourites.**—Most of the Scottish nobility and gentry followed the court to London, and spent there the money which they drew from their Scotch estates. So numerous were these Scottish gentlemen, and so rapidly were they ennobled, that an Englishman announced the discovery of an "Art of Memory," which would enable people to remember the new titles as well as the old names. Among these was Robert Carr, upon whom the king heaped every office and honour, whom he created Earl of Somerset, and who was all-powerful at court for several years. He was convicted of poisoning an acquaintance who had opposed the divorce of a lady he wished to marry, was disgraced, and died in extreme poverty. The king's next favourite was George Villiers, a handsome young Englishman, whom James created Duke of Buckingham. These two personages treated each other with the coarsest familiarity. James was accustomed to hug and kiss Villiers: and Villiers did what he pleased at court and in the Government. He advised James in his foreign relations, and was especially favourable to the alliance with Spain; while James himself was eager to marry his son Prince Charles to the Infanta, and for this aim would have sacrificed everything. The Spanish court demanded the abrogation of the penal laws

against the Catholics, and this was granted; they asked a Catholic household for the Infanta—this was complied with; they required that the prince's children should be brought up in the Catholic faith, and this too was yielded. No sacrifice on the part of James seemed to him unreasonable. Among other good and precious things he sacrificed the life of Raleigh.

(i) It is with the death of Cecil that the rule of statesmen comes to an end in this reign, and the ascendency of favourites begins. During Cecil's life, Elizabeth's foreign policy—alliance with the United Provinces of the Low Countries, support of Protestantism on the Continent, and friendship with France—was maintained. After his death, James favoured friendship with Spain.

(ii) "When Carr, a raw Scotch lad, had broken his leg in the tilting-yard, the king watched over his recovery, placed him about his person, pinched his cheek, taught him Latin, bestowed on him forfeited lands, and created him Viscount Rochester."

(iii) King James, to fill his empty pockets, had put up a number of vacant offices for sale; and the office of cup-bearer was purchased by George Villiers, a gentleman of Leicestershire. He never was a statesman; and his friendship proved very hurtful to Charles I. The royal bounty made him one of the richest noblemen in England; and all the patronage of the court was in his hands.

(iv) Under the favourites' régime, the expenses of the court trebled themselves; and the want of money compelled James to summon his second Parliament in 1614. It was called "The Addled Parliament," because it was dissolved without having got through any business.

**14. The Execution of Raleigh.**—This adventurous knight had already lain nearly thirteen years in the Tower, where he had spent his time writing a *History of the World*, when he offered, as the price of his freedom, to bring to James a cargo of gold from some mines he knew of in the north of South America. The bait was too tempting to the needy and greedy king. Raleigh was set free and provided with fourteen vessels for the expedition; but he found the Spaniards everywhere opposing him. The reason was that James sent word privately to the Spanish ambassador. Raleigh attacked and burnt down the Spanish town of St. Thomas, but had to return, after losing his son, with broken heart and "broken brains," and with his purpose unfulfilled. The Spaniards accused him to the king of having acted as a pirate, and James offered to give him up to them; but, instead of this, he sank to a lower depth, acted as executioner for Spain, and had Raleigh put to death at the block, —not for any recent crime, but under the original sentence which had

**Raleigh's Guiana expedition 1617.**

been passed upon him fifteen years before. James had committed many mean acts, but this was probably the meanest, the most cold-blooded and dastardly of all he had ever perpetrated (1618).

(i) The gold mine was in Guiana, on the Orinoco.

(ii) "It was a bitter morning; and the Sheriff proposed that he should descend from the scaffold and warm himself. 'No, good Mr. Sheriff, let us despatch, for within this quarter of an hour my ague will come upon me; and, if I be not dead before that, my enemies will say I quake for fear.' Before kneeling down, he took the axe in his hand, felt the edge, kissed the blade, and said to the Sheriff, 'Tis a sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases.' So died the last of Elizabeth's heroes."—KNIGHT.

(iii) Raleigh had always been a bitter foe to Spain; the people of England hated Spain; and his execution called forth the deepest indignation of the people, who felt that so noble a life had been sacrificed to the Spanish court.

(iv) When Raleigh was in prison, the plan of colonising Virginia was taken up by the **Virginia Company**. Captain John Smith, who married Pocahontas, the daughter of an Indian chief, was the real founder of the United States.

**15. Scotland under James.**—One good effect of the union of the two crowns was that Englishmen and Scotchmen no longer looked upon each other as aliens.[1] They could also inherit property in either country.—James had never really liked Presbyterianism, and he determined to restore Episcopacy in Scotland. Accordingly, in 1606, the Estates or Scottish Parliament passed an act for restoring the office of bishop, and bringing back the bishops to their sees;[2] and bishops were nominated to thirteen sees in 1610. —Many of the Scotch, driven away by poverty, sought new homes across the seas—some in the old home, the original *Scotia*, now called Ulster; others in a new Scotland, to which they gave the name *Nova Scotia*. The colony to New Scotland was led by Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of Stirling; and every adventurer who was willing to take up so much land, clear it, and defend it against the neighbouring French settlers, was rewarded with the rank and title of baronet.

(i) It was easy enough to make bishops; the difficulty was where to get the endowments for them. The Scottish nobles in their pretended eagerness for the Reformation, had seized the Church lands—"secularised" them, as they called it; and they declined to give them back.

(ii) In Scotland, too, the king was determined to enforce his maxim of "No bishop, no king." This was the seed of great troubles in the next reign.

[1] Foreigners.

[2] A form of the word *siége*, a seat.

**16. The Death of James.**—James died of ague on the 27th of March 1625. He was the author of many works in prose and in verse, and on all sorts of subjects, from treatises on divinity down to a *Counterblast against Tobacco.* He was very fond of cock-fighting, bear-baiting, and other coarse and degrading amusements; and though he piqued himself on his profound knowledge of what he called "kingcraft," he left the actual management of State business to his ministers, and used to say that, rather than sit a day at the council table, he would go back to his native country;—an awful threat! He took the title of *King of Great Britain*; but England and Scotland were still separate countries in all respects, except that both happened to have one king. "His generosity," says Hume, "bordered on profusion, his learning on pedantry, his pacific disposition on pusillanimity, his wisdom on cunning, and his friendship on light fancy and boyish fondness."

(i) The full title taken by James was **King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland.**

(ii) "With a thorough dislike of dogmatism in others, James was himself the most dogmatic of men. He had not, as Elizabeth had, that intuitive perception of the popular feeling which stood her in such stead during her long career."—GARDINER.

(iii) From his combination of learning with an almost complete absence of common-sense, he was generally called "the wisest fool in Christendom."

(iv) "James wasted his revenues in lavish grants to unworthy favourites. He almost wholly neglected the business of the state: for he was hunting, bolstered up on an ambling palfrey; or he was writing fanatic treatises which nobody read; or he was moving by easy journeys from his palace of Richmond to his palace of Windsor, or in triumphal procession in his state barge from Greenwich to Whitehall."—KNIGHT.

**17. The Work of Parliament.**—The reign of James I. marks the beginning of the long struggle for the supremacy of the House of Commons. Under the Plantagenets, the House of Lords was the more powerful body; from the accession of the Stuarts, the House of Commons took the first place. The Tudors had always had a true perception of the feelings of the English people, got on with their Parliaments as best they might, and never troubled their heads about formulating any theory about their own authority. The Stuarts knew little and cared less about the national feelings and desires; they set themselves steadily to oppose the House of Commons; and their heads were filled with the theory of the "Divine Right of Kings." The **First Parliament** of James met in 1604. It displayed a

temper far from submissive. It stood up in defence of its privileges: it declared its right to control the election of its own members, and also the right of its members to freedom from arrest. After the Gunpowder Plot of 1605, it passed severe laws against the Catholics; and in 1610 it issued a remonstrance against the **Impositions**, in spite of the declaration by the Court of Exchequer that these Impositions were "within the rights" of the king. There was no Parliament from 1610 to 1614. In this latter year the **Second Parliament** met. The king asked for a supply; the Commons asked to have the Impositions removed; neither side would move an inch; and Parliament was dissolved without having done any business. Hence its name of "The Addled Parliament." But it was in this Parliament that three distinguished men made their first appearance—John Pym, Thomas Wentworth, and John Elliot. For seven years James ruled without a Parliament, depending chiefly on the advice of his chief favourite, Buckingham. At length, in 1621, the **Third Parliament** met. The House of Commons entertained a deep and settled distrust of the policy of James both at home and abroad. It favoured war for the recovery of the Palatinate; and the Commons "lifted their hats as high as they could hold them." It swept away all monopolies, which had been revived under Buckingham; and it revived the old and forgotten right of impeachment. The great Lord Chancellor Bacon was the chief victim. It was out of the Journals of this Parliament that the king tore several leaves with his own hand—an act of which a Tudor would not have even dreamed. The year after, in 1622, Parliament was dissolved; and **Pym** and **Selden** were thrown into the Tower. Two years after, in 1624, the **Fourth Parliament** of James was summoned; and it willingly voted supplies for a war with Spain. But it did a great deal more than this. It declared all monopolies illegal; and it impeached the Earl of Middlesex, Lord Treasurer of England. So daring and so confident of its own power had the House of Commons become.

(i) **Elizabeth**, by her thrift, made herself almost independent of Parliament; **James**, by his reckless expenditure, put himself more and more at the mercy of the House of Commons.

(ii) The House of Commons was eager to go to war with Spain, in defence of Frederick the Elector and his dominion of Palatinate. "The Parliament had no confidence in a king who shuddered at a drawn sword."

(iii) "The struggle which was to be fought out in the battle-field, twenty years afterwards, was already commenced in a most unmistakable manner. It was a contest for first principles. England was a Constitutional Monarchy or a Despotism." The struggle lasted eighty-five years, from 1603 to 1688.

(iv) The central question in dispute between James and his Parliament—and afterwards between Charles and *his* Parliament—was the right of taxation. If the king had a right to impose what taxes he pleased, there was an end of Parliamentary government.

(v) The **Impositions** were additions made to the usual customs of **Tonnage** and **Poundage.** Tonnage and Poundage had been granted the king *for life*; but the rates upon each article of commerce had been recorded in a book called the "Book of Rates." To these customary rates James had made additions or "Impositions," without the authority of Parliament; and against this the House of Commons protested unceasingly.

Tonnage was a tax of from 1s. 6d. to 3s.—according to quality—per tun of wine or liquor imported or exported; and poundage was a tax of from 6d. to 1s. on goods sold by weight.

(vi) The following are the chief points of difference between the Governments of

| James I. | and | Queen Victoria. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. James chose his own Ministers—not always because they were the ablest. | | 1. The House of Commons virtually chooses the Queen's Ministers; but the Queen "sends for" them. |
| 2. Parliament met, or did not meet, whenever the king pleased. | | 2. Parliament meets every year. |
| 3. James's Ministers did what he bade them, and did not explain or defend their actions to Parliament. | | 3. The Queen's Ministers have to explain, to defend, and to justify their acts and measures to Parliament. |
| 4. James's income came from: (i) the Crown lands; (ii) the Feudal Dues[1]; and (iii) Tonnage and Poundage (granted to him for life). | | 4. The Queen's income comes from the "Civil List"; and additions for her family are asked from and granted by the House of Commons. |
| 5. James could veto any bill, and often used this power. | | 5. The Queen has never vetoed any bill, though she has the power. |

**18. Great Men.**—The most distinguished adventurer—using the word in its best sense—of this reign was **Sir Walter Raleigh**, a historian, a poet, and a courtier, and one of the founders of the British Empire. Among statesmen, the only prominent person was **Robert Cecil**, Earl of Salisbury, the worthy son of Queen Elizabeth's chief adviser. After his death the rule of favourites began—of

[1] According to the ancient practice of English sovereigns, an "aid" was demanded when the king's eldest son was knighted. This demand was made when James's son Henry was made Prince of Wales in 1610. The tax was paid, but with universal grumblings.

favourites such as **Robert Carr**, Earl of Somerset, and **George Villiers**, Duke of Buckingham. Among great members of Parliament the names of **John Selden** and **John Pym** stand out conspicuously as the names of men who displayed the highest courage combined with the keenest intelligence. Among lawyers, the chief name of distinction is that of **Edward Coke**, who had the courage to resist the will of the king in the interest of constitutional law. But by far the greatest mind in this reign was **Francis Bacon**, a great lawyer, a profound thinker, a powerful writer, and the founder of the inductive method of inquiry into the nature of physical phenomena.

(i) **Raleigh** was one of the founders of the British Empire by his settlement of Virginia (so called after the "Virgin Queen"). The settlement, on which Raleigh spent £90,000 of his own money, was at first a failure; but it led to the successful efforts of Captain John Smith in 1607.

(ii) "Cecil," says Lord Bacon, "was a fit man to keep things from growing worse, but no very fit man to reduce things to be much better."

(iii) **John Selden** was a very learned and very thoughtful man: he was "the great dictator of learning of the English nation" in this reign. He sat in the Parliament of 1624, and took part in the impeachment of Buckingham. He also played a very distinguished part in the reign of Charles. His library now forms part of the Bodleian at Oxford.

(iv) **John Pym**, the leader of the Parliamentary party, entered Parliament in 1614. He was one of the managers of Buckingham's impeachment in the second Parliament of Charles I. "He seemed," says Clarendon, "to all men to have the greatest influence upon the House of Commons of any man."

(v) **Edward Coke** was Lord Chief-Justice of England, and an able writer on law. He was dismissed in 1615, because he decided a case against the will of the king. He entered Parliament in 1621, and distinguished himself by opposing monopolism and defending the rights of the Commons.

**19. Social Facts.**—In the time of James, just as much as in any previous period, the laws of health—the virtues of fresh air and of cold water—were either misunderstood or unknown. The streets of towns were too narrow; and of drainage there was little or none. Hence the Plague was always present, either in a latent or in a combatant form. In the first year of James's reign, thirty thousand people died of the Plague in London alone. But, ten years after, in the year 1613, a successful attempt was made to give to London a proper and never-failing supply of water. Sir Hugh Middleton captured a number of small streams that flowed southwards from Hertfordshire, collected them into one, and brought them—under the

name of the "New River"—into Islington, a northern suburb of London. Three years before the death of James, the feeling in Parliament and in the public outside had grown so confident in itself, and so eager for political information at home and abroad, that the first newspaper in England was started; and its title was "The Weekly Newes." The nobility began to ride in coaches; and what were called "Sedan Chairs" were introduced.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF JAMES I.'s REIGN.

**1603.** **James I.** succeeds to the throne.

Main Plot and Bye Plot.

**1604.** **Hampton Court Conference.**

**First Parliament of James.**

**1605.** **The Gunpowder Plot.**

**1607.** Foundation of the **British Colonial Empire**, beginning with **Virginia.**

**1608.** **Impositions** and "The Book of Rates."

**1611.** Order of Baronets.

**1612.** Death of Salisbury, "the younger Cecil."

**Carr**, chief favourite.

**1614.** **Second Parliament**, or "The Addled Parliament."

**1616.** (a) Sir W. Raleigh is released from the Tower, and sent in search of a gold mine.

**1616.** (b) Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, chief favourite.

**1618.** Execution of Raleigh on an old sentence.

**1620.** The *Mayflower* at **New Plymouth.** (Beginning of "New England.")

**1621.** **Third Parliament.**

(a) **Bacon** is impeached.

(b) The House of Commons protest against the infringement of their ancient liberties.

(c) The king tears the protest out of the Journal with his own hands.

**1622.** **Pym, Selden**, and others, thrown into the Tower.

**1624.** **Fourth Parliament.**

Monopolies declared illegal.

**1625.** Death of James I.

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1610.** Murder of Henry IV. of France.

**1611.** Ulster "planted" by English and Scottish settlers.

**1612.** The "Scottish Estates" (=Parliament) establish Episcopacy in Scotland.

**1618.** Beginning of the **Thirty Years' War.**

# CHAPTER II.

# CHARLES THE FIRST

**Born 1600. Succeeded (at the age of 24) 1625. Died 1649.**

**Reigned 24 Years.**

CHARLES STUART, King of England, Scotland, and Ireland, was the second son of James VI. of Scotland and Anne of Denmark. He was born at Dunfermline, in Fifeshire, on the 19th of November 1600; and, on his baptism, he was created Duke of Albany. He married Henrietta Maria, the daughter of Henry IV. of France. They had three sons and four daughters. The eldest son was Charles II.; the next, James II.; the third was Henry, Duke of Gloucester, who died in 1660. Of the daughters, Mary, the eldest, married William of Nassau (their son was William of Orange). Charles was beheaded in front of Whitehall Palace on the 30th of January 1649.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| FRANCE. | SPAIN. | SWEDEN. |
|---|---|---|
| LOUIS XIV., 1643. | PHILIP IV., 1621. | GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, 1611-1632. |

**1. Charles I., 1625-1649.**—Charles was only four-and-twenty when he ascended the throne of England. Two months after his accession he married **Henrietta Maria**, a daughter of Henry IV. of France, and—to the regret of the nation, which was growing Protestant in feeling—a Roman Catholic. The new king was at first most warmly welcomed by the English people. But this feeling soon passed; and the story of his reign is the story of one long quarrel between the king and his Parliaments—a quarrel in which Charles was destined to lose his peace of mind, his happiness, and his life. On the one hand, he had more exalted ideas than even his father of the power of the royal prerogative; he had learned too well the lesson of divine right and passive obedience, while the nation was eager for parliamentary rule and the

liberty of the subject. On the other hand, he was too favourable to Roman Catholicism and Episcopacy, while the strongest and most active elements in the nation were sternly Puritanic. He had bad advisers; he hardly knew his own mind; he stooped to intrigue, and even to double-dealing; and he had not the sense or the knowledge to form a correct estimate of the enormous strength of the new forces that were growing up in the nation. His wife, who was one of his advisers, hated the Puritans, and urged him to "rule like a French king." Thus, in the first three years of his reign he had managed so that every branch of the nation—the Lords, the Commons, and the People—stood before him in an attitude of hostility.

(i) Charles, in spite of the promises his father had made to Parliament, agreed to give to his wife's household the free exercise of the ceremonies of their religion, and the education of her children till they were thirteen.

(ii) Charles's chief adviser in the early part of his reign was the "brilliant, but shallow and impulsive," Buckingham.

(iii) Charles's theories regarding the power and prerogative of the crown were more complete and thorough-going than even those of his father. On the other hand, his very first Parliament met with the fixed resolve to obtain the completest safeguards for the ancient rights of the nation. The House of Commons consisted chiefly of old English country gentlemen and lawyers—both parties by nature and habit very conservative. In the former, the old aristocratic spirit of liberty, which had deserted the court nobles, lived in all its ancient vigour; and the latter were thoroughly acquainted with all the old constitutional precedents.

**2. The Struggle.**—Charles's first public act was to declare war against Spain. To get supplies he called a Parliament. The struggle between King and Parliament began at once; and it took a very simple form. The king wanted money; the Parliament wanted removal of grievances. *No Reform—no Supply*, was the simple formula on which they acted. When the king asked for money, the Parliament asked for the removal of Buckingham. They granted him only £140,000, with tonnage and poundage for one year. He dissolved them in a fortnight.—His second Parliament met in 1626, and set to work to impeach Buckingham. He dissolved this Parliament before it had time to pass a single act. "I will not allow," he said, "any of my servants to be questioned among you, much less such as are near to me." To raise money, he had recourse to forced loans, benevolences, and other illegal and arbitrary means.

**First Parliament 1625.**

**Second Parliament 1626.**

**3. The La Rochelle Expedition.**—The Duke of Buckingham had quarrelled with Richelieu, the great minister of France and the deadly foe of the Huguenot[1] or French Protestant party. La Rochelle, on the Bay of Biscay, was the stronghold of the Huguenots. Richelieu had built a mole half a mile long across the mouth of the harbour; Buckingham landed his men upon it and tried to fight his way to the mainland, but he was forced to retreat with a loss of more than 1200 men, while the French did not lose a single soldier. The town surrendered to Richelieu; and England felt the defeat, the loss of lives and of honour, with the most intense bitterness.—The House of Commons declared Buckingham to be the chief cause of all the evils under which the nation suffered. These words thrilled through the heart of the nation, and excited the feelings of all; and when Buckingham was at Portsmouth superintending a second expedition, he was stabbed to the heart by a fanatic, —one John Felton, who had been a lieutenant under him in the campaign of La Rochelle. Private wrongs Felton may have had; but his revenge assumed a look of public justice when the Petition of Right was brought forward. Buckingham was an incapable, frivolous, and vain person—far from being a statesman, quite ignorant of the hopes and desires of the nation, without any power of appreciating the growth of popular forces, and ready from mere caprice or personal feeling to plunge his country into war.

La Rochelle 1627.

(i) **Buckingham** himself led the expedition to La Rochelle. He seized the **Isle of Rhé.** This too was unsuccessful; and the populace called the Isle of Rhé the "Isle of Rue."

(ii) The money spent on this expedition was wasted. To get more, Charles had recourse to **forced loans.** Those who refused to pay had soldiers and sailors billeted on them; the poor were "pressed" for the army and navy.

(iii) When **Felton** was led through the streets of London, the people cried, "God bless thee, little David!" for he had laid low their Goliath.

**4. The Petition of Right.**—A petty war with France, fomented by his fatal friend the Duke of Buckingham, compelled Charles to call together his **third Parliament.** In this Parliament were several gentlemen who had suffered fines and imprisonment for refusing to pay the forced loans; and before granting the king a single penny it drew up the famous **Petition of Right,**

Third Parliament 1628.

[1] The French equivalent name for Protestant.

which has been termed by Macaulay the *Second Great Charter*. This petition demanded of the king four things: that no man should be compelled to pay loan, benevolence, or tax, without consent of Parliament; that no subject should be imprisoned without cause shown; that soldiers and sailors should not be billeted on the people against their will; and that no person should in time of peace be tried by martial law. Charles was forced to assent; and Parliament gave him £400,000.

(i) To carry on the war with Spain, Charles formed an alliance with France. He lent the French eight ships of war: but the French minister, Richelieu, employed the ships, not against the common enemy Spain, but against a private enemy of his own, the French Protestants called Huguenots. This irritated both the English people and the English Parliament.

(ii) To recover their lost popularity, Charles and Buckingham planned an expedition to Cadiz. Lord Wimbledon commanded. It was a complete failure. Ten thousand English troops were landed; they broke into the cellars of sweet wines; hundreds got dead drunk; and the Spaniards "cut off their ears, and pulled out their eyes." The rhyme went round:

"There was a fleet that went to Spain;
When it got there, it came back again."

(iii) "None have gone about to break Parliaments," said Sir John Elliot, "but in the end Parliaments have broken them."

**5. New Advisers and New Quarrels.**—Charles's new advisers were **Thomas Wentworth**, afterwards Earl of Strafford, and **William Laud**, then Bishop of London, but who afterwards rose to be Archbishop of Canterbury. They were men of stern will and inflexible purpose—of a very different stamp from the overdressed dandy, Buckingham. The king had several times violated the terms of the Petition of Right, to which he had given his royal assent; and when the third Parliament met in 1629, Sir John Elliot made a speech, in which he pointed out these violations, and made an attack upon the conduct of Laud. When the question before the House came to the vote, the Speaker, Sir John Finch—a creature of the king's—stated that he had received a royal order to adjourn the House. A terrible scene followed. Some members jumped up and locked the door, and laid the keys before the Speaker on the table of the House; two, Denzil Holles and Valentine, held him by force down in his chair, in spite of his tears and cries; and then Holles read a protest, declaring that any one who should advise the payment of money to the king without the consent of Parlia-

**The Speaker forced 1629.**

ment, or should voluntarily make any such payment, should be regarded as a capital enemy to the nation and the commonwealth. The king sent for the serjeant of the House,—he was not allowed to go; he sent to them the usher of the House of Lords,—they would not let him in; at length the guard was ordered to go and break open the doors, but the members—after reading their protest—had quietly slipped away. The king at once dissolved Parliament, and told the Lords that he did this because of the "seditious carriage of some vipers, members of the Lower House." Sir John Elliot and other members were thrown into the Tower. After a time the others submitted, but Elliot died in that prison. Charles made up his mind to govern without a Parliament; and Wentworth and Laud were the very men to show him how to do it.

(i) **Oliver Cromwell** made his first speech in the Session of 1629.

(ii) **Sir John Elliot** lay in the Tower three years. He contracted a consumption. He wrote to the king: "I humbly beseech your Majesty you will command your judges to set me at liberty, that for recovery of my health I may take some fresh air." The reply was: "Not humble enough."

**6. Wentworth and Laud.**—The steady purpose of these two men was to make Charles an absolute monarch; and Wentworth in his private letters constantly alluded to their plan under the title of **Thorough**. A standing army, the strong hand, the king's will and pleasure in place of law: these were the chief elements in their policy. For eleven years—from 1629 to 1640—no Parliament was called: these eleven years were employed by the two men to work out their purpose; and in these eleven years they contrived to ruin their master, and to bring the heads of all three of them to the block. It turned out that Parliament was better able to govern without them than they without Parliament. The power wielded by Wentworth and Laud was exercised through three tribunals—the **Star-Chamber**, the **High Commission Court**, and the **Council of the North**. Lord Wentworth was made President of the Northern Council, which met at York, and thus possessed boundless power over the counties in the north of England; the High Commission Court called to trial all who dared to hold religious opinions which were not approved of by Laud; and the Star-Chamber fined, imprisoned, pilloried,[1] and cropped the ears of all who spoke ill

**No Parliament from 1629 to 1640.**

[1] **Placed in the pillory**—a high stage on which criminals were publicly exposed to insult, stone-throwing, and every kind of abuse.

of the policy of the king or declined to pay the money he illegally demanded. A London citizen was severely punished by one of these courts for calling the crest of a nobleman upon the buttons of his livery-servant a goose, instead of a swan. Laud was a stern and uncompromising enemy of all Nonconformists;[1] and they applied to him the title of "Pope of Canterbury." Wentworth had been at first a strong defender of the rights of Parliament, and had indeed brought into the House the plainly-worded motion that "Grievances and supplies should go hand in hand." But when he left them to serve the person and personal wishes of the king, his old fellow-member Pym said to him, "You have left us, but we will not leave you whilst you have a head on your shoulders." And he kept his word.

(i) **Wentworth** was one of the foremost promoters of the Petition of Right; but he was among those who considered that, in obtaining that, enough had been obtained from the king, and that it was undesirable further to weaken the power of the Crown. He was raised to the peerage under the title of Viscount Wentworth, and was made President of the Council of the North. Then he was made Lord-Deputy of Ireland, without ceasing to be President. It was the death of Buckingham that gave him his opening. He promised, when he took his seat in the Royal Council, to "vindicate the Monarchy for ever from the conditions and restraints of subjects."

(ii) Wentworth's policy and constant advice was **Economy.** In this way, and in this way only, would it be possible to govern without Parliament. Hence he made peace with France and Spain. But the Queen and her partisans were as extravagant as ever.

(iii) "Peace, economy, and arbitrary taxation were to solve the great problem of his policy—how to get money, yet not account for it."—GROOME.

(iv) "Charles had given his assent to the Petition of Right; he was fond of bidding Parliament rely on his 'Royal word'; but the thought of his pledge seems never to have troubled him for an instant."—GREEN.

**7. Ship-money.**—The king's standing and ever-present difficulty was want of money. He had recourse to every means to raise it—chiefly by the help of monopolies.[2] Coal, salt, iron, soap, leather, tobacco, beer, wine, butter, linen, hops, and buttons, were all placed, for certain large sums of money, in the hands of monopolists. In short, everything needed for daily use in an English household had been sold into the hands of these persons. "They sup in our cup," said a member of the Long Parliament, "they sip in our dish, they sit by our fire; we find them in the dye-vat, the wash-bowls, and the

[1] Persons who did not *conform* to the laws about religion or the Church of England as established by the State.

[2] Right to sell a thing placed in the hands *of one* person only (from the Greek *monos*, alone, and *poleo*, I sell).

powdering[1] tub; they share with the cutler in his box; they have marked and sealed us from head to foot." But, large as the sums obtained for monopolies were, Charles needed a more regular and trustworthy source of supply. And so, in 1634, a "renegade lawyer," Noy, the then Attorney-General, discovered a method of bringing in the necessary funds. This was the famous plan of **Ship-money**. Ship-money was an old tax, dating as far back as the Danish invasion. It was expected to raise a quarter of a million every year. There were many objections to it. First, it was a war-tax, and at present the country was at peace; secondly, it was imposed on inland counties, which had never before been called upon to pay it; thirdly, the money was going to be applied to the support of a standing army, and not to the fitting out of a fleet; and, lastly, the tax was imposed at the mere will and pleasure of the king, without the consent of Parliament being asked or given. The feeling of the nation was strong enough: "No Parliament, no Subsidies!" When a person or a corporation pleaded precedent, they were told that "the precedent was obedience." The money was quietly though grudgingly paid; until the feeling of the people found a voice in John Hampden, a country gentleman of Buckinghamshire. He declined to pay twenty shillings, the amount due from him as ship-money; and the case was argued before the twelve judges. Judgment was given by seven of the judges in favour of the Crown; but Charles lost more than he gained by his victory, and Hampden became the hero of the people and of Parliament.

**Ship-money 1634.**

(i) Charles wanted to make Ship-money—which he could rate at whatever height he pleased—a perpetual tax, to be levied by himself, whether Parliament agreed or not. He also quite expected that he never would have a Parliament to inquire into his actions.

(ii) Charles had many ways of raising money: (a) An old statute of Edward III. compelled all owners of land to the value of £40 a year "to take up their knighthood" and to pay the usual **Knight's fees** to the Crown. (b) The Royal Forests had been encroached on; and Charles compelled the present owners either to **give back** the lands, or to pay heavy **fines**. (c) The **estates** in Ulster conferred on the Corporation of London were **confiscated**, on the plea that they were mismanaged. (d) In defiance of positive laws, **monopolies** were once more granted. It was pretended that these exclusive rights were not technically monopolies, because they were granted to **Com-**

**(e) Ship-money.**

**(a) The Knight's fees distressed and irritated the county gentlemen.**

[1] Salting.

(b) The reclamation of the forests irritated the nobility. Buckingham Forest had shrunk, by their encroachments, from a breadth of sixty miles to a breadth of six.

(c) The confiscation of the Ulster Estates set the City of London against the king.

(d) "There was scarcely an industrious occupation, from the sale of coals to the collection of rags, that was not made the subject of a monopoly."

(e) We can get a very good idea of the size of our cities in the 17th century from the sums at which they were rated for Ship-money.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bristol is rated at | . | . | £800 | Birmingham not rated at all. | |
| Newcastle | ,, | . | 800 | Manchester | ,, ,, |
| Preston | ,, | . | 40 | Sheffield | ,, ,, |
| Liverpool | ,, | . | 25 | Bradford | ,, ,, |

(iii) Wentworth wrote from Ireland: "In truth I shall wish Mr. Hampden, and others to his likeness, were well whipped into their right senses." But Hampden's case took six weeks of "solemn pleading" in the Exchequer Chamber.

**8. Scotland.**—The Scotch had long been grumbling that Charles had never thought, since he came to the throne, of paying a visit to the country of his forefathers. Eight years, however, after his accession, in 1633, Charles, persuaded by their representations, went down to Edinburgh, and was crowned with great pomp in the Abbey Church at Holyrood. He was so heartily received by all classes, that nothing he could wish for seemed likely to be rejected. When he got back to London, Laud proposed that Episcopacy should be restored in Scotland, the Liturgy introduced, and Presbyterianism abolished. Charles, with his usual want of sense and tact, consented. But the opposition was both general and intense. The Dean of Edinburgh no sooner opened the new prayer-book in the Cathedral of St. Giles, than stools, books, and cushions were hurled at his head: the bishop and he had to flee for their lives, and were with difficulty smuggled back to their own homes. In keeping with the clumsy and generally too late concessions of Charles, it was discovered that the law made it binding on all persons to *buy* the prayer-book, but not necessarily to *use* it. This was in 1637. In 1638, nineteen-twentieths of the Scottish nation had signed the **National Covenant**, by which they bound themselves to uphold and "to defend the true religion," and to oppose all "innovations on the purity and liberty of the gospel." The popular party now became known as the Covenanters. A General Assembly of the Scotch Church met soon after at Glasgow, solemnly excommunicated the bishops, who were called by the Puritans "dumb dogs, antichristian mushrooms, and limbs of the beast," and abolished Prelacy. Charles was not expected to agree; and the Scotch Parliament seized the royal fortresses and stores, made an alliance with

**The National Covenant 1638.**

France, and sent Alexander Leslie with an army across the Border. Leslie seized Newcastle; and Charles had to call together, early in 1640, his fourth Parliament, which was called the **Short Parliament.** They insisted on discussing their grievances, and Charles only wanted money. They gave him none, and he dismissed them after a short sitting of about three weeks.

**The Short Parliament 1640.**

(i) The General Assembly at Glasgow, which consisted both of ministers (clergy) and of laymen, abolished Episcopacy in 1639.

(ii) "The Scots were thoroughly prepared. The kingdom swarmed with old soldiers who had served Germany in the Thirty Years' War; and thus, though Scotland had not been engaged in war for many years, she had at her disposal a veteran force to serve as a nucleus for her untrained levies."—GARDINER.

"Before the door of every captain was a colour bearing the Scottish arms, and a legend, in golden letters, 'For Christ's Crown and Covenant.'"

(iii) The English troops had no heart to fight; their provisions ran short; their officers were grumblers; the recruits did not care to learn how to shoot (one of them sent a ball into the king's tent); and Charles had to treat for peace. The Treaty was called the **Pacification of Berwick.**

(iv) The day named by the king for bringing the Liturgy into use in Scotland was the 16th of July 1637. There were riots and mobs, and a common petition called the *Great Supplication* was sent to the king. In 1638, the Privy Council of Scotland, finding it impossible to treat with a mob, persuaded the malcontents to choose representatives from the nobles, the lesser barons, the clergy, and the burgesses. This committee was known as the **Tables.** They renewed the National Covenant (first sworn to in 1581) in March 1638.

(v) In 1640 the Scots again appealed to arms, invaded England, fought a battle at **Newburn** (on the Tyne), and drove the raw English troops before them; and the king summoned the old **Magnum Concilium** (Council of Peers) at York. The Peers declared for a Parliament; Charles made a truce with the Scots, and called his **Fifth** (the Long) **Parliament** together.

(vi) The *Confession of Faith* was drawn up by an assembly of divines, which met at Westminster on the 12th of June 1643.

**9. The Long Parliament.**—This memorable Parliament, the fifth of Charles's reign, met on the 30th of November 1640. The large majority of its members were opposed to the king in politics, and were nonconformists in religion; and the leader of this—the popular party—was the great orator, **John Pym.** This party, said one of their opponents, "had heads to contrive, tongues to persuade, and hands to execute any mischief." Instead of granting supplies for the war of defence against the Scotch, the Parliament set themselves to undo the tyrannical acts of the past

**The Long Parliament 1640-53.**

eleven years. The decision regarding Ship-money was cancelled; the persons thrown into prison by Strafford[1] and Laud were set free; and it was resolved to impeach Strafford himself and to bring him to trial. Strafford was at York at this time, with the army in the north; but the king wrote him to come up to the House, and that no harm should happen either to his person or to his fortune. No sooner had he set foot in the House of Lords than Pym appeared at the bar of it with his impeachment for high treason. The bill of impeachment contained twenty-eight charges.

(i) The composition of the new House of Commons was very alarming. Gentlemen who had been imprisoned for refusing to pay forced loans, citizens who had been prosecuted for tonnage and poundage, persons who had opposed the king's government in different ways,—all these were chosen for counties or for boroughs. "For the fifth time during the reign of Charles, the people were looking to a Parliament that should establish the just distinction between an absolute monarchy and a free monarchy."

> "The Long Parliament—the most memorable parliament that England ever saw—the parliament which, for two centuries, has been the theme of the most extravagant hatred and the most exaggerated praise—this parliament has the one glory of having rendered it impossible that the Monarchy of England should endure except in alliance with representative freedom."—KNIGHT.

(ii) In this Parliament there were, on the Parliamentary side, not only John Pym, but John Hampden, John Selden, and Oliver Cromwell. On the king's side, there were Edward Hyde (afterwards Lord Clarendon), and Lucius Carey (Lord Falkland).

(iii) Pym's speech against Strafford was "an appeal to the rule of law from the rule of will."

**10. The Execution of Strafford.**—The trial began on the 22d of March 1641, in Westminster Hall. Ladies crowded the galleries; the king was there too, seated in a private cabinet behind a curtain. Strafford asked for time to prepare his defence; but he was compelled to answer on the spot, and for fifteen days he struggled with the most wonderful courage, ingenuity, and readiness, against the long array of accusations. Loud cries of sympathy on the one hand, and of intense hatred on the other, burst now and then from every part of the vast hall. At last, the Commons, seeing they could not prove him guilty of treason, took the matter entirely into their own hands, and brought in a Bill of Attainder declaring him guilty. Fifty-nine of the Commons voted against the measure, and their names were posted up in the streets under the heading, "Straffordians, who to save a traitor would betray their country." The one hope for his life lay in the king. The Earl wrote a letter to

**Trial of Strafford 1641.**

[1] WENTWORTH had been created EARL OF STRAFFORD in 1639.

Charles, desiring that he might die rather than be an occasion of further strife in the kingdom; but no true king would have taken him at his word. Charles, however, who had given him his royal word of honour that no Parliament should touch a hair of his head, put his signature to the bill on the 10th of May, saying, with a deep sigh, "The Earl of Strafford is a happier man than I am." When Pym heard that Charles had signed the bill of attainder, he exclaimed "Has he given us Strafford? Then he can refuse us nothing!" And when Strafford was told of his fate, he quietly said, "Put not your trust in princes, for in them is no salvation." On the 12th of May he walked to the scaffold on Tower Hill, in sight of crowds of exultant foes. "I know how to look death in the face, and the people too," he said to his friends; "I thank God I am no more afraid of death, but as cheerfully put off my doublet at this time as ever I did when I went to bed." When the axe fell, a great shout of joy rent the air, bonfires blazed, the bells clashed out the news, and the people ran about waving their hats, and shouting, "His head is off! his head is off!" With the head of Strafford fell the system of government he had tried to establish; and from that date the fortunes of Charles himself steadily declined.

(i) "So great it was that we can hardly call it the trial of the Earl of Strafford only. The king's affections towards his people and parliament, the future success of this parliament, and the hopes of three kingdoms dependent upon it, were all tried when Strafford was arraigned."—MAY.

(ii) Strafford was tried under a statute of Edward III. It was impossible to prove that he had been guilty of treason against the king; it was difficult to show that he had been guilty of treason against the State; and hence, on the thirteenth day of the trial, Pym moved in the House of Commons that the proceedings should take the form of a Bill of Attainder.

(iii) The Bill of Attainder passed both Houses; Charles himself said in the House of Lords that "my Lord Strafford is not fit hereafter to serve me or the commonwealth in any place of trust—no, not so much as that of a constable." Strafford wrote to Charles not to allow him to stand between the king and his people; and Charles was mean enough to take him at his word.

> "He walked to the scaffold with the step and manner of a general marching at the head of an army, to breathe victory, rather than those of a condemned man, to undergo the sentence of death. As he passed the windows of Laud's prison, he asked his blessing, and, moving on, exclaimed, 'God protect your innocency!' Laud fell back insensible."

(iv) A fortnight after the execution of Strafford, a bill for the complete abolition of Episcopacy, called the **Root and Branch Bill**, was brought into the House of Commons.

**11. The Crisis.**—When Parliament assembled after the autumn holidays, they drew up, and passed by a majority of eleven, a docu-

ment called **The Grand Remonstrance**, which they presented to the king, printed, and circulated throughout the country. This document recited all the acts of tyranny and misgovernment which had been committed during the last sixteen years; and sometimes the discussion grew so hot in the House, that threats were made, and swords drawn and kept with points on the floor ready for use. "Had the Remonstrance been rejected," said Cromwell as he was leaving the House, "I would have sold to-morrow all I have in the world, and left England for ever." The king tried to buy over Pym—**King Pym**, as he was called both by his friends and his foes—to his side; he was offered the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, but he declined.—It now entered Charles's unfortunate and ill-advised head to instruct his Attorney-General to impeach five of the foremost members of the House of Commons, and one of the Peers, as guilty of treason in corresponding with the Scots. These were Lord Kimbolton, and Hampden, Pym, Haselrig, Holles, and Strode. They fled into the City. Next day Charles summoned three hundred gentlemen to follow him. Before starting, the Queen said to him, "Go along, you coward, and pull these rascals out by the ears!" Kissing her, he promised her that he should come back to her within an hour master of his kingdom. Vain boast, and ill-omened proceeding! Charles walked down to the House of Commons, left his soldiers at the door (where they eagerly waited for orders to enter, and with threatening gestures asked each other, "When comes the word?") and strode down the middle passage of the House up to the Speaker. "Mr. Speaker," he said, "I must for a time borrow your chair!" Cries of "Privilege! Privilege!" rose from different parts of the House. "Treason," replied the king, "has no privilege; and therefore I am come to know if any of the persons accused are here." There was no answer; a dead silence reigned in the House. "Is Mr. Pym here?" he went on. Still no answer. Then he turned to the Speaker, Lenthall, and asked whether the five members were in the House. Lenthall fell upon his knees and replied that he had neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak anything save what the House commanded him to say or to see. "Well, well," retorted Charles in a rage, "'tis no matter. I think my eyes are as good as another's. My birds are flown, I think; but I do expect you will send them to me." The

**The Grand Remonstrance Nov. 1641.**

**Attempted Arrest of Five Members 1642.**

train-bands of the city and the watermen of London brought back the five members a few days after, from the City to Westminster, in a splendid procession, amidst the cheering of dense crowds, the rattle of musketry, and the roar of cannon. Charles's last card was now played; and on the 10th of January 1642 he left London, never to return to it again until he was brought to St. James's as a prisoner doomed to a terrible death.

(i) "If Strafford embodied the spirit of tyranny, **John Pym** stands out for all after time as the embodiment of law."—GREEN.

(ii) "The debate on the **Grand Remonstrance** was the great trial of strength in the House of Commons. That debate began at nine o'clock in the morning of the 22d of November. It went on through that day till it grew dark. Candles were called for. . . . The Remonstrance was adopted by 159 votes against 148."—KNIGHT. Swords were drawn; and "all sat in the valley of the shadow of death."

(iii) "Thousands of the best scholars, merchants, lawyers, farmers, were flying over the Atlantic to seek freedom and purity of religion in the wilderness."—GREEN.

> "Fain would their feet have stayed in the home of their fathers of old;
> But they waited and none would aid; they wondered that none would uphold.
> Then they arose at the last; they set their faces to go,
> Spread the sail to the bending mast,—bade the east wind blow."—MYERS.

(iv) The whole House followed the five members to the City, and sat daily at Guildhall.

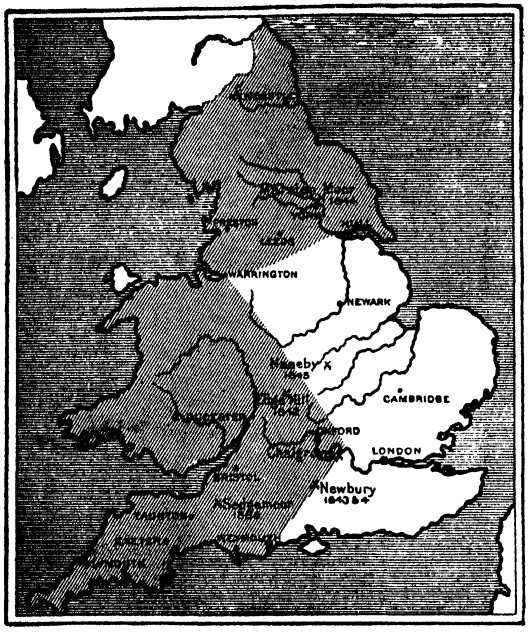
(v) The accused members were brought back to the Parliament Stairs the week after. From London Bridge to Westminster the Thames was covered with boats, pleasure-barges and wherries, dressed with streamers, and some carrying cannon.

**12. Civil War.**—There was nothing for it now but war. Both sides—Cavaliers and Roundheads[1]—were exasperated and defiant. Charles hurried with his queen to Dover, and sent her off to Holland with the crown jewels, which she was to sell or pawn to get money for the carrying on of the war. London and the eastern counties—"the hot-bed of Puritanism"—were on the Parliamentary side; the north, the west, and the counties near Wales inclined to the king. The colleges of Oxford and Cambridge melted down their plate and gave it to him, and many of the students and fellows enlisted under his banner. On the 22d of August—a wet, bleak, and stormy day—Charles raised his standard on the Castle Hill at Nottingham. In April he had gone to Hull, the magazine of the north, and demanded its surrender; and the Governor, Sir John Hotham, fell on his knees before the king, but refused to open the gates.—The Earl of Essex took the command of the

**Civil War begins August 22 1642.**

[1] Called so because they had their hair cut very short.

Parliamentary army; the Earl of Lindsay was at the head of the royal troops, with Prince Rupert—a nephew of the king's — as his assistant.




(i) "The north-west of England—in the days when coal and iron combined formed no portion of the national wealth, the rudest and least thickly populated part of the country—took the king's side; whilst the south-east, with its fertile lands, its commercial and manufacturing activity, and its superabundant wealth, was on the side of the Parliament."—GARDINER.

(ii) **The Earl of Essex** was the son of Elizabeth's favourite.

(iii) **Prince Rupert** was the son of Elizabeth, Charles's sister, who married Frederick, the Elector Palatine. He was only twenty-three when Charles made him general of his horse; and he was too ready to take his own way.

**13. The First Battle.**—The first battle of the civil war took place at **Edgehill**, near Banbury, on the 23d of October. Nothing could withstand the dashing charge of Rupert's cavaliers. Whole regiments turned and fled; and the day would have been the king's, had not the hot-headed Rupert fallen to plundering the Parliamentary baggage, while the infantry of Essex, led by Essex himself, was restoring the battle. When night closed, neither party had the advantage. But Oliver Cromwell, a country gentleman from Huntingdonshire, remarked that night to his cousin, John Hampden, that it was "plain that men of religion were wanted to withstand these gentlemen of honour." In February 1643 the queen arrived with four ships, landed at Bridlington in Yorkshire; and the royal army was pushed across the

**Battle of Edgehill, October 23 1642.**

Trent, and marched into the eastern counties. In June of this year, the blameless and dauntless Hampden was mortally wounded in a skirmish on **Chalgrove Field** in Oxfordshire; and in the first battle of **Newbury**, a man whose heart was solely in his country, and who detested party strife, but felt himself called upon to side with the king—Lucius Carey (Lord Falkland)—fell in the ranks of the Royalist army, repeating the words, "Peace! Peace!" He had often said that he was weary of strife, and that the war was breaking his heart; and thus to him death came as a friend and a relief.

**First Battle of Newbury 1643.**

(i) "Your troops," Cromwell said to Hampden, "are most of them old decayed serving-men, and tapsters, and such kind of fellows, and their troops are gentlemen's sons, younger sons, and persons of quality: do you think that the spirits of such base and mean fellows will ever be able to encounter gentlemen, that have honour and courage and resolution in them?"

(ii) **Lord Falkland** was eager for death, and "put himself in the front ranks."

"A man who leaves the popular cause when it is triumphant, and joins the party opposed to it, without really changing his principles and becoming a renegade, is one of the noblest characters in history. . . . This man is no renegade, no apostate, but the purest of martyrs! And such a martyr was Falkland!"—ARNOLD.

**14. Marston Moor.**—Towards the end of 1643 the English Parliament made an appeal to Scotland for help—incited to this step partly by the fact that Charles had sent to Ireland for troops and money. The two Parliaments accordingly made a league—on the basis of the abolition of Episcopacy, the establishment of Presbyterianism, and the free power of Parliament. After this league was signed, twenty thousand Scottish troops crossed the Border, and marched on to **Marston Moor**, not far from York, where they joined the Parliamentary forces. At this spot their combined armies were met by the royal troops. The battle began at seven in the evening of the 2d of July 1644. For the first time, the horse drilled and trained by Cromwell met the dashing and brilliant cavalry of Prince Rupert; the stern, God-fearing "men of religion" met face to face with the gallant "gentlemen of honour"; and the victory of the Parliamentary troops—a victory mainly due to Cromwell—was complete. "We never charged," wrote Cromwell, "but we routed the enemy. The left wing, which I commanded, being our own horse, saving a few Scots in our rear, beat all the Prince's horse. God made them as stubble to our swords."

**Marston Moor 1644.**

(i) **Marston Moor** was fatal to the king's cause in the North. The king, however, had a success in the west, and compelled the army of Essex to surrender at Lostwithiel (in Cornwall).

(ii) In the end of 1644 was fought the **Second** Battle of Newbury.

**15. Oliver Cromwell.**—Archbishop Laud had been lying in the Tower since 1641; and he was condemned, like Strafford, by a Bill of Attainder in the last month of 1644, and executed on Tower Hill in January 1645.—The Puritan party had been gradually growing stronger every year; and, in the Puritan party, the section called the **Independents** had been slowly but surely coming to the front in Parliament, in the nation, and in the army. Their leader was the famous Oliver Cromwell, who is described by a contemporary—also a member of the House of Commons—as "very ordinarily apparelled in a plain cloth suit, which seemed to have been made by an ill country tailor. His hat was without a hat-band. His stature was of a good size; his sword stuck close to his side; his countenance swollen and reddish; his voice sharp and untunable, and his eloquence full of fervour." This was the leader of the Independents, or, as they were sometimes called, *Root and Branch Men.* This party carried through the House an Act called the **Self-denying Ordinance**, by which it was made illegal for any member of Parliament to hold a command in the army. Lords Essex and Manchester were thus removed; young Sir Thomas Fairfax was made commander-in-chief; and Cromwell, in spite of being still in the House, became general of the cavalry.

**The Self-denying Ordinance 1644.**

(i) The execution of Laud was a piece of useless vengeance. The power of his ecclesiastical courts was at an end; his own power was nil; even the liturgy of the Church of England, which had been tolerated before, was now abolished.

(ii) **Cromwell's** services were retained by a special Act of Parliament, which was renewed every forty days.

**16. The New Model, 1645.**—Cromwell now carried out the principles on which he had trained his Ironsides to the reorganisation of the whole army; and his plan on this larger scale became known as the New Model. The purpose in this was to bring together twenty thousand "honest," that is, trustworthy, men; and the army of the New Model consisted chiefly of farmers from the eastern counties, who formed the larger number of its

**The New Model 1645.**

privates,—both officers and men being strong young fellows, who would permit no swearing or drinking, nor any kind of vice or disorder in their ranks. They sang psalms and hymns as they moved to battle. They were serious, God-fearing men, who lived and died "as ever in their great Taskmaster's eye."

(i) "The principles on which Cromwell had formed his Ironsides were carried out on a larger scale in the 'New Model.' The one aim was to get together twenty thousand 'honest' men. . . . The bulk of those in high command remained men of noble or gentle blood, Montagues, Fortescues, Sidneys, and the like. But side by side with these were seen officers like Ewer, who had been a serving-man, like Okey, who had been a drayman, or Rainsborough, who had been 'a skipper at sea'."—GREEN.

(ii) In the **New Model**, "not a man swears but he pays his twelve pence."

**17. The Battle of Naseby.**—Their character and courage were severely proved on the field of **Naseby**, not far from Northampton. The king was in high spirits, and eager to fight; Cromwell, in command of a set of "poor, ignorant men," trusted to "the things that are not" to "bring to nought the things that are." Nothing could resist the charge of the Ironsides:

> "Their heads all stooping low, their points all in a row,
> Like a whirlwind on the trees, like a deluge on the dikes,
> Our cuirassiers have burst on the ranks of the accurst,
> And at a shock have scattered the forest of the pikes.'

They broke the Royalist horse at one charge; they then swept down upon the foot at the very moment when they had gained a victory over the Parliamentarians; the royal reserve fled; the battle was over; and the war was ended at a blow. The artillery, the baggage, and even the royal papers, fell into the hands of the conquerors; and Charles fled for safety and for fresh forces into Wales (1645).

(i) By the victory of **Naseby**, "the war was ended at a blow." "Charles was beaten into utter ruin. He never ventured to lift his head again in the field."

(ii) "The most precious spoil of the day was 'the king's cabinet,' which, when opened, disclosed secrets which more injured his cause than any victory of his enemies. . . . Foreign princes were asked to send their soldiers to conquer rebel England. The dreaded Papists were to be freed from every restraint on the condition of such assistance."—KNIGHT.

**18. Scotland.**—Montrose had gained six battles for the king in Scotland; the king's cause seemed to be growing stronger there; but all these hopes were quickly blighted by the crushing defeat of the Marquis by David Leslie at **Philiphaugh**, near Selkirk, in 1645.

**19. Negotiations.**—Charles now began to reopen communications with the Long Parliament. During the war this Parliament had been gradually breaking up into two parties,—the one Presbyterian and constitutional, desirous of establishing Presbyterianism, and upholding, while limiting, the power of the king; the other, Independent, and indeed republican, caring little for the throne, and still less for the king who was then sitting upon it. Charles's only chance now was to play the one party off against the other; and this chance he saw clearly. His best hopes seemed to lie on the side of the Presbyterians; and accordingly he gave himself up to the Scottish army at Newark. From this vantage-ground he began to treat with the Parliament. They demanded from the king the complete control of the army and navy for twenty years; the abolition of Episcopacy; and the establishment of a Presbyterian Church. The Scotch urged these terms upon the king with tears; some of his warmest friends earnestly entreated him to accept them; but Charles was playing a game. "I am not without hope," he wrote, "but I shall be able to draw either the Presbyterians or the Independents to side with me for extirpating one another, so that I shall be really king again."

**The Scots leave England 1646.**

Soon after, the Scotch gave him up into the hands of the Parliament; and on receiving £400,000 of arrears of pay due to them, they retired across the Tweed. Charles was lodged in Holmby House in Northamptonshire. Here Cornet Joyce, at the head of a troop of horse—acting, it is said, under secret orders from Cromwell—appeared one morning, seized him, and carried him off. "Where is your commission?" said the king. "There, behind me," answered Joyce, and pointed to his sturdy troop. "Believe me," replied Charles, smiling, "your instructions are written in a very legible character."

(i) "Beaten in open warfare, the king now resorted to the more dangerous weapons of craft and intrigue. His ultimate destruction may in a great degree be attributed to the fatal course of endeavouring to win by stratagem what he despaired of attaining by arms—a course which he pursued through so many winding paths after the decisive summer of 1645."—KNIGHT.

(ii) Charles was never sincere in his negotiations: he used words, not to convey, but to hide, his true meaning. This is proved by a letter of his to Queen Henrietta, dated Oxford, Jan. 18, 1646: "Though I have stretched my wits to persuade them to accept of my personal treaty, yet examine my words well, and thou wilt find that I have not engaged myself in anything against my grounds. For, first, I am sure that there can be no scruple as concerning the Church. Then, for Ireland and the militia,

it is true that it may be I give them leave to hope for more than I intended, but my words are only to endeavour to give them satisfaction in either." Hallam says: "Charles had unhappily long been in the habit of perverting his natural acuteness to the mean subterfuges of equivocal language." He forgot that those with whom he was treating would examine his words with the greatest care.

**20. Charles a Prisoner.**—He was now a prisoner of the army, but well lodged in the Palace at Hampton Court; and he was still full of hope that the disunion of his enemies would enable him to play the one off against the other. He did this so cleverly, that at last neither side could trust him at all. He began himself to forget where he was, and on what footing he was with each party; while they, on the other hand, could not find out on what ground *they* stood. He was bland and courteous to the Levellers,[1] and sent them away from an interview with him well content; he was just as bland and courteous to "a coachful of Presbyterian priests," who left him immediately after, equally satisfied. He thought neither party "could do without him." Even when events were hastening on to their terrible end, he one day remarked: "I have three more cards to play, the worst of which will give me back everything." From Hampton Court he made his escape to Carisbrooke Castle in the Isle of Wight, thinking that the governor, Colonel Hammond, would prove his friend. From Carisbrooke he tried to escape; but this attempt was frustrated, and he was removed to the "dog-lodgings" of Hurst Castle, at the mouth of the Solent.—A diversion in his favour was made from Scotland; and a Scottish army, composed of Royalists and Presbyterians, led by the Duke of Hamilton, marched into England. Cromwell met them at **Preston** and broke them up after a few hours' fighting, fought them again at **Wigan** and **Warrington**, and next day most of the army surrendered. When Charles heard the story, he said it was "the worst news that ever came to England." The army was fired with anger against the king.

**Charles at Hampton Court 1647.**

**Battle of Preston, July 1648.**

(1) Charles's main idea was to play off the two parties—the **Presbyterians** and the **Independents**—against each other. The army was on the side of the Independents; the Presbyterians were much the strongest in Parliament. Charles thought that the monarchy was indispensable in England. He said to Ireton and others: "You cannot be without me; you will fall to ruin if I do not sustain you."

On one occasion the king said, "I shall play my game as well as I can." Ireton replied: "If your Majesty have a game to play, you must also give us the liberty to play ours."

[1] A set of men who wished to do away with all *ranks* in Church and State, and to *level* everything.

(ii) The army came to a terrible resolution: "That it is our duty, that, if ever the Lord brings us back again in peace, to call Charles Stuart, that man of blood, to an account for that blood he has shed, and mischief he has done to his utmost, against the Lord's cause and people in these poor nations."

(iii) "He had drawn the sword, and by the sword he perished, for it was the army, and not Parliament, that stood at the back of his judges."—GROOME.

**21. Pride's Purge.**—The army now marched back to London, full of vengeful feelings against the king, who had given them all this labour, and determined to have a complete stop put to his proceedings. On the 7th of December 1648, Colonel Pride appeared in Westminster Hall, which he filled with his regiment of foot, and took up his post at the door of the House of Commons, with Lord Grey of Groby at his side. He had in his hand a list of members of the Long Parliament who were considered "unfaithful to the public interests"—that is, of those who still wished to treat with the king. As each member came up, Lord Grey gave a sign that he should or should not pass in. Those who were stopped were handed over to the soldiers, who escorted them to a tavern, where they were kept for the night. About a hundred altogether were excluded; but business went on in the House just as if all were present. This clearing out of the members who took the king's side was called Pride's Purge. The Presbyterian majority was cleared out; and the remains of the House left—fifty-three Independents, afterwards known as the **Rump**—voted that the king should be brought to trial for treason against the Parliament; and, as the House of Lords refused to concur, that House was closed, and a *High Court of Justice* was appointed for the king's trial. The President of the Court was John Bradshaw, and among its more notable members were Cromwell and his son-in-law, Henry Ireton. The Court numbered one hundred and thirty-five members, but only fifty-eight attended all the meetings.

Pride's Purge, December 1648.

(i) "By what right do you act?" a member asked. "By the right of the sword," was the reply.

(ii) On the 2d of January 1649, a vote passed the House of Commons that, in making war against Parliament, Charles had been guilty of high treason

**22. The Trial of Charles.**—On the 19th of January 1649, the king was brought from Windsor in a coach and six to his Palace of St. James's. Next day he was carried in a sedan chair to West-

minster Hall, where the High Court of Justice was sitting. Sixty-nine members were present; and after they had been called and had answered to their names, Bradshaw ordered the sergeant to bring in the prisoner. In silence and gloom the king took the chair that was set for him. He did not move his hat, but looked round sternly and contemptuously. No one of the sixty-nine uncovered or rose from his seat. The clerk of the court is called upon to read the charge, in which the king is termed "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of this nation." He laughs in the face of the court; he refuses to plead. "Where are the Peers," he asks, "who alone can sit in judgment on a Peer?" The trial lasts seven days, amid shouts of "Justice! justice!" from the soldiers, and here and there a bold solitary cry of "God save the King!" Thirty-two witnesses are examined; the king is brought in guilty; the clerk reads the sentence of the court, that his head be severed from his body: "and the commissioners testify their unanimous assent by standing up." The king now attempted to speak; "but," says Ludlow, one of the commissioners, "being accounted dead in law, he was not permitted." The names of fifty-nine members of the court were subscribed to the warrant of execution, and "Charles Stuart, king of England," was "to be put to death by the severing of his head from his body," on the "thirtieth day of this instant month of January, between the hours of ten in the morning and five in the afternoon."

Trial of Charles I., January 1649.

(i) The President of the "High Court of Justice" was **John Bradshaw**, a cousin of Milton's. When the charge of being "a tyrant and a traitor" was read, Charles laughed in the face of the court. He then said: "I should like to know by what *lawful* power I am brought here, before I answer your charge." Bradshaw's reply was: "We are here to-day acting in the name of the people of England." Charles: "No, sir; I deny this." Bradshaw: "If you object to the lawfulness of the court, I must tell you that any such objection will be entirely useless. You must plead; or the court will regard you as confessing the charge." Charles: "I see no Lords here. Where are the Peers, who alone have power to try the king? I tell you this court is no court before which a king can be tried. It has been appointed by a Parliament which is not a Parliament. A true Parliament consists of King, Lords, and Commons: was this court appointed by such a Parliament?" The legal point made by the king was perfectly sound: but these were, in fact, times of revolution; and the court was a revolutionary tribunal.

(ii) The trial lasted five days, and thirty-two witnesses were examined to prove that Charles had tried to subvert the laws and to introduce arbitrary and tyrannical government.

**23. The Execution of Charles.**—From St. James's Palace he walked on that morning—a bitterly cold morning, frost so hard that the Thames was frozen over—surrounded by soldiers, through the leafless avenues of St. James's Park, to the Banqueting-Chamber at Whitehall. He had dressed with great care, and had put on two shirts, it was so cold. He left the palace at ten, and remained in his room at Whitehall for three hours engaged in prayer. He then took the sacrament from the hands of his friend Dr. Juxon, bishop of London, and declared himself ready. The scaffold was surrounded by soldiers; the streets and house-roofs were black with wondering spectators; Charles walked to his doom with noble and serene dignity; two masked headsmen stood waiting as he ascended the scaffold; his head fell at one blow; and when the executioner lifted it up, with the words, "This is the head of a traitor!" a deep groan of pity broke from the silent and awe-stricken crowd.

**Execution of Charles, Jan. 30 1649.**

**24. Character of Charles.**—"Nothing in his life," says a historian, "became him like the leaving of it." "It would be unjust," says Macaulay, "to deny that Charles had some of the qualities of a good, and even of a great, prince." But he was of a warm, and even passionate nature; he was self-willed, impatient of opposition, very unwilling to listen to or to take any advice that did not agree with his own way of thinking; and hence he was quite unfit for the position of a constitutional king. Nor had he the great virtue of sincerity; on the contrary, he was always "playing a game," until even his own friends did not understand him, and he found himself standing alone in the midst of thick-coming dangers. He had not governed well; he had not understood his own circumstances or the new forces that were growing up in the nation; and though his execution was "the work of a small but bold minority," things would never have come to so terrible a pass had it not been for his own wilfulness and weakness. The struggle in this reign was between absolute and constitutional monarchy; and the constitution triumphed.

(i) "Vices, other than duplicity, he had none. He was vague, vacillating, obstinate, unable to lead or to be led; superstitious, heedful of omens; unsympathetic and reserved where he did not love; intolerant of opposition to his will. But he was a good husband, a good father, a good churchman—no man so good was ever so bad a king; no man so fallible believed so honestly in his infallibility."—HINDES-GROOME.

(ii) "Charles I., narrow, obstinate, and imperious, was without the Scotch canniness and turn for compromise which had saved his father in his worst hours."

**25. The Work of Parliament** (i).—The chief work of all King Charles's Parliaments was the assertion of the ancient constitutional rights of the people—an assertion which in time grew into a claim for new and much greater rights than it had ever enjoyed before. The **First Parliament** met in 1625, and granted tonnage and poundage for one year only, while the usual custom was to confer it on the king for life. It was plain that the House of Commons wished to keep as much power as possible in its own hands. This Parliament was quickly dissolved. The **Second Parliament** met in 1626. Charles tried to keep out his opponents by pricking them for sheriffs (no sheriff being eligible for Parliament), and by omitting to send a writ to the Earl of Bristol. Both actions were unconstitutional—the first in the spirit, the second both in the spirit and in the letter. This Parliament, instead of granting supplies, set to work to appoint Committees (on Privileges, on Religion, and on the State of the Country), and to impeach Buckingham. The king soon dissolved it, and proceeded to raise money by forced loans, and by levying tonnage and poundage, without the consent of Parliament. The **Third Parliament** met in 1628, and was called by Charles only because he was very greatly in need of money. Instead of granting supplies, it drew up the **PETITION OF RIGHT**, to which the king was obliged to give his assent. Parliament then granted five subsidies. This Parliament was dissolved in 1629; Sir John Elliot and other members were thrown into the Tower; and, for eleven years after, Charles governed the country without the aid of Parliament. Indeed, it is certain that Charles, with the aid of Wentworth (Strafford) and Laud, would have ruled the kingdom despotically to the end of his reign, had circumstances and the temper of the English people permitted him.

**26. The Work of Parliament** (ii).—The **Fourth Parliament** did not meet till the fateful year of 1640. The Scots had, in the year before, declared war and marched to the Border. Charles thought that his English Parliament would support him against the Scots; but "King Pym" at once rose and called the attention of the Commons to the numerous illegal acts that had been committed by the Crown in the last eleven years. This Parliament was dissolved

after it had sat for about three weeks, and is hence called the **Short Parliament**. The **Fifth** or **Long Parliament** met in November of the same year. It impeached Lord Strafford; passed the **Triennial Act**; turned the bishops out of the House of Lords; forced the king to agree that it should neither be adjourned nor dissolved without its own consent; abolished the Courts of **Star-Chamber**, the **Council of the North**, and the **High Commission Court**; and passed various statutes against the levying of ship-money and other illegal taxes. In 1641 it met again, and passed the **GRAND REMONSTRANCE**. In 1642, the king failing in his attempt to seize a member of the House of Lords and five members of the House of Commons, left London; and the Parliamentary War began. In 1643, the Long Parliament signed the **Solemn League and Covenant**, and thus joined heart and hand with Scotland. In 1647 Parliament tried to reduce the army; but without success. They then tried to disband it; but the army refused to go home.—In 1648, Colonel Pride expelled the Presbyterian majority from the House of Commons; and only the Independents (fifty-three in number), or "**the Rump**," remained. This minority created a "High Court of Justice," which tried, condemned, and beheaded the king.

(i) The **Petition of Right** contained four clauses. The most important were: (i) No gift, loan, or tax to be paid without authority of Parliament; (ii) no one to be imprisoned contrary to law.

(ii) The **Petition of Right** is one of the corner-stones of constitutional freedom, and is indeed a confirmation of Magna Charta. It ranks with **Magna Charta** (1215), with the **Confirmatio Chartarum** (1297), and the **Habeas Corpus Act** (1679).

(iii) The king gave his "assent" to the Petition of Right; but the *form* of assent was altered in the printing office; and Charles went on collecting tonnage and poundage as before. This was one of the first acts which shook the confidence of the English people in him.

(iv) "The Short Parliament lasted three weeks; the Long Parliament outlasted Charles."

(v) The **Triennial Act** contained two main clauses: (i) Parliament must not sit for more than three years; (ii) The kingdom is not to be without a parliament for more than three years.

(vi) The **Solemn League and Covenant** (1643) was practically an international treaty between Scotland and England, to secure the civil and religious liberties of both kingdoms. The **National Covenant** (1638) was a private undertaking of the Scottish people among themselves.

(vii) **The Grand Remonstrance** was not so much an Act of Parliament, as an Appeal to the English people against the king. It contained 206 clauses, and recited all the unconstitutional acts of the king's government since the first year of the reign.

**27. Great Men.**—Among the prominent men of this reign who were advisers of the king are **George Villiers,** Duke of Buckingham, **Thomas Wentworth,** Earl of Strafford, and **William Laud,** Archbishop of Canterbury. After the death of Buckingham, Charles never gave his complete confidence to any one. Strafford and Laud were the chief promoters of the policy of THOROUGH: the former was meanly deserted in his hour of extreme need by Charles; the latter he could not help. The most distinguished members of the House of Commons were **John Pym** ("King Pym"), **Sir John Elliot,** and **John Hampden,** on the side of Parliament. On the side of the king were **Edward Hyde,** afterwards Earl Clarendon, and **Lord Falkland.** In the Civil War, by far the greatest leader and most skilful organiser was **Oliver Cromwell,** who also distinguished himself as an able member of Parliament. Next to him comes Thomas, **Lord Fairfax**; the **Earl of Essex,** who was, however, much too slow in his movements; and, after Essex, **Lord Manchester** (formerly Lord Kimbolton).

(i) "If ever there were a man to whom the epithet 'magnanimous' could be rightfully applied—from the moment when he irrevocably chose his part to the hour when he laid his head upon the block—that man was Strafford."

(ii) "**Strafford** was a great Englishman, who, when the real meaning of the conflict became clear, chose his side with characteristic decision, fought for it without swerving through long years of bodily weakness, of misunderstanding, and of ingratitude, and died with all his wounds in front."

**28. Social Facts.**—In spite of Charles's arbitrary government and illegal taxation, the prosperity of the country increased every year, because commerce had, in the previous reign, found its way into channels in which it flowed with ease and fertility. To add to the facilities of intercourse, which are the primary conditions of commerce, a central **Post Office** for England and Scotland was established in 1635. A weekly conveyance of letters to *all* parts of the kingdom was begun in 1649—that is, all parts of England; and the chief towns in Scotland considered themselves happy if they received their letters regularly once a week. Van Diemen's Land, now called **Tasmania,** was discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman in the year 1642.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF CHARLES I.'s REIGN.

**1625. Accession of Charles.**

Charles marries Henrietta Maria of France.

**First Parliament.**

Grants tonnage and poundage for only one year. The king declines to take it.

**1626. Second Parliament.**

(a) Buckingham impeached.

(b) Money collected by forced loans.

**1627. War against France** declared.

Expedition to Isle of Rhé fails.

**1628. Third Parliament.**

**PETITION OF RIGHT.**

(a) Laud the king's adviser in Church affairs.

(b) Buckingham assassinated at Portsmouth.

(c) Wentworth now sides with the king.

**1629. Parliament dissolved.**

**No Parliament** for eleven years.

(a) Sir John Elliot sent to the Tower.

(b) Wentworth, Laud, Noy, etc., the advisers of the king.

**1632.** Death of Sir John Elliot in the Tower.

**1633. Wentworth Lord-Deputy of Ireland.**

**Laud Archbishop of Canterbury.**

**1634. First Writ for Ship-money** (limited to sea-coast counties and towns).

**1635. Second Writ for Ship-money** (extended to inland counties and towns).

**1637. John Hampden refuses** to pay Ship-money.

**1639. Pacification of Berwick.**

**1640. Fourth Parliament.**

(a) The Scots invade England.

(b) Last sitting of the High Commission Court.

**Fifth Parliament.**

(a) Wentworth (Lord Strafford) impeached.

(b) Laud impeached.

**1641. Triennial Act.**

(a) Bill of Attainder against Strafford (April 21).

(b) Execution of Strafford (May 12).

(c) "Root and Branch" Bill.

(d) Abolition of Star-Chamber, High Commission Court, and Council of the North.

**THE GRAND REMONSTRANCE.**

**1642. The king tries to arrest Five Members in the House itself.**

**FIRST CIVIL WAR.**

(a) The Commons ask for the command of the Militia. King refuses.

(b) King's Standard raised at Nottingham.

(c) Essex, Captain-General of the Parliamentary Army.

Battle of **Edgehill.**

(d) Income-tax levied by Parliament.

**1643. Chalgrove Field.**

Death of Hampden.

**First Battle of Newbury.**

Falkland falls.

**Parliament signs The Solemn League and Covenant.**

Death of John Pym.

**1644.** The Scots Army enters England.

**MARSTON MOOR.**

**Second Battle of Newbury.**

**Self-denying Ordinance.**

**1645. Execution of Laud.**

**New Model.**

**Battle of Naseby.**

Battle of Rowton Heath. Last in the open field.

**1646.** The king joins the Scots army at Newark.

**1647. King given up by the Scots.**

(a) The king is seized by Cornet Joyce.

(b) The king flees from Hampton Court to the Isle of Wight.

**1648. SECOND CIVIL WAR.**

**Battle of Preston.**

**Pride's Purge.**

**1649. Trial of Charles by the High Court of Justice** (Jan. 20).

**Execution of Charles** (Jan. 30).

## THE CHIEF BATTLES IN THE PARLIAMENTARY WAR.

(P. means gained by Parliamentarians; R. by Royalists; D. Doubtful.)

**1640.** Battle of Newburn (on the Tyne).

**1642.** **EDGEHILL.** D.

**1643.** **Reading.** P.
Chalgrove Field. R.
Roundway Down. R.
**Newbury** (First). D.

**1644.** **Cropredy Bridge.** R.
**MARSTON MOOR.** P.
**Newbury** (Second). P.

**1645.** **NASEBY.** P.
**Philiphaugh** (in Scotland). P.

**1648.** **Preston.** P.
Wigan. P.
Warrington. P.
**Uttoxeter.** P.

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1628.** Defeat of the Huguenots at La Rochelle.

**1632.** Death of Gustavus Adolphus in the Battle of Lützen.

**1633.** Wentworth in Ireland.

**1634.** Murder of Wallenstein.

**1638.** The **National Covenant** in Scotland.

**1639.** Abolition of Episcopacy in Scotland.
East India Company are permitted by Native Princes to establish a factory or trading storehouse at Madras. First piece of English territory in India.

**1641.** **The Incident** in Scotland.
**IRISH REBELLION.**

**1643.** Accession of Louis XIV. of France.
The "New England Corporation."

**1644.** Capture of Perth by Montrose.

**1645.** Defeat of Montrose at Philiphaugh.

**1648.** Invasion of England by the Scots Army.

# CHAPTER III.

# THE COMMONWEALTH

## OLIVER CROMWELL

Born 1599. Protector (at the age of 54) 1653. Died 1658.

Ruled 5 years.

## RICHARD CROMWELL

Born 1626. Protector (at the age of 32) 1658. Resigned 1659.

Ruled 8 months.

OLIVER CROMWELL, the second son of Robert Cromwell and Elizabeth Steward, was born at Huntingdon, 25th April 1599. He was educated at the Hospital of St. John, Huntingdon; and then at Sidney-Sussex College, Cambridge. He was "well read in Greek and Roman story; and, when Protector, frequently talked with the foreign ambassadors in Latin. He married, in 1620, Elizabeth, daughter of Sir James Bourchier. They had two sons and four daughters. Bridget married first Ireton, and then Fleetwood. Cromwell was Captain of Horse at the battle of Edgehill, and among those officers who "never stirred from their troops, but they and their troops fought to the last minute." He was "Colonel" in 1643. In 1628 he entered Parliament. In 1644 he was the head of a political party—the Independents, and known as "the Great Independent." At the second battle of Newbury he was General of Division. He was Commander-in-chief in 1650. The year 1653, four years after the execution of Charles I., saw him Protector. Worn out by the fatigues of war and government, he died in the midst of a terrible storm on the 3d of September, "his fortunate day," 1658, the anniversary of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester.

The family name was originally *Williams*. Cromwell's great-grandfather married Katharine, the eldest sister of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex (who succeeded Wolsey), and took his wife's name.—In his marriage settlement, Cromwell is called "Oliver Cromwell *alias* Williams."

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

FRANCE: LOUIS XIV. SPAIN: PHILIP IV.

**1. The Commonwealth, 1649-1660.**—England was now left without a king; and the army was master in the country. But an

army is in its essence a weapon of defence against foreign powers, and it cannot be used to keep down other organic parts of its own nation. Besides, an army is a regulative and not a constructive power. The ruling power was vested in the remnant of the House of Commons; and this fragment of the Long Parliament appointed a **Council of State**, with Bradshaw as President, to carry on the work of the Government. Parliament voted that the House of Lords "is useless, dangerous, and ought to be abolished," declared it treason to give the title of *King* to any one, ordered the royal statues and the royal arms to be taken down, and had a new seal made, with the inscription, "The first year of freedom, by God's blessing, restored 1648." This Council consisted of forty-one members, three-fourths of whom were members of the House of Commons. John Milton was Foreign or Latin Secretary, Cromwell and Fairfax commanded the army, Sir Harry Vane was at the head of the Admiralty; but the whole power of the nation lay ultimately and really—though not formally—in Cromwell and the army. England was now to be a **Commonwealth** for more than eleven years. Cromwell had three difficulties directly in front of him—dissatisfaction in a part of the army, the Royalists in Ireland, and the opposition of Scotland. The mutiny in the army was chiefly the work of the **Levellers**, a sect who believed that all degrees and distinctions of rank among men should be levelled down and abolished; but this mutiny was swiftly and decisively crushed by the prompt and severe action of Cromwell.

"The First Year of Freedom" 1648.

(i) **John Bright** says: "Force is no remedy."

(ii) Correspondence with Foreign Powers was at that time carried on in Latin; as it now is in French. **John Milton** was at that time probably the best Latin prose writer in the country.

(iii) The **Levellers** seem to have looked forward to a kind of millennium as the outcome of all their exertions. Their leader was **John Lilburne.**

(iv) Soon after Charles's death, a book called "Eikôn Basiliké" (= "Kingly Image"), said to have been written by Charles himself, but really by a Dr. Sanders, gave an affecting account of his life in prison, of his religious meditations, and produced a strong feeling in the country. Fifty editions of the book sold in one year. Milton was commissioned by the Independents to reply to it, which he did in a book entitled "Iconoclastes" (= "The Image-Breaker").

**2. Ireland.**—The fighting to be done in Ireland was a much more difficult piece of work. The Royalist Lord-Lieutenant was James

Butler, the Marquis of Ormond; and round his banner had gathered Roman Catholic, Episcopalian, and Presbyterian, all ready to shed their blood for King Charles II. This Royalist army held nearly all the fortresses and strongholds in the island, with the exception of Derry, Belfast, and Dublin. Cromwell, after receiving his commission as Lord-Lieutenant from the House of Commons, set out for Ireland with a small but well-selected army of 10,000 men, and "with the determination to make a final end of the disturbance in that island." In nine short months Cromwell had utterly broken the power of the Royalist party. His method was short, simple, and severe. He would summon a town or castle to surrender; and if it declined to comply with his summons, he carried it by storm, and put to death every man who was found with arms in his hands. Sometimes, in the bloody strife, women, children, and priests were also cut down in the streets. Drogheda[1] and Wexford[2] ran with blood; and such terror was struck into the Royalists by this procedure, that little resistance was made by the towns he afterwards visited. Large numbers of prisoners were made and shipped off to the West Indies; the estates of the Royalists were confiscated, and their proprietors "transplanted" to Connaught, where they starved; and many of the Parliamentary soldiers were settled in military colonies on districts in Ulster, Munster, and Leinster.

**Cromwell in Ireland 1649.**

(i) **Ormond** was beaten by General Michael Jones, at the **Battle of Rathmines** (a suburb of Dublin), before Cromwell landed.

(ii) Of **Drogheda** Cromwell writes: "I believe we put to the sword the whole number of the defendants. I do not think thirty of the whole number escaped with their lives. The enemy was about 3000 strong in the town." A common malediction in Ireland still is, "The curse of Cromwell on ye!"

(iii) "The fact that the garrison were Catholics, fighting on Irish soil, placed them, to the Puritan Englishman, out of the pale. No admiration for Cromwell, for his genius, courage, and earnestness—no sympathy with the cause that he upheld in England—can blind us to the truth, that the lurid light of this great crime[3] burns still after centuries across the history of England and Ireland."—HARRISON.

(iv) "In Scotland, religion, institutions, law, land, habits, and national sentiments were scrupulously respected. In Ireland, the religion, institutions, law, land, habits, and national sentiment of the Irish were trampled under the heel of the conqueror."—HARRISON.

[1] On the river Boyne, thirty miles north of Dublin.
[2] On the river Slaney, about sixty miles south-west of Dublin.
[3] The slaughter is said to have been carried on for days—and sometimes in cold blood.

**3. Scotland.**—The Scotch replied to the terrible news of the execution of the father by at once proclaiming his son Charles II. The young king was invited to Scotland, and soon after arrived. He agreed to sign the Covenant. "I could never look my mother in the face again," he said, "after signing such a paper;" and yet he signed it. He would have signed anything to get a crown. An enthusiastic welcome met him at Edinburgh. But this young self-indulgent and pleasure-loving prince did not much like it, and he was not greatly cheered by his stay among the Scotch. He was both lectured to and lectured at by the fiery and zealous Scottish preachers; he was obliged to be present every day at long sermons, where the "sins of his father and mother" formed the chief theme of discourse, and he never could get what he liked best in all the world—his own way. Cromwell marched into Scotland, and, keeping near the east coast in order to receive supplies from his fleet, was hemmed in by the Scotch general, David Leslie, near Dunbar, in Haddingtonshire. Leslie had out-generalled Cromwell, and held him firmly, as in a trap. "He occupied with a strong guard the pass which was the key of the road to England." Besides, bad weather had driven off Cromwell's ships, and there seemed no alternative for the English but to surrender or to starve. Meanwhile, crowds of Scottish preachers had come from Edinburgh into the camp of Leslie; they went about proclaiming "The Lord hath delivered them into our hands," and they raised so violent and eager a spirit among the common soldiers, that the cool old General Leslie felt himself compelled, against his better judgment, to leave his strong position upon the hills. Cromwell saw the blunder; exclaimed, "Let God arise, and let his enemies be scattered," fell upon the Scotch in the dim, early dawn, and utterly routed the whole army. So complete was the disaster, that the battle went by the name of the **Dunbar Drove.** This was on Cromwell's fortunate day of the 3d of September, in the year 1650. On the 1st of January, next year, Charles was crowned at Scone by the Marquis of Argyll; but, preferring the chances of war to the weariness of a residence in Edinburgh, he marched into England at the head of a Scotch army, and made his way as far as Worcester.

**Battle of Dunbar 1650.**

(i) **Charles II.** was obliged to sign the two Covenants several times; he had to dismiss his old friends: he was obliged to go through very long prayers, fastings, and

sermons (sometimes six a day); and he bitterly complained to Lauderdale that "Presbytery was not a religion for a gentleman."—"Finally, a declaration was laid before him, in which he was made to acknowledge not only the sinfulness of his own dealings with the Irish, but his father's blood-guiltiness and his mother's idolatry.' This he signed, "the Scots threatening to cast him off." All the while, he was making large promises to the Catholics in England.

(ii) "The English army entered Scotland consumed with zeal to fight it out to the last man in defence of the Commonwealth, and to live and die with their renowned general."

(iii) "Cromwell had scarcely 11,000 left under arms: and these, as one of them wrote, 'a poor, scattered, hungry, discouraged army.' The Scots, just double his number, were placed on a strong range of hills between him and his own country, and had occupied the only road by the sea along which he could retreat across the border. He saw the danger fully; but 'hope shone in him like a pillar of fire, when it had gone out in all the others.'"—HARRISON.

"The enemy hath blocked up our way," writes Cromwell, "at the pass of Copperspath (Cock burnspath), through which we cannot get without almost a miracle."

(iv) On the side of the Scots, 3000 lay dead on the field; more were killed in the rout; 10,000 prisoners, 15,000 stand of arms, and all the artillery, were taken. On the side of Cromwell, only two officers and twenty men were killed.

**4. The Battle of Worcester.**—Cromwell made all haste after Charles, and overtook him on the 28th of August 1651. Here he "beat the enemy from hedge to hedge till he beat him into Worcester," and here he gained what he was accustomed to call his "crowning victory" and his "crowning mercy," and this again happened on the day that seemed to be full of fortune to him—the 3d of September. This was the day of the battle of Dunbar and the battle of Worcester, and this too was the day on which he was to die. Charles escaped, and, after cutting off his long hair and donning peasant's clothes, wandered among the Midland Counties for more than a month. A reward of a thousand pounds was offered for his apprehension; but, though he confided his safety to the care of more than forty persons, no one was ever found to fail in fidelity, in loyalty, or in caution. His chief hiding-place was Boscobel Wood in Shropshire, and here he one day—a trembling fugitive—lay on the top of a pollard oak (the "Royal Oak") with a supply of bread and cheese and beer, while beneath he caught glimpses of the soldiers of Cromwell looking about for signs of his presence.

**Battle of Worcester 1651.**

"And far below the Roundhead rode
And hummed a surly hymn."

Hence the holiday once kept on "Oak-Apple Day" (May 29), the date

both of his birth and Restoration. At length he and his friend Lord Wilmot reached Brighthelmstone (now Brighton) in Sussex, where a coal-vessel was found, which landed him safely at Fécamp in Normandy.—When Cromwell returned to London, four commissioners from the Parliament were sent out to meet and receive him like a king; they met him at Aylesbury, and conducted him in state to London. Scotland was left in charge of General Monck, and "kept in great order" by him, while Ireland was ruled by General Ireton.

(i) **Charles** himself fought very bravely in the battle of Worcester. He charged the enemy several times, and had a horse killed under him.

(ii) "My Lord General (Cromwell) did exceedingly hazard himself, riding up and down in the midst of the fire. 'It was as stiff a contest for four or five hours as ever I have seen.' The loss of the victors was under 200 men." Cromwell directed the troops to "fall on in all places at once."

(iii) "Not only did Cromwell never command in any battle that did not result in utter ruin to his enemy, but no single operation of war that he ever undertook had failed. With *some* 15,000 men he practically reconquered Ireland in nine months; with a little larger force he subdued Scotland in about a year. . . . At Preston, with a loss of 50 men, he annihilated a brave army of 24,000 men; at Dunbar, with a smaller loss, he annihilated another brave army of 22,000; at Worcester, with a loss of under 200, he overwhelmed an army of 15,000 men."—HARRISON.

(iv) For his victory at Worcester, Cromwell received the thanks of the House of Commons, a pension of £4000 a year, and Hampton Court Palace as a residence for life.

**5. War with Holland.**—In 1652 a war broke out with Holland, and the great sailors **Robert Blake** and **George Monck**, and **Van Tromp** and **De Ruyter**[1] on the Dutch side, made themselves an immortal name in the annals of naval warfare. At first Van Tromp defeated Blake; and not an English sailor dared to show himself. The quarrel had originally arisen out of competition in commerce and the desire for British supremacy on the sea, and our admirals had been instructed to demand the honour of the flag. A series of bloody fights took place between the two nations; but at length, in August 1653, Monck obtained a decisive victory, and the States-General of Holland were forced to sue for peace.—General Monck, though chiefly known as a soldier, held a high command in the English fleet, for the naval and military services were in those days not necessarily distinct, as they are at the present time.

**War with Holland. 1652.**

[1] Pronounced *De Roiter*.

(i) **The Navigation Act** offended the Dutch. This act prohibited the importation of any goods in other than English vessels or in the vessels of the country from which the goods came. Hitherto the Dutch had been—what the British now are—the "Carriers" for the world. Marvell writes of them:

> "In matters of commerce the fault of the Dutch
> Is giving too little and asking too much."

(ii) "The honour of the flag" meant that the Dutch, when sailing in the Channel, were to salute our fleet first.

> "The salute of the English flag, the right of search, the limits of the fisheries, became the subjects of ardent contention between England and the States-General."

(iii) Admiral **Robert Blake** defeated Van Tromp in the Downs, and was defeated by him off Dover in 1652. Next year Blake and Monck defeated Van Tromp twice, off Portland and off Newport on the Flemish coast; and on August 1653 Monck gained a decisive victory, in which Van Tromp was killed.

**6. The Expulsion of the Long Parliament.**—The Rump of the Long Parliament was not ruling England with ability or success, and the army was very desirous to see a new and better Parliament in its place. The House numbered hardly a hundred members; and the average attendance was little more than fifty. Cromwell wanted a settlement of the nation. A conference was proposed between the army and the Parliament; but while this was going on, the House of Commons was slyly passing Bill for a new Parliament, in which all the present members were to sit without re-election, and also to have a vote in the election of new members. Their haste was so great that the Bill was not even engrossed on parchment, but was to be passed on paper. The dishonesty of this proceeding roused the slow but burning wrath of Cromwell. Taking with him a few troopers, he walked down to the House on the 20th of April 1653, and took his usual seat, "clad in plain grey clothes and grey worsted stockings," as a private member. The question was put to the House "that this Bill do now pass;" Cromwell whispered to General Harrison, "Now is the time, I must do it!" rose and began to speak. Stepping forward on the floor of the House, he strode up and down, hurling reproaches and upbraidings at the members. "Come, come! I will put an end to your prating! Get you gone," he said, "and give place to honester men." He stamped his foot, and his troopers came pouring in. "Take away that bauble!" he said, pointing to the mace. General Harrison politely helped the Speaker, Lenthall, from the chair; the House emptied; Cromwell locked the door and put the key in his pocket; and so little feeling did this arouse in the country, that "not even a dog barked"

**Cromwell expels the Long Parliament 1653.**

as they left the place; and the French ambassador said, "the House is now to be let unfurnished." Cromwell was now absolute master of England.

(i) A representative of the Parliament had *promised* the Conference that the progress of the Bill should be stopped until an agreement had been reached.

(ii) "Such is one of the most famous scenes in our history, that which of all other things has most heavily weighed on the fame of Cromwell. . . . It is one of the rare occasions in all history where a great Act of State has been carried out with personal fury and outrage. . . . There was no other public occasion on which Cromwell displayed ungovernable passion. But he was a man of volcanic temper, at all times liable to outbursts of coarseness."—HARRISON.

**7. The Little Parliament.**—Cromwell seems now to have cherished a strong desire to restore the old constitution, and perhaps was not unwilling to be made king. His first step was to call together an assembly of one hundred and forty nominees—men of well-approved life and known religious beliefs,—"men faithful, fearing God, and hating covetousness,"—and this assembly was known as the **Little Parliament.** One of the most frequent speakers in this Parliament was a leather-merchant in London, who had been christened by his Puritanic parents, *Praise-God Barbon*; and hence it received the nickname of "Barebone's Parliament." It was a failure; and in a few months the members voluntarily resigned their power into the hands of the person who had called them together—Oliver Cromwell. On the 16th of December 1653, his Council of officers conferred publicly upon him the title of **Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland.**

**The Little Parliament 1653.**

(i) **Praise-God Barbon** was the Junior M.P. for the City of London.

During the Puritanic period, it was very common for parents to give their children, as names, short texts from Scripture. Macaulay mentions a serjeant who was called "Bind-their-nobles-in-chains-and-their-kings-in-fetters-of-iron Sykes."

(ii) "Cromwell plainly designed this Assembly of Puritan Notables to be a constituent, not a permanent, body; to call a regular Parliament; and to exercise provisional authority. There never was before, he said, a supreme authority so called, 140 persons not one but had in him faith in Jesus Christ."—HARRISON.

Constituent=charged to draw up a Constitution.

**8. The Protectorate, 1653-1658.**—The document in which Cromwell assumed the Protectorate was called the **Instrument of Government,** 1653. By this document Cromwell was to have associated with himself a Council of State, twenty-one in number; to summon a Parliament of 460 members; all Parliaments were to be triennial; and the new Parliament

**The Instrument of Government 1653.**

was to meet on the famous 3d of September. But this—Cromwell's **First** House of Commons, which met in 1654—quarrelled with him on the subject of the form of government, and was dissolved before it had passed a single Act. His **Second** Parliament, which met in 1656, in a document called "The Humble Petition and Advice," proposed in 1657 that he should take the title of *King*; but Cromwell declined the honour and the danger. The Protector was, however, enthroned with almost regal pomp in Westminster Hall on June 26, 1657; he was presented with a sword, a sceptre, and a Bible; and he created a number of Peers, who were to form a House of Lords. In 1658 his **Third Parliament** met, but declined to acknowledge the new House of Lords, would hardly look at them, persisted in calling them the "Other House"; and Cromwell, in deep anger, dissolved this Parliament also. This was his last attempt at Parliamentary government.

**The Humble Petition and Advice 1657.**

(i) The **First Protectorate Parliament** consisted of 460 members: 400 for England; 30 for Scotland; and 30 for Ireland. Many rotten boroughs were disfranchised and their members were given to large towns. The representation of counties was proportioned to the population.

(a) The numbers in the House of Commons to-day are 670; 495 for England; 103 for Ireland; and 72 for Scotland.

(b) There was thus, in 1654, a real Parliamentary Union between England and Scotland (before the Union of 1707) and between England and Ireland (before the Union of 1801).

(ii) In Cromwell's First Parliament a hundred members were not allowed to take their seats; because they declined to promise that they would not attempt to alter "the government as settled in a single person and a Parliament." They regarded themselves as free to discuss anything whatever. (Milton, who had been Foreign Secretary under the Long Parliament, continued to act under the new arrangements.)

(iii) "With the dissolution of the Parliament of 1654 ended all show of legal rule." —GREEN.

(iv) From the Second Parliament a hundred members were also excluded.

(v) "**The Humble Petition and Advice**" contained four chief articles: (i) The Executive to consist of a Protector and Council of State—the Council to be named by Parliament. (ii) Parliament to consist of two Houses. (iii) Parliament to be Triennial. The Protector to be Commander-in-chief by sea and land. (iv) Complete Toleration for all forms of religion except Roman Catholicism and Socinianism.

(vi) Cromwell refused the title of King, but accepted the Constitution. The Army would not permit it. "Here, and for the last time, the Army appears as the conscience of the nation. Steadily and with dignity he put the Crown aside. He valued the title, he said, 'but as a feather in his hat.'"—HARRISON.

**In his last speech to his last Parliament Cromwell said: "I would have been glad to have lived under my woodside, to have kept a flock of sheep, rather than undertake such a government as this."**

(vii) One reason for offering Cromwell the title of *King* was that "the king's prerogative is under the Courts of Justice, and is bounded as well as any acre of land, or anything a man hath."

**9. Foreign Affairs.**—Cromwell was respected at home and dreaded abroad. He reverted to the policy of Queen Elizabeth. Under his guidance, England became one of the greatest and most formidable powers of Europe; and an alliance with him was eagerly sought by Holland, by France, and by Spain. Louis XIV.—the most powerful monarch on the Continent—was only prevented by illness from coming over to pay his respects to him in person. Especially at sea he was strong. Blake swept the Barbary pirates off the face of the Mediterranean, and made commerce safe; bombarded Algiers, and set the English prisoners free; broke the maritime power of Spain, and took from her the island of Jamaica; and destroyed the Spanish treasure-ships in the harbour of Santa Cruz, in spite of a tremendous and well-directed fire from a shore lined with batteries. Thus was the avowed purpose of Cromwell to "make the name of Englishman terrible abroad" fully carried out. Cromwell further made himself the protector of the Reformed Religion throughout Europe, and arrested the hand of the Duke of Savoy in his persecution of the Waldenses. Nay more, in the very last year of his rule he wrested Dunkirk from the hands of the Spaniards, and manned it with an English garrison. It was some compensation for the loss of Calais, which had been taken from us a hundred years before. Clarendon, the adviser of Charles II., an enemy to Cromwell and his politics, but a just man, felt himself constrained to write: "His greatness at home was but a shadow of the glory he had abroad."

**Cromwell protects the Waldenses 1656.**

(i) Cromwell's policy was to be strong at sea, and to attack his enemies in their colonies. He took **Jamaica** from Spain. He ensured freedom of trade and freedom of religion for English merchants in Spanish ports, and curbed the insolence of the Inquisition. He made an alliance with France, defeated the Spaniards in the **Battle of the Dunes**, and seized **Dunkirk**. He compelled the Duke of Savoy to stop persecuting the Waldenses (Vaudois). Milton has a fine sonnet on this:

> "Avenge, O Lord! thy slaughtered saints, whose bones
> Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold."

(ii) Under Cromwell, the supremacy of the sea passed from the Dutch to the English; and the "Maritime Empire" of Great Britain was founded. "England

[1] The *Vaudois* in the north of Piedmont. (The word is the French form of Waldenses.)

became a European power of the first rank, as she never had been since the Plantagenets, not even in the proudest hours of Wolsey or Elizabeth. From the Baltic to the Mediterranean, from Algiers to Teneriffe, from Newfoundland to Jamaica, were heard the English cannon."—HARRISON.

**10. Death of Oliver Cromwell.**—The last days of the dreaded Protector were dark and gloomy. His health was getting sapped by the weary and incessant anxieties of political work; plots from abroad and at home surrounded him in his room and on the street. Charles had long offered large rewards for the head of "the base mechanic fellow who had usurped his throne;" and now domestic sorrows came to add to his burden, and to weigh down the oppressed mind and the broken nerves of the overworked ruler. He had to carry pistols, and to wear a shirt of mail under his clothes; and it is even said that he slept in a different room every night. A Colonel Titus wrote a pamphlet called "Killing no Murder;" and this book had a large circulation. He had watched for fourteen days by the bedside of a sick daughter, "unable to attend to any public business whatever;" and her death, on the 6th of August 1658, nearly broke his heart. On the 30th a mighty storm of wind—tearing roofs from houses, and levelling the largest trees in every forest—swept through the land; and a few days later, on the evening of his "fortunate day"—the 3d of September—the storm broke out afresh, and in this terrible convulsion of nature the mighty spirit of Oliver Cromwell passed from the scenes of his earthly strife and labour. "My work is done," he said, and quietly breathed his last.

**Death of Oliver Cromwell 1658.**

(i) A proclamation in the name of Charles II. had been secretly circulated in 1654 offering a knighthood and £500 a year to the person who should assassinate Cromwell.

(ii) On the 20th of August George Fox, the Quaker, met Cromwell riding at the head of his guards in Hampton Court Park, and "thought he looked like a dead man already."

(iii) "He was buried in Westminster Abbey, in Henry VII.'s chapel, at the east end of the middle aisle, amongst kings and with a more than regal solemnity."

(iv) "Oliver loved music, encouraged musicians, and held weekly concerts. He loved society; was frank, humorous, and genial with his intimates; affable with dependants and strangers; stately and impressive on occasions of state. . . . He was generous of his personal fortune, and made no use of his power to extend it. . . . He did nothing to promote the private interest of his own family."—HARRISON.

(v) Macaulay calls him "the greatest prince that has ever ruled England."

(vi) "No human countenance recorded is more familiar to us than that broad, solid face with the thick and prominent red nose; the heavy gnarled brow, with its historic wart; eyes firm, penetrating, sad; square jaw and close-set mouth; scanty tufts of hair on lip and chin; long, loose brown locks flowing down in waves on to the shoulder. His whole air breathing energy, firmness, passion, pity, and sorrow—

'His face
Deep scars of thunder had intrencht, and care
Sat on his faded cheek, but under brows
Of dauntless courage and considerate pride."—HARRISON.

**11. Richard Cromwell, 1658-59.**—Cromwell had named his son as his successor; and Richard took his place at the head of the Council-Table as quietly as if he had been a hereditary ruler. But Richard was not born for power, and he cared very little for it. He was a "peasant in his nature, yet gentle and virtuous;" and he soon found the army too powerful for his management. This "Fourth Estate," the army, recalled the "Rump" of the Long Parliament—now reduced to forty-two members; and Richard, who declared, "I will not have a drop of blood spilt for the preservation of my greatness, which is a burden to me," retired into private life, became a quiet country gentleman, and died at the age of eighty-five. He had held the Protectorship for only eight months; and the Royalists gave him the nickname of "Tumble-down Dick." His brother Henry, too, who had shown great ability, both as a soldier and a statesman, in the government of Ireland, followed him into retirement. A government based on the representation of a minority both in politics and in religion had broken utterly down.

**Richard Cromwell Protector 1658-59.**

(i) **Richard Cromwell** was a member of his father's "House of Lords." He was generally regarded as a pleasant country gentleman, "well skilled in hawking, hunting, and horse-racing."

(ii) The royalist satirists spoke of him as "Queen Dick"; and Dryden in his *Absalom and Achitophel* gives him the name of "the foolish Ishbosheth." "He was gentle and virtuous, but became not greatness," says Mrs. Hutchinson.

**12. General Monck.**—The Rump, though restored by the army, quarrelled with it again; and in October 1659 it was again expelled—this time by General Lambert, the leader of the military party, who hoped himself to play the part of Oliver Cromwell. Monck, who commanded the troops in Scotland, at once turned his face to the south, and resolved that he would uphold the supremacy of the civil

over the military power, that he would support Parliament and the old constitution. He told his soldiers that it was from Parliament they received their pay and their commissions, and that it was their duty to defend it. In spite of many obstacles, he continued his march, and entered London on the 3d of February 1660. For some time he kept his own counsel, and no one could say what purpose the cold and silent man might have in his mind; but he at last publicly declared for a Free Parliament; and London and the whole country broke forth into joy and feasting. "The bells in all the churches went a-ringing; and at Strand Bridge there were at one time thirty-one bonfires." The Presbyterian members of the House, who had been turned out by Colonel Pride, returned to their seats in the Long Parliament; and that celebrated body, which, although twice expelled and twice restored, had existed for twenty years, at once proceeded to issue writs for a new Parliament, and dissolved itself on the 16th of March 1660.

**Monck enters London 1660.**

**13. The Restoration.**—The New Parliament—or, as it was called by the Royalists, the *Constituent Convention*—met on the 25th of April; and the Peers also returned to their House. Monck now opened communications with Charles, who was living at Breda, in Holland. From that town Charles issued a proclamation—known as the **Declaration of Breda**, in which he promised pardon for past offences to all, excepting only such persons as might hereafter be excluded by Parliament; liberty of conscience; and settlement by Parliament of questions relating to property in land. An invitation from the convention was at once sent over to Holland; and Charles was proclaimed King at the door of Westminster Hall on the 8th of May.

**The Constituent Convention** (which was so termed because it was called together without the Royal Writ) contained a large number of members who were friendly to the royal family. (A body of the same character met after the Revolution of 1688.)

**14. The Return of Charles II.**—He left Holland with a hundred ships; and on the 29th he entered London, along streets strewed with flowers; past houses hung with flags, tapestries, and banners; past fountains spouting with wine; among aldermen wearing chains of gold, and noblemen in embroidered velvets; with a great shouting, hurrahing, and amid the roll of drums and the blare of trumpets.

He smilingly remarked that it must surely have been his own fault that he had not come back sooner, for he saw no one who did not protest that he had always longed for his return. One Dobson, a miller at Charlton, in Kent, burnt his windmill as a bonfire for joy. At Blackheath, the new king passed Cromwell's old army,—an army of thirty thousand men,— who allowed him to go by without a murmur, or a shout, or the faintest mark of recognition. The day of the Puritans was past, and this great army quietly returned to their work upon their farms, in their workshops, and in the fields. Another race of men—another religion, or no-religion—was coming in; and godlessness became the fashion now—godlessness without shame and without restraint.

**Charles II. returns May 29, 1660.**

(i) Andrew Marvell, the friend and co-secretary of Milton, has described Charles the Second with great clearness :—

"Of a tall stature, and of sable hue,
Much like the son of Kish, that lofty Jew;
Twelve years complete he suffered in exile,
And kept his father's asses all the while."

(ii) **Monck** said he would have remained loyal to Richard Cromwell "had not Richard forsaken himself." Macaulay describes Monck as a man "cold-blooded, taciturn, zealous for no party and for no religion."

(iii) "As soon as Monk's declaration was known, the whole nation went wild with delight. Wherever he appeared, thousands thronged round him shouting and blessing his name. The bells of all England rang joyously; the gutters ran with ale; and, night after night, the sky for five miles round London was reddened by innumerable bonfires. Those Presbyterian members of the House of Commons who had many years before been expelled by the army, returned to their seats, and were hailed with acclamations by great multitudes, which filled Westminster Hall and Palace Yard. The Independent leaders no longer dared to show their faces in the streets."—MACAULAY.

**15. The Work of Parliament.**—Although none of Cromwell's Parliaments were constitutional bodies, they did a great deal of work, and were always eager to do more—chiefly in the way of mending, altering, re-forming or re-casting old institutions. The **Little Parliament** of 1653 was especially eager in its desires for reform. It proposed to abolish the Court of Chancery, to do away with tithes, to hand over the patronage of church-livings to the congregations themselves; and, so determined were they to get rid of every abuse in the law, they appointed a Committee of Legal Reform which did not contain a single lawyer.—The **First Protectorate Parliament,**

which met September 3, 1654, did nothing at all.—The **Second Protectorate Parliament**, which met in 1656, passed "**The Humble Petition and Advice**," by which it proposed to re-model the Constitution, to create a new line of kings, and—by means of a Council, the members of which should be nominated or removed by Parliament itself—to anticipate, in a certain fashion, the mode of government by Cabinet, which exists at the present time.—The **Third Protectorate Parliament**, which was the last, and which met in the beginning of 1658, spent its time in debates over the relations in which the Commons stood or ought to stand to the Lords, and was dissolved by Cromwell in a fortnight.

(i) The acts of the Puritan Convention (or Barebone's Parliament) alarmed the conservative classes—the clergy, the lawyers, and the landowners. Cromwell himself, who was thoroughly conservative in temper and habits, said of the members: "Nothing was in the hearts of these men but *overturn, overturn.*"

(ii) It should be noted that, though the **First Protectorate Parliament** of September 3, 1654, did nothing, it was the FIRST IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT that ever sat, as it contained members both from Ireland and from Scotland.

**16. Great Men.**—In the army the men who distinguished themselves most were **Lord Fairfax, Ireton, Lambert,** and **Monck.** In the navy, **Blake** and **Penn** are the two most prominent names; while **Sir Harry Vane** was at the head of the Admiralty. **Henry Cromwell** showed, by his rule in Ireland, that he had some of the genius of his father. The name of **John Milton** is better known in literature than in political affairs; but, as Foreign Secretary, he seconded with the highest ability and the most powerful language the views and the measures of Cromwell. **Oliver Cromwell** stands out himself as the greatest man of this period, head and shoulders above every one, whether as a general or as a statesman; whether as a ruler at home or as a negotiator with foreign powers.

**17. Social Facts.**—The **Navigation Act** of 1651 gave a very great impetus to commerce, to ship-building, and to seamanship. The ships importing produce into England had not only to be owned, but also manned, by Englishmen.—The East India Company was fortunate enough to induce the Great Mogul, whose capital was Delhi, to grant them free-trade in Bengal; that is, its agents were permitted to buy and sell in all parts of that vast and wealthy province without being subject to taxation of any kind.

(i) One good thing came out of the struggle for thorough law-reforms; and this was, that henceforth English, and not Latin, was the language employed in law-books, in wills, deeds, and other legal documents.

(ii) The air-pump is said to have been invented in 1654.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF THE PROTECTORATE.

**1649.** (a) Abolition of the House of Lords.
(b) Abolition of the Monarchy
(c) **Cromwell in Ireland.**

**1650.** (a) Charles II. is crowned by the Scots (Jan. 1.)
**Battle of Dunbar** (Sept. 3.)

**1651.** **Battle of Worcester** (Sept. 3.)

**1652.** (a) "Settlement" of Ireland by Cromwell.
(b) First Dutch War.
Battles in the Downs and near the Goodwin Sands.

**1653.** (a) Closing of the House of Commons by Cromwell (April).
(b) "Barebone's Parliament" (July).
(c) **Instrument of Government** (Dec.).
(d) Battles with the Dutch off Portland, North Foreland, Newport, and Texel.

**1654.** **First Protectorate Parliament.**

**1656.** **Second Protectorate Parliament.**
The throne offered to Cromwell.

**1658.** **Third Protectorate Parliament.**
**Death of Cromwell** (Sept. 3).
**Richard Cromwell declared Protector.**

**1659.** (a) Restoration of "The Rump" of the Long Parliament (May).
(b) March of **Monck** southwards (Oct.).

**1660.** (a) **Monck** declares for a "Free Parliament" (Jan.).
(b) The Rump appoints a **Convention** (March).
(c) The Convention recalls **Charles II.** (April).
(d) **Charles II.** enters London (May 29).

# CHAPTER IV.

# CHARLES THE SECOND

**Born 1630. Succeeded (at the age of 30) 1660. Died 1685. Reigned 25 years.**

CHARLES II., the eldest son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria of France, was born at St. James's Palace, London, on the 29th of May 1630. In 1645 he was appointed General of the Association of the four western counties; but he parted finally from his father in the beginning of this year. To avert the execution of his father in 1649, he induced the States-General of Holland to intercede; and he is said to have sent to the Parliament a blank-sheet ("carte blanche") with his signature, in which they were to insert whatever terms they pleased "to save his father's head." Charles II. was proclaimed King of Scotland in Edinburgh, on the 5th of February 1649; and was crowned at Scone, January 1, 1651. After the battle of Worcester he fled to France, where he lived till 1654; and he lived in Cologne, Brussels, and different parts of Holland till his recall in 1660. He was crowned on 23d April 1661. He married Catherine of Braganza in 1662. They had no children. He died at St. James's Palace on the 6th of February 1685.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

| FRANCE. | AUSTRIA. | SPAIN. |
|---|---|---|
| LOUIS XIV., 1643-1715. | LEOPOLD I. | PHILIP IV. to 1665.<br>CHARLES II. |

**1. Charles II., 1660-1685.**—When Charles II. came to the throne, he was so great a favourite that he could do whatever he pleased. There was nothing the nation would not have granted him. No conditions were imposed upon him; he came to the throne as to his own private estate; the year of his return was styled not the first, but the *twelfth*, of his reign; and the **Restoration** seemed to be the beginning of a new epoch of happiness, prosperity, and peace. The army was disbanded. Charles was a man of great natural talents, an easy-going and unruffled temper, and the most charming and attractive manners; but he had no principles, and very

**The Restoration 1660.**

little heart. His main object in life was "not to set out on his travels again," to enjoy himself, and to avoid trouble; though there is evidence to show that under the disguise of an idle and careless manner, he hid a steady determination to gain back absolute power for the Crown, and to make himself a king after the type of his foreign friend, Louis XIV. of France. He had plenty of common sense. When his brother, the best hated man in England, warned him of plots against his life, Charles laughed and replied, "Never fear, brother, you are my best guard; they won't kill me to make you king."

(i) Three regiments of guards were retained; and these became the nucleus of our present army.

(ii) The reign of Charles II. falls easily into two periods: the first that of the ascendency of Clarendon, from 1660 to 1667; the second that of the Cabal Ministry.

**2. The Convention Parliament.**—This "Convention Parliament" had to discuss the amnesty, the settlement of property and of the Church, and the revenue of the Crown. The Act of Indemnity had promised a general pardon; but the judges of the late king were excepted from its benefits. Ten of these—regicides, as the name went—were executed at Charing Cross, "in sight of the place where they put to death their natural prince," and in sight of the present prince; nineteen, who had surrendered in terms of the proclamation, were imprisoned for life; and nineteen, who saw no reason to trust their lives in the hands of their enemies, made their escape to Holland and the Continent. The mean spirit of revenge was not satisfied with glutting its appetite upon the living, it also attacked the dead. By an unanimous vote of the House of Commons, the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were dragged from their tombs in Westminster Abbey, hung in chains on the common gallows at Tyburn Gate, where they remained for a whole day, and then buried at the foot of the gallows among the bodies of murderers and criminals.—The revenue of the king was fixed at the dangerous sum of £1,200,000 a year; and, to make this sum quite secure, the subsidy of tonnage and poundage was granted to him for life. He was also presented with the Excise duties upon beer —a tax which had been first introduced by the Long Parliament.—Charles was crowned on the 23d of April (the birthday of Shakespeare), and many people drank the king's health upon their knees. Play-

Act of Indemnity 1660.

houses were open again; the Maypole rose once more on the village green; and again from this day forth, it was Merry England under the "Merry Monarch," as it seemed to the Royalists.

(i) Charles had issued a proclamation commanding those who had sat in judgment on his father to surrender within fourteen days "on pain of being excepted from any pardon or indemnity as to their lives or estates." This clearly meant that those who did give themselves up would be mercifully dealt with. But Charles did not keep his word.

(ii) Even the body of **Blake** was exhumed, and flung out of Westminster Abbey.

(iii) Several of the accused pleaded that their actions were protected by the Statute of Henry VII., which permits a person to obey a *de facto* king.

(iv) Evelyn writes: "Scott, Scrope, Cook, and Jones suffered for reward of their iniquities at Charing Cross, in sight of the place where they put to death their natural prince, and in the presence of the king his son, whom they also sought to kill. I saw not their execution, but met their quarters, mangled and cut, and reeking, as they were brought from the gallows in baskets on the hurdle." If Mr. Evelyn objected to witness these executions, it was still more incumbent on Charles himself to stay away.

(v) The **Convention Parliament** abolished all feudal dues (such as aids, knight's service, etc.), and also the right of the king to purveyance.

> "Throughout the land men were intoxicated by the return to the ancient order of things. The Maypoles had been again set up; the Christmas ale was again flowing in the squire's hall; the peasantry were again wrestling and cudgel-playing on the village-green; the stocks were no longer a terror to the drunkard; the play-houses were open in London, and itinerant actors again gathered their gaping audiences in booth or barn."—KNIGHT.

**3. The New Parliament.**—Charles had now got all out of the Convention Parliament that he could possibly hope for; and he accordingly dissolved it, and called together a new Parliament in 1661. This Parliament consisted chiefly of old cavaliers and their sons, who were eager to make England once more the old England of the early part of the century—hot Royalists, and still more enthusiastic Churchmen. They passed the **Corporation Act**, which required all magistrates and officials in a town or city to swear to the doctrine of passive obedience, to renounce the Covenant, and to have received the sacrament from the hands of an Anglican priest within one year before their election.—They also sent up to the king an address—a joint address from both Houses—asking for the lives of General Lambert and Sir Harry Vane. Vane made a noble and spirited defence; but the king wrote to Clarendon, on the day after his trial: "If he has given no new occasion to be hanged, certainly he is too dangerous a man to let live, if we

**The Corporation Act 1661.**

can honestly put him out of the way." This was the humanity of the man whom his subjects called the "Merry Monarch."—They also passed in 1662 the **Act of Uniformity**, which compelled every clergyman, every Fellow of a College, and every schoolmaster to give his "unfeigned assent and consent" to every statement contained in the Book of Common Prayer, and to take an oath that resistance to the Crown was sinful and unlawful. Every minister who should decline to do this before the Feast of St. Bartholomew, 1662, should be *ipso facto* deprived of his benefice. When the dark day arrived, about two thousand ministers—some of them the best, the most learned, and the most eloquent in the Church—resigned their livings and their charges, and went out to begin the world again. The **Conventicle Act** of 1664, and the **Five-Mile Act** of 1665, were positive and active forms of persecution, which showed the extreme heat of feeling that existed in this "Cavalier Parliament."

**The Act of Uniformity 1662.**

(i) By forcing these non-conforming clergymen to leave *before* St. Bartholomew's Day, they were deprived of a whole year's income.—When, in 1643, a number of the Episcopal clergy refused to swear to the Covenant, they were allowed to take with them one-fifth of the income of their livings.

(ii) The non-conformity of these able men hardened into dissent; and their differences inside the Church became hostility without it.

(iii) The **Conventicle Act** forbade the meeting of more than five persons (other than members of the Church of England) for religious purposes. This Act practically forbade family worship. A third offence was punished with transportation. Richard Baxter wrote: "Many durst not pray in their families, if above four persons come in to dine with them." "The Quakers were so resolute, and gloried in their constancy and sufferings, that they assembled openly and were dragged away daily to the common jail; and yet desisted not, but the rest came the next day nevertheless; so that the jail in Newgate was filled with them. Abundance of them died in prison, and yet they continued their assemblies still."

(iv) The **Five-Mile Act** prohibited clergymen who had not subscribed the Act of Uniformity, or taken the oath of non-resistance to the king, from settling (or "coming, unless upon the road") within five miles of any corporate town, or from teaching in schools. The penalty was £40 and six months' imprisonment.

(v) The four Acts—the Corporation Act, the Act of Uniformity, the Conventicle Act, and the Five-Mile Act—are often spoken of as the **Clarendon Code**. The purpose of all of these was to place the Church of England in its old position—before Cromwell's time. Presbyterianism had been established by Parliament in 1647; but it had never been accepted by the body of the nation, only in Middlesex and in Lancashire.

**4. The Marriage of Charles.**—The king, advised by Louis XIV., announced to his Parliament that he proposed to marry Catherine of Braganza, the Infanta of Portugal. She brought him £350,000 as a dowry, the fortress of Tangier in Africa, and the beautiful island of Bombay on the coast of India. Charles further put money in his purse by the sale of Dunkirk (the Gibraltar of that time), for the sum of £400,000, to Louis XIV., a transaction which roused the warmest feelings of indignation and shame, the greater and deeper that it was generally believed that Charles wanted the money to spend, not on benefits for the nation, but upon the pleasures of a debauched, dissolute, and shameless court. This court became the disgrace of the country and the ridicule of foreigners; and the Dutch, who used to caricature King Charles, published a print, in which he was exhibited with "his pockets turned the wrong side outward, hanging out empty." Charles spent nearly £140,000 on one of his favourites in a single year.

(i) "Louis made a cunning bargain. He gave four millions of livres in bills; and then employed his own ready money to discount his own bills, at a saving of half a million."—KNIGHT.

(ii) **Clarendon,** Charles's chief adviser, was generally believed to have been bribed by Louis in relation to the sale; and a house he was then building was nicknamed "Dunkirk House."

**5. The Great Plague.**—June of 1665 was a month of extraordinary heat, and the winter and spring had been the driest ever known in England. London was at that time a city of narrow streets, overhanging houses, and no drainage of any systematic kind. There was in this summer no grass to be seen anywhere, and the country round London looked dreary, parched, brown, and dusty. In the coffee-houses—which were the clubs of the seventeenth century—hushed whispers pass from man to man, that the Dutch fleet is in the waters of the Thames, and that the plague is in the city. On the 7th of June, Pepys, the Secretary of the Navy, sees in Drury Lane "two or three houses marked with a red cross upon the doors (the 'fatal red cross, a foot in length'), and 'Lord have mercy upon us' writ there." Into the ill-drained and narrow streets of London neither light nor fresh air could easily penetrate. The richer people fled, and even the physicians and the clergy ran to the country for their lives. The streets were

**The Great Plague 1665.**

filled all day and all night with "coaches and wagons and carts hurrying away with goods, women, servants, and children," and the king and his sorry court were the first to set the bad example of flight. Only the stout old Duke of Albemarle, Monck, among the higher ranks, stood to his post, and fearlessly chewed his tobacco and drank his strong beer, in his town garden. All night—and, when the plague had advanced, all day and all night—the dead-cart went its rounds, with the weird noise of the gloomy bell, and the hoarse voices of the buriers crying, "Bring out your dead!" Slowly it rumbled along, picking up a corpse in this house and another in that, until it appeared at the mouth of a vast and deep common foss or grave, into which it shot at once sixteen or seventeen bodies, uncoffined and unshrouded, unattended and uncared for by friends or by relations. "The people fell thick as leaves in autumn when they are shaken by a mighty wind;" grass grew everywhere in the silent and untrodden streets,—silent but for the groans of the dying and the doomed;—rows of houses stood empty, and those that were occupied were marked with the red cross; and a strange and wild-looking man walked the streets day and night at a swift even pace, speaking to no one, but constantly uttering the words, "Oh, the great and dreadful God!" In September a huge bonfire was kindled at every sixth house, and kept burning day and night; ten thousand people died in one week; and in six months more than a hundred thousand had perished. Most of the clergy had fled, but the Nonconforming ministers had the courage to stay with the people, to preach from the forsaken pulpits, to visit the sick, to relieve the poor, and to minister to the last moments of the dying. The reward which these brave men received for their self-denying work from Parliament was the **Five-Mile Act.**

(i) The Plague of 1665 is called **The Great Plague**, because it was the worst—the last of many which, under the names of **The Death, The Black Death**, etc., had frequently devastated London and England. The narrow, ill-ventilated streets, the filthy lanes and alleys, the want of systematic drainage, the complete ignorance of the time as to the value of pure air and cold water, made the great cities of mediæval and of later Europe hot-beds and forcing-houses for all kinds of pestilence. "The terrible visitor came to London once in every twenty years, and then swept away a fifth of the inhabitants."

(ii) The most picturesque account of the Plague is given by Defoe in his *Journal of the Plague Year*. There are also some vigorous verses on the subject in Dryden's

*Annus Mirabilis* (= Wonderful Year—because the Plague and the Fire both fell within a twelvemonth).

**6. The Fire of London.**—Not long after the Plague—in 1666—another terrible disaster fell upon the city of London. On the morning of the second of September, at three o'clock, Mr. Pepys looks out of his window and sees that the east end of London is on fire. The weather is again dry and very hot, and a furious hurricane from the east is storming over the doomed city. The Thames is covered with boats filled with people and furniture; and it marks the old English love of music, that every third boat contains "a pair of virginals[1] in it." The poor pigeons, of which the citizens were very fond, flutter pitifully about the windows and balconies, and then drop suddenly down into the fire. The houses are mostly of wood, the roofs are of thatch—and that is very dry, and the fiery flashes from one burning house shoot up and drop upon another a few yards off, and, in a moment, that also is aflame. No power can arrest the foe. The fire —"a most horrid, malicious, bloody flame"—covers the city in a great arch more than a mile long, the smoke streams into the country in a black column fifty miles in extent, the sun shines through it with a colour like blood, and men in distant counties walk along the lanes and country roads under a dark shade. The half-burnt leaves of books are carried by the breeze as far as Windsor, the fields are filled with heaps of goods, and awe-struck men and women sitting upon them, sad-hearted but tearless. Four hundred streets, thirteen thousand two hundred dwelling-houses, eighty-nine churches, and all the public buildings of London, were consumed. The king and his brother, the Duke of York, showed great energy and thoughtfulness during the fire, by superintending the blowing up of houses with gunpowder, so as to arrest the march of the flames. The origin of the fire was ascribed to the Roman Catholics. A tall pillar—now called *The Monument*[2]—was erected to perpetuate this slander; and one Hubert, a poor, half-crazy, working French silversmith, who gave himself up as the fire-raiser, was tried for it and hanged.

**The Fire of London 1666.**

(1) The Fire raged four days. The loss amounted, it is said, to £7,000,000—a sum probably equal to thirty or forty millions to-day.

[1] Called also a *spinet*, a kind of small piano.

[2] At Fish Street Hill, near London Bridge. The part of the inscription ascribing the fire to the Catholics is now erased.

(ii) "The 'Tall Bully' lifted his head and lied in choice Latin for a century and three years; and, when the majority of men had grown more truly religious, and did not hold it the duty of one Christian to hate another who differed from him in doctrine and ceremonies, the corporation of London wisely obliterated the offensive record." —KNIGHT.

**7. The Dutch War.**—The Dutch had long been our rivals in commerce, and a war with them had been going on in these two miserable years. The war was very popular. Both sides were brave and stubborn fighters, and excellent sailors; and one battle in the Downs—fought in June 1666—lasted for four days: the Dutch under the great De Ruyter, the English under Albemarle and Prince Rupert. Parliament voted large supplies for the war: but Charles pocketed these for his own uses,—for his garden parties and his theatrical entertainments, his gambling and his court favourites;—the ships lay unrepaired and rotting in the docks, the sailors idle and unpaid until they rose in a state of mutiny. The coast of England lay open to the enemy; the Dutch were for six weeks masters of the Channel. In 1667 a Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway, battered down a fort at Sheerness, broke through a chain in front of the docks at Chatham, burnt all the vessels which they found there—except the *Royal Charles*, which had been bought by England, and which was sent to Holland as a trophy; and the guns of a hostile fleet were heard, to the terror and astonishment of the inhabitants, in the city of London. The success of the Dutch was the cause of Lord Clarendon's fall. He was impeached and fled to the Continent. The **Cabal Ministry** took office; and there were fewer checks than ever upon King Charles's conduct.

**The Dutch in the Medway 1667.**

(i) The Dutch were in the Medway in June 1667; and in the month of July following, a peace was patched up with Holland.

(ii) "When the Dutch fleet was in the Thames, it was against the Chancellor (Clarendon) that the rage of the populace was chiefly directed. His windows were broken; the trees of his garden were cut down; and a gibbet was set up before his door. But nowhere was he more detested than in the House of Commons."—MACAULAY.

(iii) These two facts mark the nadir of England's descent: our king takes the money of France; our sailors take the money of the Dutch. "Everybody now-a-days," says Pepys, "reflect upon Oliver and commend him; what brave things he did, and made all the neighbouring princes fear him."

(iv) Lord Clarendon's daughter, **Anne Hyde**, made a secret marriage with the Duke of York. In this way, Clarendon became the grandfather of two queens of England—Mary and Anne.

GENEALOGY OF WILLIAM III.

WILLIAM the SILENT.

Maurice.

Frederick Henry.

WILLIAM II. *m.* Mary (sister of Charles II.).

WILLIAM III. (of England) *m.* Mary (daughter of Duke of York).

**8. Our Most Religious and Gracious King.**—The presence of the Dutch in the Medway marks the lowest point to which England had sunk, and forms the strongest contrast to the height of her power under the rule of Cromwell. "It was a dreadful spectacle," says Mr. Evelyn, "as ever Englishman saw, and a dishonour never to be wiped off." But it was only an outward mark of the terrible corruption within—a corruption induced by the king and his court, who thought of nothing but pleasure, and who cared nothing for the rights of others, or for their duties to them. While the king lavished pensions and presents upon his favourites, the servants of the royal household were absolutely starving. No one was paid. The fine gentlemen and cavaliers of the court thought it rather a noble thing to be in debt. Musicians, footmen, falconers, huntsmen, watermen, messengers, servants of all kinds, high and low, had not been paid any wages for three or four or five years. The sailors deserted to the Dutch, and shouted to their countrymen on the river: "We did heretofore fight for tickets; now we fight for dollars." The king's own harper, who used to play to Charles after dinner, died of want, and his body had to be buried at the expense of the parish. And, all this time, "our most religious and gracious" king was seeking his ease and his pleasure, gambling away the money of the nation, living among low women and singing boys, and drawing a large pension from the generosity of a foreign king. In fact, the king of England was the paid servant of the king of France. This was what the Restoration had come to.

(i) "The spirit of patriotism was trodden out of the English sailors by neglect and oppression. . . . The sailors' wives went up and down the streets of Wapping, crying, 'This (the desertion to the Dutch) comes of your not paying our husbands'!"—KNIGHT.

(ii) There were at least four occasions on which Charles sold himself to Louis XIV. (1) Under the **Secret Treaty of Dover**, in 1670, Charles was to get £200,000 a year on condition that he publicly declared himself a Catholic. (2) In 1675 Charles received 500,000 crowns—to be paid annually—on condition that he prorogued Parliament for fifteen months. (3) By another secret treaty with France in 1678, Charles is to receive 6,000,000 livres if (a) he dissolves Parliament, (b) disbands his standing army, and (c) refuses aid to the Dutch. (4) In 1681, Charles was to receive 5,000,000 livres from Louis in the course of three years—"without," says the Duke of York, "any condition on the king's side but that of friendship, but promises on the French part not to disturb Flanders nor Holland." The Duke adds: "The king's necessities had long been great, and the Parliament refractory and insolent."

**9. The Treaty of Dover.**—The anger of the nation at the success of the Dutch was, to some extent, appeased by the dismissal of the Lord Chancellor Clarendon, who was impeached by the Commons, and had to flee the country. England was now jealous of the growing power of Louis, and the king's advisers made an alliance with Sweden and Holland—called the **Triple Alliance**—against the king of France. But, while these arrangements were going on, Charles was secretly engaged in betraying the nation, and in selling himself at a higher price than before to the French king. This new sale of himself was effected by the secret **Treaty of Dover**, 22d May 1670. Under this treaty Charles was to declare himself a Roman Catholic as soon as this should seem prudent, to establish Roman Catholicism in his kingdom, and to help Louis in his war against Holland—the power with which Charles had just entered into alliance; while Louis was to pay to Charles a large sum down, an annual allowance of £200,000, and to send him six thousand French troops to crush any opposition to his plan that might arise in England. The advisers of the Crown were at that time known as the **Cabal**,[1] a term derived from the secret writings of the Jews, but applied more especially to these men, as their initials—the initials either of their names or their titles, Clifford, Lord Arlington, the Duke of Buckingham, Ashley (afterwards Lord Shaftesbury), and the Duke of Lauderdale—exactly formed that word. Of these, only two were made acquainted with the article of the treaty pledging Charles to become a Roman Catholic; and to the remaining three a false treaty, from which this

**Fall of Clarendon.**
**The Cabal**
**1667.**

**The Triple Alliance**
**1668.**

**The Treaty of Dover**
**1670.**

[1] Cabál, with accent on last syllable.

article was left out, was exhibited. Charles and his government were, as usual, much pressed for money; and they determined upon an act of the most disgusting brigandage. A proclamation was suddenly issued in January 1672, suspending all payments from the Treasury for one year; and thus private persons were robbed of their money, to promote the designs of a fraudulent council and an abandoned court. This was an act of brigandage and bad faith towards the nation. A similar act towards a foreign nation with whom we were at peace was perpetrated in March of 1672. A Dutch fleet of merchantmen, carrying spices, was sailing homewards from the Levant; and orders—piratical orders—were issued to our admirals to capture it. The convoy of the Dutch fleet beat off the English; and the nation was spared the disgrace of open robbery. Our admirals were bitterly ashamed of the orders they had received. War was soon after proclaimed against Holland; and an indecisive naval battle was fought in Southwold Bay.

This refusal to repay the loans that had fallen due was in reality an act of national bankruptcy. £1,300,000 was at this time due to the Bankers and others who had advanced money. A proclamation was issued suspending all payments for one year. Interest was promised; but this was not paid for many years. "The shutting of the exchequer came like a clap of thunder on the city. There was a run upon the goldsmiths; the most respectable merchants were obliged to break; private families, widows, and orphans were ruined."

**10. The Popish Plot.**—To carry out his secret promise to Louis of bringing back the country to Roman Catholicism, Charles issued a proclamation or **Declaration of Indulgence** suspending the action of all penal laws in ecclesiastical matters—a measure which relieved the Nonconformists on the one side, and the Catholics on the other. But the Nonconformists refused, with indignation, to give their support to this "indulgence"; while the Opposition in Parliament, or Country Party, headed by Lord Shaftesbury, an able but unprincipled man, brought in and passed in 1673 the **Test Act**, which, among other things, compelled all who held office to reject the doctrine of Transubstantiation. The passing of this Act compelled the Duke of York to resign his position of Lord High Admiral. And now some inklings of the secret agreement between Charles and the French king began to get about, when suddenly the people of England were driven almost frantic by the

**The Test Act 1673.**

rumour of a new Popish plot: the Jesuits were to govern England, the king was to be assassinated, all good Protestants were to be massacred, and a French expedition was to land.

(i) The **Declaration of Indulgence**, in 1672, at once released John Bunyan, who had been twelve years in Bedford Prison. "Ministers returned, after years of banishment, to their homes and their flocks. Chapels were reopened. The gaols were emptied. Thousands of Quakers, who had been the especial objects of persecution, were set free to worship God after their own fashion."

(ii) Alderman Love, one of the M.P.s for the City of London, himself a Dissenter, said: "I had much rather see the Dissenters suffer by the rigour of the law, though I suffer with them, than see all the laws of England trampled under the foot of the prerogative."

(iii) The **Country Party** in the House maintained against the **Court Party** that penal statutes could not be suspended without the consent of Parliament. Hence, the Declaration of Indulgence had to be recalled, and its very opposite—the **Test Act**—was passed by the House.

(iv) Since the Gunpowder Plot of 1605, the people of England were always ready to believe anything of the Roman Catholics.

**11. Titus Oates.**—In August 1678, a man named Titus Oates, who had studied at the Jesuit seminary of St. Omer, appeared before Sir Edmundbury Godfrey, a magistrate, and swore to the details of this terrible plot. Every one was alarmed. But the alarm quickened into a fearful panic when, two months after, Sir E. Godfrey was found lying stabbed upon Primrose Hill. No man felt safe. Every one went about with a small flail loaded with lead, which was called the Protestant flail. The trade of "Informer" began to flourish, and even the queen was accused of conspiring to poison her husband. Oates was lodged in Whitehall, had guards assigned him, dressed like a bishop, held the lives of high as well as low at his mercy, and received a pension of £1200 a year. He called himself the "Saviour of the Nation;" every one he pointed out was arrested, "the very breath of him was pestilential;" and the lives of many innocent Roman Catholics were sworn away.

**Titus Oates 1678.**

(i) Though Charles himself was a Catholic, he had not the common honesty or ordinary good-feeling to refuse to sign the death-warrants of these poor Catholics whom he perfectly well knew to be innocent. The worst case was that of Plunkett, archbishop of Armagh, who was executed in London on charges well known to be false.

(ii) Viscount Stafford, a member of the Norfolk family, though perfectly innocent, was beheaded on Tower Hill.

**12. The Secret Betrayed.**—And now another terrible story excited the nation. Louis could no longer trust the word of Charles, and was also determined to punish him for having allowed his niece, the daughter of the Duke of York, to marry France's great enemy, the Prince of Orange. He accordingly instructed Montague, the English ambassador at Paris, to make known to Parliament the existence of a secret treaty, by which Charles was to have received six millions of livres—a treaty which was dated only five days after a grant of money had been obtained from Parliament for carrying on the war against France. The wrath of Parliament and the country kindled and grew to a white heat, and, under the influence of this feeling, an Act was passed to exclude Roman Catholics from both Houses; and a Bill, called the **Exclusion Bill**, was also brought in, shutting out James, Duke of York, from the succession.

Louis XIV. betrays Danby 1678.

(i) The consideration given by Charles for the six millions of livres was to disband his standing army, and not to assist the Dutch.

(ii) The **Exclusion Bill** was stopped in the House of Lords by the influence of the Prince of Orange. The reason was that he now saw that under it, not his own wife, Mary, but the Duke of Monmouth, had the best chance of succeeding. He preferred the Duke of York to the Duke of Monmouth.

**13. Habeas Corpus Act.**—This Bill was thrown out, but Charles's Third Parliament succeeded in carrying the great **Habeas Corpus**[1] **Act** in the year 1679. From the time of Magna Charta every Englishman had a right to an early trial, but in practice many ways had been discovered of violating this right. The present statute enacted that every judge should be obliged to grant a writ for bringing up a prisoner before a judge or magistrate at any time it was demanded; and heavy penalties were attached to the refusal of such a writ on the part of a judge, or to disobedience of it on the part of a jailor. The Exclusion Bill was again introduced in 1680; was again passed by the House of Commons, but rejected by the Lords. The king declared that, in the interest of his brother, he never would consent to it; the Commons refused to grant supplies; and Parliament was dissolved.

The Habeas Corpus Act 1679.

**14. Scotland.**—The west of Scotland had always been the stronghold of the Covenanters. To break down this spirit, and to reduce

[1] A Latin phrase, meaning "You are entitled to possess the body of."

the people to conformity, a body of wild Highland levies, called the "Highland Host," had been marched down and quartered upon the inhabitants.—In the extreme east of Scotland there was also great dissatisfaction. Archbishop Sharp was driving in his carriage with his daughter across Magus Moor, a wild stretch of country between Cupar-Fife and St. Andrews, when a body of Covenanters fell upon him, dragged him from his coach, and put him to death with pistol and sword. They then fled to the West, raised a small but determined body of men, and defeated General John Graham of Claverhouse at a place called **Drumclog**. The Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles II., was sent down, and defeated the Covenanters at **Bothwell Bridge**. Monmouth was found to be too kindly and lenient, and his place was taken by the Duke of York, who set to work with all his heart and soul, by the help of the gallows, the sword, the torture of the thumbscrew and the boot, to break the spirit of the Covenanters and to leave a stain upon his own name. Monmouth, on his return to London, became the popular hero; he was welcomed with banquets and the ringing of bells, and the people of London, who hated the Duke of York, passionately asserted that this young hero was the rightful heir to the throne.

**Defeat of the Covenanters 1679.**

**15. Whig and Tory.**—It was in the year 1679 that the party names of *Whig* and *Tory* first came into use. The term *Whig* was first applied to the western Covenanters of Scotland, and from them transferred to the party which was opposed to the court, and bent on shutting out the Duke of York from the succession; and the name of *Tory*, which originally belonged to the outlaws who had fled to the bogs of Ireland, was applied to those who fought in support of the king's party and the court. The Duke of York was a bigoted Roman Catholic; while the Duke of Monmouth, the eldest of Charles's children, was a Protestant, and the Protestant favourite. Charles had ruled without a Parliament for the last four years of his reign; and the Whigs, driven to despair, began to plot insurrections in favour of the Duke of Monmouth, while some of the more desperate conspired together to assassinate the king and his brother. This conspiracy was known as the **Rye House Plot**.[1]

**The Rye House Plot 1683.**

[1] On the river Lea, near London.

from the place of meeting of the conspirators. Rumbold, an old Cromwellian soldier, was the chief conspirator. The plot was betrayed by one of its members; and William Lord Russell, and Algernon Sidney, a noble and ardent republican, neither of whom knew anything of the plot whatever, were arrested. Both were tried, found guilty, and executed. The Duke of Monmouth fled to the Continent. The power of the Whig party was broken; the discovery of the Rye House Plot made the crown irresistible; Charles became an absolute king, and, overriding the law, he replaced the Duke of York in his office of Lord High Admiral.

(i) The **Whigs** were at first called "The Petitioners"; and the **Tories** "The Abhorrers." That is, the former petitioned in favour of the Exclusion Bill; the latter abhorred it. The Tories upheld the doctrine of "Divine Right"; the Whigs looked on Parliament as an integral part of the Constitution, not to be overridden by any prerogative whatsoever of the king. London and the boroughs were the strongholds of the Whigs; Oxford and other cities of the Tories.

(ii) At a Parliament which met at Oxford in 1681—when party feeling ran so high that the members brought armed followers with them—Charles made an offer that, if the Duke of York were named heir, the actual administration of the country should be in the hands of the Prince of Orange and other Protestants.

(iii) To break down the strength of the Whigs in London and the boroughs, Charles had recourse to an old statute—**Quo Warranto**—of Edward I. (See Pt. I. p. 152.) London and other boroughs were called upon to produce their charters; clever lawyers were set to find flaws in them; flaws were found; new charters must be asked for. New charters were granted; but at the same time new Corporations, consisting exclusively of Tory members, were also named. In the case of the other boroughs the same course was pursued; only that the king reserved to himself the right of vetoing all or any elections to municipal offices. Again, the House of Commons was elected by these corporations! Thus, on this side too, the king was absolute; for the Corporations were packed, and the House was packed.

> "Borough after borough was compelled to surrender its privileges: and new charters were granted which gave the ascendancy everywhere to the Tories."—MACAULAY.

(iv) In 1682 the **Duke of Monmouth** made a royal progress through England, by permission of his father, Charles II., and "touched for the King's evil." It was believed by many that Charles had been really married to Lucy Walters, the mother of Monmouth. His father allowed him to bear the royal arms without the bar sinister. He was Duke of Monmouth in England, Duke of Buccleuch in Scotland, Master of the Horse, Chief Justice in Eyre south of the Trent, and Chancellor of the University of Cambridge.

(v) By the law of England a charge of treason cannot be supported by one witness only. But the jury found Russell guilty.

(vi) Against Algernon Sidney there was also only one witness; but the court

admitted, as a second, a treatise he had written on Republicanism. That a man should, theoretically, prefer Republicanism as a form of government, is very far from being a proof that he would join in murdering a king to bring it about.

**16. The Death and Character of Charles.**—On Sunday evening, the 1st of February 1685, the king of England was sitting in a splendid chamber in Whitehall, surrounded by his courtiers gambling and love-making; a French boy was singing love-songs, and there was no sign of anything but gaiety, jollity, and pleasure. On Monday morning he was struck with apoplexy, and on Thursday his case was hopeless. His brother James asked him if he should send for a priest, and the king replied, "For God's sake, brother, do, and please to lose no time." Father Huddleston, the priest who had preserved his life after the battle of Worcester, was brought to him, and administered the last sacraments. At noon on Friday the king was dead. Odious and degrading as his government had been, the people sorrowed for the king; but with their sorrow mingled the fear that a worse king than he stood with one foot upon the steps of the throne.—Charles had excellent natural abilities, artistic tastes, great wit, some humour, charming and attractive manners, and the most perfect tact; but he was selfish to the core, without the smallest regard for others, unless they ministered to his own pleasures, and without the smallest respect for principle. In the face of a strong opposition, and amid the bitter strife of parties, he always managed to get his own way; but he left behind him in the Declaration of Indulgence an inheritance of evil, which sank his brother James beyond recovery and beyond hope. He had the courage of his house, and, when tortured with agony on his death-bed, he asked his attendants to pardon him for the trouble he was giving them. Epigrams are rarely truthful; but perhaps the epigram made by Rochester upon Charles II. states the truth, and nothing but the truth:

Death of Charles 1685.

"Here lies our sovereign Lord the King,
Whose word no man relies on,
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

(i) "Charles died as he had lived: brave, witty, cynical, even in the presence of death. Tortured as he was with pain, he begged the bystanders to forgive him for being so unconscionable a time in dying."—GREEN.

(ii) "Charles II., essentially different in character from his father, had inherited that

quality of his family which mainly led to the tragedies of Fotheringay and Whitehall. He was a double-dealer."

"So ended the worst reign in English history, whose sole greatness was the Habeas Corpus Act (1679). With his subjects Charles was always popular: the nicknames 'Old Rowley' and the 'Merry Monarch' attest even now the liking that they bore him."—GREEN.

**17. The Work of Parliament.**—The "Convention Parliament" of 1660, appointed by the old Rump, passed the Act of Indemnity, abolished Feudal Dues, and disbanded the Parliamentary Army. The **First Parliament** of Charles, which met in 1661, and was not dissolved till 1679, was furiously loyal, eager for vengeance, and anxious to bring back the old order. It passed the **Corporation Act**, the **Act of Uniformity**, the **Conventicle Act**, and the **Five-Mile Act.** In 1665 this Parliament granted a million and a quarter for the Dutch war—and for this war only; and thus established one of the corner-stones of British Constitutional freedom—that of **Appropriation of Supplies.** In 1673 this Parliament also compelled Charles to withdraw his **Declaration of Indulgence**, and thus laid down the principle that the king is not above the law. Its reply to Charles's "Declaration" was the **Test Act.** In 1674 it passed a resolution against a **Standing Army**; and this resolution was afterwards embodied in the "Bill of Rights" and in the "Mutiny Act" of 1689. In the year 1678, the House, excited and alarmed by the numerous and perpetual rumours of Popish Plots, passed an act for "disabling Papists from sitting in either House of Parliament." Charles's **Second Parliament** met in 1679, and in the same year passed the valuable **Habeas Corpus Act.** This Act was in reality only a part of the Magna Charta; but this clause had been frequently forgotten and more frequently infringed. His **Third Parliament** met in 1679, but was prorogued seven times. The House of Commons, in this Parliament, passed the **Exclusion Bill**; but it was thrown out by the Lords. The **Fourth Parliament** met in 1681 at Oxford; discussed the Exclusion Bill; and was sent away in a week. After this, in defiance of the Triennial Bill, Parliament was never called again till the end of the reign; and Charles looked for his supplies to a foreign and a hostile prince—Louis of France.

**The Test Act**, on the positive side, commanded all holders of office under the Crown to take the sacrament according to the forms of the Church of England; on the negative side, to renounce and deny the doctrine of transubstantiation.

**18. Great Men.**—The greatest statesman in the earlier part of Charles II.'s reign is **Edward Hyde**, Earl of Clarendon. To him is due most of the moderation and all of the common sense that characterise this period. Of the Cabal Ministry, which succeeded him, the most distinguished men were **Antony Ashley Cooper**, Earl of Shaftesbury, and **Lord Lauderdale**. After the fall of this Ministry, **Thomas Osborne**, Earl of Danby, rose to power, but fell through the machinations of Louis XIV. The two prominent personages round whom plots centred and political parties fought and struggled were the **Duke of York**, the king's brother, and the **Duke of Monmouth**, the king's son. The former was supported by the Tories and the Universities; the latter was the hope of the Whigs and the ultra-Protestants. The man in this reign who earned the highest distinction for infamy was **Titus Oates**. Two men who suffered for their political opinions, and also for the cause of political freedom, deserve high and honourable mention in the story of England's growth, —**William Lord Russell**, and **Algernon Sidney.**

**19. Social Facts.**—For the first time in the history of England a systematic attempt was made to light the streets of London in 1684.—Lines of stage coaches were started for the most important towns, such as York, Chester, Exeter, Oxford, and Cambridge; these coaches did as much as fifty miles a day in summer, when the roads were not quite so muddy and so full of ruts; and they reached their journey's end in comparative safety, unless when they were stopped by highwaymen.—The Duke of York received the monopoly of carrying letters by post; under his care, the service was tolerably well maintained, and the revenue of the Post Office went on constantly increasing.—In spite of Milton's eloquence, arguments, and influence, there had never existed complete liberty of the Press. The "Licensing Act" of 1662 put an end to the existence of the numerous newspapers that had sprung up just before the Restoration. This act allowed any one to print a sermon, a history, or a poem; but it did not grant to any man the privilege of publishing a daily or weekly newspaper. The only two licensed newspapers in London were the "London Gazette" and "The Observator." Of provincial newspapers there were none: their place was supplied by "News Letters" which were sent weekly from London into the country.—Science made great strides; and the **Royal Society** was founded in

the years of the Restoration. Chemistry became fashionable; fine gentlemen talked about telescopes and air-pumps; Charles had a laboratory at Whitehall; and Prince Rupert invented a new method of engraving on copper.

Britannia on pennies from Roman coins.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF CHARLES II.'s REIGN.

**1660.** **Restoration of Stuart Line** in the person of **Charles II.**
- (a) Clarendon chief adviser.
- (b) Act of Indemnity (with the exception of Regicides).
- (c) Tonnage and poundage granted Charles for life.

**1661.** **Corporation Act.**

**1662.** (a) Charles marries Catherine of Braganza (Bombay and Tangiers as dowry).
- (b) **Act of Uniformity.**
- (c) Sale of Dunkirk (last Continental possession).

**1664.** **Conventicle Act.**

**1665.** **Great Plague of London.**
- (a) **Five-Mile Act.**
- (b) **Appropriation of Supplies.**

**1666.** **The Fire of London.**

**1667.** (a) **End of Clarendon's administration.**
- (b) **The Cabal.**

**1668.** **The Triple Alliance** (England, Holland, and Sweden against France).

**1670.** **Secret Treaty of Dover.**

**1672.** (a) **Duke of York avows his Catholicism.**
- (b) **Declaration of Indulgence.**

**1673.** (a) **The Test Act.**
- (b) **End of the Cabal.**

**1675.** Charles is bribed by Louis XIV. to prorogue Parliament.

**1677.** **Mary** (eldest daughter of the Duke of York and Anne Hyde) **marries William of Orange.**

**1678.** (a) **Secret Treaty with France.**
- (b) **Oates's Popish Plot.**

**1679.** **Habeas Corpus Act.**

**1680.** **Exclusion Bill** (passes the Commons, is thrown out by the Lords).

**1682.** **The Duke of Monmouth** makes a royal progress.

**1683.** **Rye-House Plot.**
- (a) William Lord Russell executed.
- (b) Algernon Sidney executed.

**1685.** **Death of Charles II.**

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1661.** (a) **Act of Settlement** in Ireland.
- (b) **Episcopacy restored** in Scotland.

**1662.** **Mile Act** in Scotland.

**1672.** William of Orange Stadtholder of Holland.

**1681.** Strasburg is seized by the French in time of peace.

(i) By the "Act of Settlement," the Cromwellian allotment of lands to adventurers and soldiers was confirmed. In 1665 many of them, however, had to give up one-third of their holdings under the "Act of Explanation."

(ii) The "Mile Act" in Scotland was of the same nature as the Five Mile Act in England: only the ejected ministers were not allowed to settle within one mile of a corporate town or borough.

# CHAPTER V.

# JAMES THE SECOND

Born 1633. Succeeded (at the age of 51) in 1685. Deposed 1689.
Reigned 4 years.

JAMES STUART, II. of England and VII. of Scotland, the second surviving son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria, was born at St. James's Palace on October 15, 1633. He was created Duke of York in 1643. He served both in the French and the Spanish armies. At the Restoration he was appointed Lord High Admiral and Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. He made no important mistakes in his administration of the Admiralty. He married, first, Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, who died in 1671. She had two daughters, Mary, who married William Prince of Orange, and Anne (afterwards Queen Anne), who married Prince George of Denmark. James was, in the year 1679, made Lord High Commissioner for Scotland; and, while there, was guilty of the greatest cruelty to the Covenanters. In 1673 he married the Catholic Princess, Mary d'Este of Modena. Their son was James, the "Old Pretender." He ascended the throne in February 1685; fled in December 1688; landed in Ireland in March 1689; fled from Ireland in July 1690; and died at St. Germains, in France, in 1701.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

FRANCE: LOUIS XIV. SPAIN: CHARLES II. POPE: INNOCENT XI.

**1. James II., 1685-1688.**—The Duke of York closed his brother's eyes, passed into another room, where he spent fifteen minutes in meditation, and then came out and presented himself as James II. to the assembled courtiers. He assured them that, though a Roman Catholic, he would defend the Church of England as by law established, and respect to the full all the laws made by Parliament; and the nation, in general, looked upon him as a man of high character—as a man of his word. But in a few days he went openly to mass in royal state; and, very soon after his coronation, he became.

like his brother, a pensioner of France. His chief advisers were Lord Rochester (his brother-in-law), Halifax, Godolphin, and Sunderland. Rochester and the two last formed the "interior cabinet." Early in this reign, Oates was tried and condemned to be whipped, to please the Catholics; and he was nearly whipped to death. The seed sown by Shaftesbury and the Whigs began to bear fruit; and two simultaneous attacks were arranged between the Earl of Argyll and the Duke of Monmouth. The Earl of Argyll landed in the west of Scotland, where he was not strongly supported; and, betrayed by a spy, he was soon after executed, like his father, in the High Street of Edinburgh.

(i) **James II.** was so cowardly that he had even fears about summoning a Parliament, lest he should give offence to Louis XIV. Like his brother Charles, he became a pensioner of the French king. "He wept with joy over the French bills of exchange." "He is as fond," said Louis, "of my pistoles as ever his brother was."

(ii) **Titus Oates** was sentenced to be pilloried, to be whipped from Aldgate to Newgate; forty-eight hours after, to be whipped from Newgate to Tyburn; to be imprisoned for life; and to be exposed in the pillory five times every year. He is said to have received 1700 stripes on the second day. He was afterwards ironed in the darkest hole of Newgate.

**2. The Duke of Monmouth.**—Four months after the accession of James, the Duke of Monmouth landed at Lyme, in Dorsetshire. The people ran joyfully to meet him, crying, "A Monmouth! A Monmouth! The Protestant religion!" At Taunton he committed a fatal blunder: he took upon himself the title of *King*. Thousands went to meet him; the narrow streets were crowded—every man with a green bough in his hat; the windows were hung with garlands and with tapestry; the road strewn with flowers; and a long procession of young girls, dressed in white, came to offer him twenty-seven standards, which they had worked with their own hands. On the 6th of July he made a night attack upon the forces of the king at Sedgemoor, and was completely defeated. His men, mostly armed with scythes fixed on straight handles, made a gallant defence; but they were outnumbered. Monmouth fled, and, some days after, he was found in a ditch on the borders of the New Forest, one pocket full of raw peas, which had been his only food, and in the other the *George* with which his father, Charles II., had invested him. He was brought to London; and the king was mean enough to have a personal interview with the man whose

**Battle of Sedgemoor 1685.**

life he had already determined not to spare. The weak Monmouth, whose hands were tied with a silk cord behind his back, fell upon his knees, and, crawling, saluted the feet of His Majesty; but all His Majesty wanted was to know whether there were others engaged in the plot.

(i) The meanness of James II. in allowing an interview to a man whom he had resolved not to spare is like that of his brother in signing the death-warrant of Archbishop Plunkett, whom he knew to be entirely innocent.

> "Monmouth rode into Taunton bareheaded, carrying his hat in his hand: he was dressed in a shining corslet with a blue silk scarf and a purple coat; his long brown hair hung in curls upon his shoulders; his sweet lips were parted with a gracious smile; his beautiful brown eyes—never had any prince more lovely eyes—looked pleased and benignant; truly there was never made any man more comely than the Duke of Monmouth. The face of his father, and that of his uncle, King James, were dark and gloomy, but the Duke's face was naturally bright and cheerful; King Charles's long nose in him was softened and reduced to the proportions of manly beauty; in short, there was no feature that in his father was harsh and unpleasing but was in him sweet and beautiful."—Walter Besant: *For Faith and Freedom.*

(ii) John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, in speaking of James II. said "his heart is as hard as this marble," and he struck the marble chimney-piece with his clenched fist.

3. **The Bloody Assizes.**—Monmouth's followers were treated with fearful severity. Chief-Justice Jeffreys, a man of the coarsest and most brutal nature, was sent down to try the prisoners, and he held what is known to posterity as the "Bloody Assizes." He bullied and browbeat prisoners and witnesses: he sentenced the accused against evidence; and he did all this with an accompaniment of insolence and brutal levity heightened by the excitement of copious draughts of wine. Though only thirty-six years of age, his two predominant passions were cruelty and avarice: he gratified the one by hanging three hundred and thirty persons, and the other by selling more than eight hundred prisoners as slaves to the West Indies, and pocketing a large part of the price paid for them. The pitch caldron was constantly boiling in the Assize towns; and the heads and limbs preserved in it were distributed over the lovely western country, where, for years after, in spite of storms and crows and foxes, they frightened the village labourer as he passed to his cottage in the evening gloom. The great oaks of the village greens had their ghastly load, the steeples of quiet country churches were decorated with gory heads, and even the direction posts at the corners of roads were transformed into gibbets. The dark memories of that cruel time still live in the western counties of England.—Dame Alice Lisle, an old lady of

seventy, the widow of John Lisle, one of Charles the First's judges, was put to death for having given a meal and a lodging to two fugitives whom she did not even know.—Jeffreys, who boasted he had hanged more traitors than all his predecessors since the Conquest, and who had amassed a fortune of £34,000 by the sale of pardons, was made Lord High Chancellor of the kingdom.

(i) "The peasant who had consented to perform this hideous office afterwards returned to his plough. But a mark like that of Cain was upon him. He was known through his village by the horrible name of William Boilman."—MACAULAY.

(ii) **Lady Lisle** was sentenced by Jeffreys to be burnt alive; but James "mercifully" commuted the sentence to beheading.

(iii) Three hundred and thirty prisoners were hanged; eight hundred and forty-one were sold as slaves (for ten years) to the West Indies. They were sold at from £10 to £15 a head; and the Queen begged for the price of a hundred of them.

**4. James and his Advisers.**—These unsuccessful insurrections would have greatly strengthened the government of James; but his own conduct undid the good he might have gained from them. His advisers were the Earl of Sunderland and Father Petre, a Jesuit. All the moderate Roman Catholics, the Papal Nuncio, and even the Pope himself, Innocent XI., earnestly advised him to govern according to law; but he was headstrong, and obstinately bent upon his own ends. These ends were threefold: to obtain a repeal of the Habeas Corpus Act, to keep up a large standing army, and to abolish all the laws which excluded Roman Catholics from office. His advisers counselled him not to summon a Parliament, but to employ his dispensing power in regard to the Test Act and the Act of Uniformity. Clergymen, accordingly, who had become Romanists, were allowed to retain their livings; Roman Catholics were placed at the head of some of the Colleges in Oxford, and a pension was bestowed upon a Romish bishop.

(i) James prepared for his purpose of undermining the constitution of his country with the greatest care; and, like his grandfather and his father, he made use of the letter of the law to destroy its true spirit and meaning. (a) He first of all got rid of those judges who would not be subservient to his views. "I am determined," he said, "to have twelve judges who will be all of my mind as to this matter" (the dispensing power). "Your Majesty," replied Jones, "may find twelve judges of your mind, but hardly twelve lawyers." (b) He next got up a case. He had given Sir Edward Hales, a Roman Catholic, the command of a regiment of foot; Hales had held his commission without taking the sacrament; James's coachman was employed to bring an action against him in the Court of King's Bench; eleven out of the twelve

judges gave their decision in Hales's (that is, in the king's) favour[1]; the twelfth, Baron Strut—a man of bad character—had been instructed for the sake of appearances to dissent. (c) James soon began to make a liberal use of his dispensing power. He called Roman Catholics to the Privy Council—among others, Father Petre, an English Jesuit, and his chief adviser; he gave Roman Catholics livings in the Church and offices in the Universities.

(ii) James also established an **Ecclesiastical Commission Court** (an illegal act, for this kind of Court had been long abolished by Act of Parliament), the moving spirit in which was Jeffreys.

(iii) James made Obadiah Walker, a Roman Catholic, Master of University College, Oxford; and John Massey, another Roman Catholic, Dean of Christ Church.

(iv) "Soon, within the walls of Christ Church, an altar was decked, at which mass was daily celebrated."—MACAULAY.

**5. The Declaration of Indulgence.**—He dismissed the two Hydes, Clarendon and Rochester, his brothers-in-law, because they were staunch to their Protestant faith; and Father Petre became his chief counsellor. More, he dissolved Parliament; ruled for two years without any Parliament at all; and tried to remodel the corporations of cities and boroughs in such a fashion as to get together a Parliament that would support him in his Declaration of Indulgence. In this and other ways he succeeded in alienating from himself the country gentry, the Church, and the Universities. Carmelites, Benedictines, and Franciscans appeared in their cowls and girdled robes in the streets of London, and openly boasted that they would soon walk in procession through Cheapside; and, when a riot broke out on the opening of a new Catholic chapel in the city, the king replied to it by the establishment of a camp of thirteen thousand men, officered by gentlemen of the "King's religion," at Hounslow, for the purpose of overawing the capital. James even compelled Wren to add side-aisles to his Plan of St. Paul's, that his monks and friars might march along them, chanting the hymns of their Church. On the 4th of April 1687, he published a **Declaration of Indulgence**, in which all penal laws against Nonconformity were suspended, and all religious tests done away with.

**Camp at Hounslow 1686.**

**First Declaration of Indulgence 1687.**

(i) The trainbands were called out to quell the riots in the City; but they refused to act: "We cannot in conscience fight for Popery."

(ii) The camp at Hounslow became a favourite resort of the Londoners and it

[1] "The effect of this judgment was to declare the sovereign absolute, and uncontrolled by laws made by Parliament."—HALE.

looked like an immense fair. It was the best place, the citizens thought, for picnics. "Mingled with the musketeers and dragoons, a multitude of fine ladies and gentlemen from Soho Square, sharpers from Whitefriars, invalids in sedans, monks in hoods and gowns, lacqueys in rich liveries, pedlers, orange-girls, mischievous apprentices, and gaping clowns, were constantly passing and repassing through the long lanes of tents. In truth, the place was merely a gay suburb of the capital."—MACAULAY.

(iii) "The common people, in the open streets, talked with freedom and contempt of James's wild measures to make a whole Protestant nation Papists. To drive all England into popery and slavery, he would find, would be teaching an old lion to dance."

**6. Scotland and Ireland.**—James had placed the government of Scotland in the hands of two nobles, Lords Perth and Melfort who had turned Roman Catholic; and he put a Catholic governor in command of the Castle of Edinburgh. The Scottish Parliament was now called upon to pass an Act for the toleration of the Catholics, and the bribe of free-trade with England was offered them as an inducement. "Shall we sell our God?" was the indignant reply. But the persecution of the Covenanters went on under Claverhouse with terrible severity; and two women were tied to stakes on Solway Firth, to await slow drowning upon the rising of the tide.—The Viceroy in Ireland was a headstrong and stupid man, the Earl of Tyrconnel, who, in defiance of all law, filled the State offices with Roman Catholics. This man entered into secret arrangements with Louis XIV. to make Ireland a dependency of France, with James as the nominal king. Even the Catholics themselves whistled the ballad of *Lillibullero*:

"There was an old prophecy found in a bog,
Ireland shall be ruled by an ass and a dog.
Lillibullero, bullen-a-la."

Tyrconnel was the dog, and James the ass. "The whole army, and, at last, the people both in city and country, were singing it perpetually. It was sung from one end of England to the other; and the author of it, Lord Wharton, boasted that he had rhymed James out of his dominions."

(i) Lords Perth and Melfort, whilst persecuting the Covenanters, were doing their utmost to remove all disabilities from the Catholics of Scotland.

(ii) James's policy in Ireland was to bestow all favours and offices on the Celts and Catholics, and to abolish the English ascendancy.

**7. The Seven Bishops.**—Early in 1688 the king issued a second

**Declaration of Indulgence**, and ordered it to be read in all churches and chapels throughout the kingdom on two successive Sundays. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Sancroft, and six bishops of his province, thereupon drew up a petition, which they presented to the king, praying to be excused from carrying out this order. When James read the petition, he broke out into a terrible rage: "This is flat rebellion! Did ever a good Churchman question the dispensing power before?" "We honour you," replied Bishop Ken, "but we fear God." The petition was printed and circulated throughout the country, and "it was so bawled and roared through the streets by hawkers that people rose out of their beds to buy it." A warrant was made out for the committal of the seven bishops to the Tower. Surrounded by their guards, they passed through lines of weeping men and women, who knelt to ask their blessing; and they were followed to the Tower by a thousand boats from which came one unceasing cry of "God bless your lordships!" Their very guards in the Tower drank their health, and omitted the toast of the king. The miners of Cornwall threatened to march to London for the rescue of their countryman Trelawney, bishop of Bristol:

**Second Declaration of Indulgence 1688.**

"And shall Trelawney die?
And shall Trelawney die?
There 's twenty thousand Cornish men
Will know the reason why."

What was still more offensive to King James, a deputation of Nonconformists—who, he supposed, had been won over by his "indulgence"—waited upon the bishops in the Tower. So threatening was the temper of the people, that the ministers advised James to yield and to release the bishops; but he only grew more and more obstinate. "Never!" he cried, "it was indulgence that ruined my father." It was the "Declaration of Indulgence" that ruined James.

(i) The **Declaration of Indulgence** was read in only four of the London churches; but, as soon as the first words were heard, the congregations rose and left.

(ii) But the bishops and clergy had placed themselves in the following dilemma: (a) They preached the divine *right* of Kings. (b) They advocated the corresponding *duty* of absolute and passive obedience. (c) James naturally thought that they would themselves yield this obedience, and also press it on their congregations. (d) James therefore dispensed with the Test Act. (e) If James could dispense with the Test Act, he could dispense with any Act of Parliament. (f) The clergy were there-

fore bound to support James in an attempt to overturn the ancient constitution of England.

(iii) James sent for the Seven Bishops and said to them: "I will be obeyed. My Declaration shall be published. You are trumpeters of sedition. What do you do here? Go to your dioceses; and see that I am obeyed."

**8. James's Defeat.**—On the day of trial four judges sat upon the bench. At ten o'clock at night the jury brought in a verdict of "Not Guilty." The court re-echoed again and again with shouts of triumph; the crowds which packed Westminster Hall took up the cry with hundredfold volume and energy; the shouts passed from the hall to the streets and the river; from street to street the citizens' cry of exultation and deliverance startled the stranger and the visitor, and passed on even into the suburbs. That night London was one blaze of bonfires and illuminations. Horsemen spurred down the highways to carry the news to distant counties. An express galloped down to Hounslow with the news. James left at once for London. He was no sooner out of the camp than a universal shout burst from every tent and camp-fire. "What is that?" said the king. "Nothing," was the reply; "only the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted." "Do you call that nothing? So much the worse for them—so much the worse for them," muttered the poor headstrong monarch. The acquittal of the bishops proved the fall of the monarch—it sealed his doom.

**Acquittal of the Seven Bishops, June 30 1688.**

(i) The Jury found themselves in difficulties. One Michael Arnold was brewer to His Majesty, and he argued: "Whatever I do, I am sure to be half-ruined. If I say Not Guilty, I shall brew no more for the king; if I say Guilty, I shall brew no more for anybody else." A rich country gentleman, Thomas Austin, said to Arnold, who wanted to give a verdict against the Bishops, "Look at me! I am the largest and strongest of the twelve men here: and, before I find the Bishops' Petition a libel, here I will stay till I am no thicker than a tobacco-pipe."

(ii) "Thousands sobbed aloud for joy."

(iii) "A voice, from long-expecting thousands sent,
Shatters the air, and troubles tower and spire—
For justice hath absolved the innocent,
And tyranny is baulked of her desire:
Up, down, the busy Thames—rapid as fire
Coursing a train of gunpowder,—it went,
And transport finds in every street a vent,
Till the whole city rings like some vast choir."—WORDSWORTH.

**9. Birth of a Son.**—Two days after the bishops had been sent to the Tower, the Council announced that "it had pleased God to bless His Majesty and the Queen with the birth of a hopeful son." The Queen was his second wife—Mary of Modena. Under other circumstances, this event would have strengthened the crown and delighted the people; but a large majority of the nation believed it to be a trick—a mere invention of the Jesuits to keep Mary out of her rights,—and that another person's child had been passed off as the Queen's. James's own daughter, Mary Hyde, the wife of the Prince of Orange, doubted the genuineness of the proclamation. In fact, both his daughters had married Protestants, the second, Anne, being the wife of George, Prince of Denmark; and the nation had patiently endured James's blunders in the belief that all would go well in the succeeding reign. But the birth of **James Francis Edward** changed the prospect and dashed all their hopes to the ground. This boy was the son of a Roman Catholic father and mother; he would be educated by the Jesuits, the miseries and difficulties would begin all over again, and would perhaps last for generations. James had disgusted every party in the country; he had alienated every interest. Not a single organic part of the nation was on his side; not the Church, nor the Law, nor the Country Gentlemen, nor Parliament (not even the House of Lords), nor the Whigs, nor the Tories, nor even the Roman Catholics as a whole. The prosecution of the Bishops had alarmed the clergy; the birth of the Prince of Wales had shaken the loyalty of the Tories. His tampering with the judges had disgusted every honest lawyer; his interference with the elections to Parliament—his desire to pack the House of Commons, had made the loyal country gentry a party of malcontents. The Roman Catholic gentry—most of them good old English gentlemen—had no sympathy with the mongrel and cosmopolite Roman Catholic courtiers who flattered the weaknesses and excited the self-will and obstinacy of the sovereign. They refused to be parties to sending up a corrupt House of Commons. James stood alone: sycophants he had, but no friends.

**Birth of the "Old Pretender," June 10 1688.**

(i) One serious mistake made by James was that he did not invite his daughter Anne (afterwards Queen Anne), who was at the time in London, to be present in the palace when the child was presented to the assembled courtiers.

(ii) Evelyn writes in his Diary: "A young prince born, which will cause disputes." A majority of the people fully believed that this child was supposititious.

**10. Letter to William of Orange.**—On the very day of the acquittal of the bishops, 30th June 1688, Admiral Herbert, dressed like a common sailor, left London for Holland with a letter of invitation to the Prince of Orange, signed by seven gentlemen, to come and deliver the country "from popery and slavery." The names included those of Henry Sidney, the brother of Algernon; the Earl of Devonshire, the chief of the old Whigs; and Edward Russell. William had been long expecting this invitation, and was very soon ready to obey it.—James, on his side, found that even his own English army, which he had petted in every way, and which was officered with Roman Catholics, could not be relied on, and he sent over to Ireland for troops of his own creed. This added fuel to the hot indignation of his English subjects.

Call to William of Orange June 30, 1688.

The seven signatories were: the Earls of Danby, Devonshire, and Shrewsbury; Lord Lumley; Compton, bishop of London, Henry Sidney, and Edward Russell. The last was the cousin of William Lord Russell who was beheaded.

(i) "Not even the arrival of a brigade of Louis XIV.'s musketeers would have excited such resentment and shame as our ancestors felt when they saw armed columns of Papists, just arrived from Dublin, moving in military pomp along the high roads."—MACAULAY.

(ii) James made a double mistake: he sent for Irish troops; but he did not bring over enough. There were only enough to irritate, not to quell.

**11. The Landing of William of Orange.**—William set sail for England with a fleet of six hundred ships, among which were fifty men-of-war and twenty-five frigates. The people of London had been praying for an east wind, which would have the double effect of detaining the Government fleet in the Thames and of bringing William rapidly over to England, and an east wind came. He landed at Torbay, "the most convenient place for landing horse of any in England." When the news reached London, poor James was immediately deserted. Lord Cornbury, the king's nephew, was the first to go; he was followed by Prince George of Denmark, the king's son-in-law, by Lord Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, and many others. His daughter Anne, escorted by Bishop Compton, who had once been a soldier, and who now donned once more the buff coat and jack-boots of a trooper, was the next to flee to the hostile camp. "God help

Landing of William. November 5 1688.

me!" cried James, in the bitterness of his soul; "even my own children have forsaken me!"

"The contagion," wrote James himself, "was spread so universally that all parts of England furnished the same news of risings and defections; the only strife was who should be foremost in abandoning the king."

**12. The Flight of James.**—He sent off the Queen and her infant son to France; and, at three o'clock in the morning of the 11th of December, he set out to follow her, dropping the Great Seal of the kingdom into the Thames on his way. James was arrested by some fishermen at Sheerness, and brought back to London. He was ordered to go to Ham House, near Richmond; but he preferred Rochester. A guard was placed over him there, but private instructions were sent to them not to be too vigilant; and so James slipped away in the early morning, crossed to France, and presented himself to Louis XIV., who received him with much kindness and gave him the Palace of St. Germains to live in. Lord Chancellor Jeffreys, in mortal terror, disguised himself as a collier sailor, and was discovered at an alehouse in Wapping. The people were inclined to tear him to pieces; but, at his own entreaty, he was sent to the Tower, where he died of terror and drunkenness in 1689.

**Flight of James II., December 23 1688.**

**13. "The Glorious Revolution."**—An assembly of peers and commoners invited the Prince of Orange to take upon himself the duties of government; and he summoned a Convention of the Estates of the Realm for the 22d of January 1689, which declared the throne vacant. The sovereignty of Ireland went along with the monarchical power over England; and the Estates of Scotland also made a formal offer of the crown of that country to William and Mary. These two royal personages ruled as joint sovereigns; and, in the case of both countries, a **Declaration of Right** was drawn up, which asserted all the ancient rights, privileges, and liberties of the people of each monarchy. And thus was concluded the "Glorious Revolution of 1688." The "Divine Right" of kings had disappeared; the **Reign of Parliament** had begun.

**The Declaration of Right, January 1689.**

(i) The **Declaration of Right** was embodied in the **Bill of Rights**, which was passed in **1689** by the **First Parliament of William and Mary.**

(ii) The Declaration of Right contained, among many others, five negative and four positive declarations:

I. NEGATIVE: (a) The Dispensing Power is illegal.
(b) The Ecclesiastical Commission Court is illegal.
(c) Raising money without the sanction of Parliament ("by pretence of prerogative") is illegal.
(d) A standing army, in time of peace, is illegal.
(e) No Roman Catholic, nor person married to a Roman Catholic, can hold the Crown.

II. POSITIVE: (a) The election of members of Parliament must be free.
(b) Freedom of debate in Parliament is lawful and constitutional.
(c) The right of petitioning the king belongs to all subjects.
(d) Frequent Parliaments must be held.

**14. The Work of Parliament.**—Parliament sat as little as possible during the reign of James II. His **First Parliament**—and it was his only one—was of an extreme Tory character, and had been carefully packed. It gave to James tonnage and poundage for life, and in addition, taxes on sugar and tobacco. This Parliament was prorogued in the end of 1685, and finally dissolved in 1687. James, in the meanwhile, tried to get together a Parliament of Catholics and Nonconformists. He sent out letters to the Lord-Lieutenants of counties to ask them to draw up a list of gentlemen, not being members of the Church of England, who would be fit to sit in the House of Commons. Most of them refused; many of them resigned. From this time, during James's reign, there was no Parliament in England, until the meeting of the famous **Convention Parliament**, which issued the well-known document entitled THE DECLARATION OF RIGHT.

(i) James's Parliament was carefully prepared by employing the new powers in the boroughs which had been gained by the cancelling of the old charters and the conferring of new ones.

(ii) James himself remarked that, "with the exception of about forty members, the House of Commons was just such as he should himself have named." "And this House of Commons it was in his power, as the law then stood, to keep to the end of his reign."—MACAULAY.

**15. Great Men.**—The men who made most talk during this short reign were, in Scotland, the daring **Earl of Argyll**, in England, the **Duke of Monmouth**. In the Roman Catholic party, **Father Petre** was the most distinguished man, and the confidential adviser of the king. Of the Whig Party, the most prominent members were **Henry**

**Sidney** and **Edward Russell**; while **Lord Danby**, who had been released from the Tower, was regarded with the greatest respect and trust by members of the Church of England.

**16. Social Facts.**—The population of England during James's reign has been generally estimated at five millions. Commerce advanced with rapidity from the period of the Restoration; and the shipping of the country more than doubled itself during the thirty years that lie between 1660 and 1690. The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes in the end of 1685 drove a hundred thousand of the most pious and industrious Frenchmen out of their country; many of these Huguenots came over to England and settled in many of the provincial towns and in London. Some of these founded the manufacture of silk in England; and it is to them that the silk trade of Spitalfields, in the east end of London, was mainly due.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF JAMES II.'s REIGN.

**1685.** (a) **Accession of James II.** (Feb. 6).
(b) **Battle of Sedgemoor** (July 6).

**1686.** (a) The Hales Case.
(b) Ecclesiastical Commission Court.
(c) Camp at Hounslow.

**1687. First Declaration of Indulgence.**

**1688.** (i) **Second Declaration of Indulgence,** (clergy to read it)—May 4th.

(a) Birth of the "Old Pretender," June 10.
(b) Trial of the seven Bishops, June 30.
(c) Letter of the seven Whigs to William of Orange, June 30.

(ii) **Declaration of William of Orange,** Oct. 10.
(iii) **Landing of William at Torbay,** Nov. 5.
(iv) **Flight of James II.,** Dec. 23.

INTERREGNUM.

**1689. THE DECLARATION OF RIGHT.** Jan. 22.

**WILLIAM AND MARY.**

**1689. James II., King in Ireland** (May).

**1690. Battle of the Boyne,** July 1.
**Flight of James,** July 2.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1685.** (a) Execution of Earl of Argyll in Edinburgh.

(b) **Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.**

**1686. League of Augsburg** against Louis XIV.

**1689.** Peter the Great, Czar of Russia.

# CHAPTER VI.

# WILLIAM AND MARY

(1689-1694)

# WILLIAM (alone)

(1694-1702)

**William born 1650. Succeeded (at the age of 38) in 1689. Died 1702.**
**Mary born 1662. Succeeded (at the age of 26) in 1689. Died 1694.**
**William and Mary reigned 5 Years.**
**William (alone) reigned 8 years.**

WILLIAM III., Prince of Orange, was born at the Hague in 1650. He was the son of William II. and Mary, daughter of Charles I. of England. He married his cousin Mary II., the eldest daughter of James II. They had no children.

MARY II. was born in London in the year 1662. She was the eldest child of James II. and his first wife Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon. "She was English by birth, and English also in her tastes and feelings. Her face was handsome, her port majestic, her temper sweet and lively, her manners affable and graceful." She died in 1694.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

FRANCE: LOUIS XIV. SPAIN: CHARLES II. to 1700. PHILIP V. PRUSSIA: FREDERICK I.

RUSSIA: PETER THE GREAT from 1689. SWEDEN: CHARLES XII. from 1697.

**1. William and Mary, 1689-1694.**—William and Mary were crowned as joint sovereigns of Great Britain and Ireland. The **Declaration of Right** had stated that no money could be forced from the subject by the sovereign without the consent of Parliament; that

no army must be kept up in time of peace; that the nation has a right to choose its own representatives; that these representatives have a right to perfect freedom of debate; that justice must be pure and Parliaments frequent; and to these statements the two sovereigns gave their hearty and unfeigned assent. The **Convention** which offered them the crown changed itself into a Parliament; and, in the same way, the Declaration of Right was made into a statute, and called the **Bill of Rights.** It fixed the yearly revenue at £1,200,000; and it re-confirmed the principle of **Appropriation of Supplies.** Up to this time,[1] money voted to the king as supplies could be employed by him as he pleased. But, from this time, a fixed sum (in William's case it was £700,000) was allotted to the support of the Crown; and the other sums were kept under the control of Parliament and applied to specified purposes. This fixed sum for the Crown went and still goes by the name of the **Civil List.** Parliament thus became the supreme power in the State.

(i) From childhood, William had been brought up in the stern school of adversity. He had been early left fatherless; and in his boyhood and youth he was without friends—was, in fact, always surrounded by enemies. He was weak and sickly from his cradle; he was consumptive; he was attacked by asthma when he grew up; and, "the dregs of the small-pox falling on his lungs, he had a constant cough." He grew up among persons who disliked and hated him, silent, wary, self-involved, solemn, serious, cold, and even repulsive in his manners. Though master of seven languages, he "spoke little and very slowly, and most commonly with a disgusting dryness." But he had bright sparkling eyes, a passionate temper which was under perfect control, a courage which rose in coolness and fixedness with difficulty and disaster, and the highest ability in State business. When he came under fire, a strange light flashed from his eyes; and, when others were full of terror and dismay, his presence of mind increased with every addition to the danger and the confusion, and even his stiff manners were seen to change to ease and grace and gaiety.

(ii) The French ambassador wrote to his master Louis XIV., "He is honourable in all he does, and his conduct is sincere." He had a great power of concealing and governing his passion, and he was the most enduring, persevering, and patient of men.

(iii) William's one idea from his youth up had been to break the dreaded power of Louis XIV., and his new power in England was valued by him chiefly as a means to that end. It was far from being an easy task. At the end of the seventeenth century, France was the wealthiest power in Europe. The annual income of the French crown was double the income of England, and Louis used to remark that it was "the last sou that must win." He had half a million of men under arms, a force such as the world had never before seen; and his navy numbered one hundred men-of-war. In spite of Louis's power and William's bodily weakness, the match was not very unequal.

[1] The principle began, though it was not always firmly insisted on, in 1665 (v. p. 152).

(iv) The **Bill of Rights** was merely the Declaration of Right thrown into the form of a statute, with the addition that William and Mary were declared King and Queen; and that persons in the line of succession who were Roman Catholics, or who should marry a Roman Catholic, were declared incapable of ascending the throne.

(v) All place-holders, whether in Church or in State, were obliged to take an oath of allegiance and supremacy to the new sovereigns. Seven bishops (among them Archbishop Sancroft) and about four hundred of the clergy declined; and this body became known, during this and the two following reigns, as **Non-jurors**. Some of these men thought that under no circumstances could a rightful sovereign be deposed; others, who were **Jacobites**, were sincerely attached to the House of Stuart.

**2. Ireland.**—Tyrconnel, the Lord-Deputy of Ireland for James, had always advocated the policy of holding Ireland as a separate kingdom, with the help of Louis XIV. This absurd idea he soon had an opportunity of carrying out. The two parties which faced each other in Ireland were the Roman Catholic **Irishry** and the Protestant **Englishry.** The Irishry consisted of the aboriginal Celts and the descendants of the Norman-English settlers, and they numbered about a million. The Protestant Englishry were the English and Scotch colonists, who numbered only two hundred thousand, but who held four-fifths of all the land, and were by far the richest and the most civilised portion of the inhabitants.—Tyrconnel, in the beginning of 1689, hoisted a flag on the walls of Dublin Castle with the legend, "Now or never!" The whole Irish race at once rose in answer. James, who had always regarded Ireland as a refuge in case of danger, came over from France, with money, arms, and officers given him by Louis, landed at Kinsale, and entered Dublin on the 24th of March. The houses were bright with flags and tapestry, flowers were strewed before him, and his horse walked upon green-leaved branches which were laid thick upon the streets. His first act was to call a Parliament of his adherents; and there was not among them a single Protestant. Their chief work was the sorry and futile task of passing a Bill of Attainder against nearly three thousand Protestants of name and fortune, probably "the hugest Bill of Attainder the world had ever seen."

(i) The most foolish thing done by King James in Ireland was the debasing of the coinage: He took "pots, pans, knockers of doors, pieces of ordnance long past use," and turned them into coin. He thus created nominally a million "sterling," which was in reality worth only about £16,000. "A mortgage for a thousand pounds was cleared off by a bag of counters made of old kettles." The tradesmen of Dublin suffered terribly. A man could purchase goods to the amount of half-a-guinea, and

pay for them a coin worth only threepence. Some persons who refused the base money were arrested by troopers, thrown into dark dungeons, and threatened with hanging at their own doors.

(ii) The most foolish thing done by the Irish Parliament of 1689 was the passing of the "Great Act of Attainder." It sentenced to death nearly three thousand persons, among whom were half the peerage of Ireland. There was no inquiry as to their guilt. The utmost care was taken that the persons attainted should not know they were attainted till the day of grace was past. No one was allowed to see the list.

3. **The Siege of Londonderry.**—The Englishry knew what to expect, and they flocked—the Cromwellians into Enniskillen and the Scotch into Londonderry—the only two towns held by their friends. "One Walker, a minister," induced the inhabitants of Londonderry not to surrender to the forces of King James, and the siege began. There was only a weak wall, manned by about twenty old guns, and destitute even of a ditch; there were only provisions for ten days, and the supply of ammunition was very small. King James bombarded the city for nine days; the besieged replied by desperate sallies, in which many of the Irish troops were cut off, and the siege had to be changed into a blockade. James broke into a rage: "If my army had been English," he said, "they would have brought me the town, stone by stone, by this time." The shot of the besieged gave out, and they covered brickbats with lead and fired them at the Irish army. Marshal Rosen, who commanded for James, went so far as to collect—as an extreme measure—old men, young mothers with infants, children, and cripples, who could not flee, and drove them at the point of the bayonet beneath the walls of Londonderry, where they lay starving for three days; but the besieged erected a gallows, and sent word to Rosen that, if these poor people were not allowed to go away, they would hang every prisoner in their hands. The Protestants of Londonderry died of hunger in the streets, and of the fever which comes of hunger; but no man dared to breathe a syllable of the word *surrender*. They ate the flesh of horses and of dogs; they ate rats and mice; they chewed hides and old shoes: and the provisions in the town had come down to nine lean horses, not much more than bones, and a pint of meal per man. There was only one fat man in Londonderry, and he did not dare to show himself in the streets. The besieged had now only food for two days, and still the cry was "No surrender!" On the evening of the 28th of July, Mr. Walker preached in the Cathedral, and ex-

The Siege of Londonderry 1689.

horted his hearers to waiting and to patience, for that God would at last deliver them. An hour after the sermon, the hollow, staring, hungry eyes of the inhabitants descried a movement in Lough Foyle. It was a frigate and two vessels laden with provisions. A boom had been hung across the river to prevent the passage of ships, but they easily broke through, and the town was saved. The lighting of bonfires, the ringing of bells, and the eating of unusual dinners marked the joy of the inhabitants—a joy not unmixed with thankfulness to God.—Three more days passed, and there was nothing left of the besiegers but the smouldering fires of their deserted camp. On the 30th of July, Colonel Wolseley, an ancestor of the present Lord Wolseley, led out the garrison of Enniskillen, and defeated a body of Irish troops at **Newton Butler.**

(i) The siege had lasted three months.

(ii) Eight thousand of the besiegers fell in the struggle.

**4. The Battle of the Boyne.**—In the summer of 1690, William himself crossed over to Ireland. Louis immediately seized the opportunity to make an attempt at invasion, in concert with the Jacobites; and Englishmen, standing upon the high downs of Beachy Head, saw an English Admiral—Herbert, Earl of Torrington—beaten back by the French, and driven to seek refuge in the estuary of the Thames.—But, on the 1st of July 1690, William obtained a decisive victory over the united French and Irish armies at the river Boyne. This stream divides the counties of Louth and Meath, and flows into the sea near Drogheda. The army of James was posted on the river, for the purpose of holding the road from Belfast to the capital. When William caught sight of the hostile army, his eyes lightened, he laughed a great laugh, and exclaimed: "I am glad to see you, gentlemen; and, if you escape me now, the fault will be mine." He had his breakfast spread upon the grass near the river; and the enemy brought down two field-pieces, fired, grazed his right shoulder, and tore his buff coat. The Jacobites spread a rumour that he was killed; but William had his wound dressed, took his sword in his left hand, and gave the order to cross. James, on his side, stayed in the rear of his army in safety beside a church on a hill.—The Irish infantry soon broke; but the cavalry made a tough and gallant defence, and Marshal Schomberg, who

**Battle of Beachy Head 1690.**

commanded the English centre, fell, his skull cloven by a sabre. With the coming up of William himself at the head of the left wing, the whole Jacobite army gave way; and James, seeing all was lost, mounted his horse, galloped to Kinsale, and took ship for France. The faint-heartedness of this Stuart moved even his own followers to scorn: "Change kings with us," said a brave Irish officer, "and we will fight you again." The routed army retreated within the walls of Limerick; but the French leader refused to join them there. "Do you call these ramparts?" he said; "you could batter them down with roasted apples."

**Battle of the Boyne 1690.**

(i) "One of the most remarkable peculiarities of this man," says Lord Macaulay, "this man ordinarily so saturnine and reserved, was that danger acted on him like wine, opened his heart, loosened his tongue, and took away all appearance of constraint from his manner."

(ii) This was the **Admiral Herbert** who had carried the famous letter to William of Orange. His cowardice gave the French Admiral, Tourville, the command of the English Channel. Tourville tried in vain to get English sailors to fight for King James; and he landed and burned Teignmouth. Torrington was dismissed from the service by William; and his post was given to Admiral Russell.

**5. Reduction of Ireland.**—Next year, 1691, saw the complete reduction of Ireland by Ginkell and John Churchill, now Earl of Marlborough. Ginkell gained the battle of **Aghrim**, in which the brave French general, St. Ruth, fell mortally wounded. Limerick was the last stronghold of the Irish Jacobites; but its gallant defender, Patrick Sarsfield, had at length to surrender. By the capitulation of Limerick, he was allowed to go abroad; and he, with many of his followers, entered the French service. His example was followed by many of the bravest and best of the Roman Catholics, who saw all chance of rising in their own country taken from them.

**6. The War with France.**—In 1692 William was absent on the Continent, and Louis XIV. planned another invasion. Admiral Tourville was to convoy a fleet of transports; and he expected that the English captains would be in favour of King James and make no serious resistance. Admiral Russell, however, visited the ships of the fleet, and told the common sailors to pitch overboard any captain "who should play false;" and Admiral Carter, when he fell mortally wounded, cried to his captain to "fight the ship as long as she can swim." The

**Battle of Cape La Hogue 1692.**

French were terribly beaten; the Royal Sun, the finest vessel of that day, and the pride of the French navy, was burnt to the water's edge; the other vessels fled into the bay of La Hogue, where Admiral Rooke burnt them under the very eyes of the half-hearted James.

(i) **Marlborough** was in this year, 1692, dismissed from all his offices. There was a feeling among many of the chief men in the government that William might not succeed in holding the throne; and some, chief among them Marlborough, thought it as well not to break entirely with James. He went further. He induced Anne to write to her father a letter expressing deep contrition for breach of duty to him; and he himself held out to James hopes of restoring him by a vote of Parliament, and by the support of the English army, which had a cordial hatred of the Dutch.

(ii) James II. prepared for this invasion by one of his usual clumsy expedients—a proclamation in which he was frank enough to state what persons and parties he intended to punish, when once he got back to his throne. Every person who had had anything to do with the trial or punishment of a Jacobite—every office-holder who did not immediately declare for King James as soon as he heard of his landing—all the poor fishermen who at Rochester had called the king "Old Hatchet-face"—all these, and more, to the number of hundreds of thousands, were to be punished. If any were pardoned, they would be pardoned "under the Great Seal;" that is to say, they would have to buy their pardons; and "there was not a priest in the royal household who would not make his fortune." Queen Mary (her husband was on the Continent at this time) was clever enough to reprint this precious proclamation, and to circulate it widely, along with some shrewd remarks—so that every one might see what he had to expect from James.

(iii) **Admiral Russell**, who was personally most favourable to James, visited every ship in his fleet, mustered and spoke himself to all the crews. "If your commanders play false," he said, "overboard with them, and myself the first, if you like!"

(iv) The victory of **La Hogue** "crushed the existence of France as a naval power."

(v) This war was for us the beginning of our **National Debt**. In 1692, the year of La Hogue, a land tax was imposed, which varied from £10 for a peer to 4s. for a farmer; but it did not bring in enough. The Government had therefore to raise a loan; and this was the first loan—the first of a long series—raised by the British Government. The first loan, in 1693, was only one million; but, at the present day, in spite of serious attempts to cut down the debt, it amounts to £760,000,000.

**7. Scotland.**—The Scottish Convention, which met in Edinburgh, turned itself, like its English counterpart, into a Parliament; and this Parliament lasted through the whole of the reign.—With James fell also the Episcopal Church in Scotland; and the clergy and curates were driven out of their houses, "rabbled," insulted, and abused, but without bloodshed—proceedings which could not be stopped, as there was not a single regiment north of the Tweed.

It was not, however, until 1690 that the Presbyterian Church was re-established by law in Scotland.—The most active agent on the side of James was Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee; and he now called upon the Highland clans to follow his flag. General Mackay, a good but somewhat slow soldier, was sent against him with three regiments. The two armies met near **Killiecrankie**. The English army was allowed to march up the narrow pass, and to defile into a small open valley—"where not more than three men could walk abreast"—which has the river Garry on one side and a circle of low hills on the other. These hills were held by the Highlanders; and here the battle began. It began with an interchange of musket shots, which went on for several hours. At last Dundee gave the word for close action, and immediately a cloud of Highlanders, throwing down their muskets, swept—shoeless and plaidless—down into the plain, rending the air with the fearful yell of the slogan,[1] urged to maddest combat by the unceasing play and shriek of the bagpipe, and put the "red-coats" to the sword, to rout, and to flight. The Garry was choked with dead bodies, a few soldiers fled headlong down the narrow pass; but the Jacobite leader, while waving his arm to encourage his men, was struck in the part thus exposed by the opening of his cuirass, reeled, fell from his horse, and "word spake never more."—This was in 1689. There were other slight engagements, at Dunkeld and elsewhere; but the Civil War in Scotland ended in 1690 with the defeat, in Strathspey, of an officer named Buchan, who had been sent over to take command of the clans.

**Battle of Killiecrankie 1689.**

(i) "The violence of revolutions is generally proportioned to the degree of the maladministration which has produced them. It is therefore not strange that the Government of Scotland, having been during many years far more oppressive and corrupt than the Government of England, should have fallen with a far heavier ruin. The movement against the last king of the House of Stuart was in England conservative, in Scotland destructive. . . . The heads and hands of the martyred Whigs were taken down from the gates of Edinburgh, carried in procession by great multitudes to the cemeteries, and laid in the earth with solemn respect."—MACAULAY.

(ii) "The Cameronians at Dunkeld had good reason to be joyful and thankful; for they had finished the war." "The victorious army of Dundee melted away like a snow-drift."

**8. The Massacre of Glencoe.**—To keep the west in order, General

[1] The war-cry of the Scottish Celts.

Mackay built a fortress in the west of Inverness-shire, which he called Fort William, in honour of the king.—But the reduction of the Highlanders was not yet effected; and it was clear to the advisers of William that the chiefs might break out again at any time, if only they could find a right leader. A serious attempt had therefore to be made for the pacification of the Highlands. If the clans were not to be cowed, it was hoped they might at least be bought into submission. Accordingly, the sum of £15,000 was intrusted for distribution to the then Earl of Breadalbane, who is described by a personal acquaintance as "cunning as a fox, wise as a serpent, but as slippery as an eel." The clans submitted, with the exception of the small clan of Macdonald of Glencoe, a wild and melancholy pass in the north-west of Argyllshire, "the very Valley of the Shadow of Death." M'Ian, the chief of this small clan, in the pride of his heart, put off submission till the very last day—the 31st of December 1691; and on that day he presented himself to Colonel Hill, who commanded at Fort William. But Hill had no power to administer the oaths. M'Ian was recommended to go on to Inveraray, where there was a magistrate; and, now thoroughly alarmed, he made his way over mountain paths deep in snow, and reached that town only after a hard struggle of six days. It was past the day of submission; and the enemies of the Highlanders—among whom the greatest was the Secretary for Scotland, Sir John Dalrymple, Master of Stair—were very glad of it. Stair wrote an order to root out that "damnable sept," and William signed it. The officer appointed to carry out the order was to secure all avenues and outlets, "so that the old fox, nor none of his cubs, get away," and was also to take care that "the Government be not troubled with prisoners."[1] Accordingly, a party of soldiers, commanded by Captain Campbell of Glenlyon, appeared in the glen, gave themselves out for friends, were heartily welcomed, played cards and drank toddy with their victims, and lived very comfortably with them for a fortnight. On the night of the 12th of February, Captain Campbell had two of M'Ian's sons to supper with him; and in the cold dark of the winter morning of the 13th, at five o'clock, the soldiers arose, turned upon their hosts, and put them to death with sword and with musket. They killed old M'Ian as he stood at his dressing-table; they shot

**Massacre of Glencoe 1692.**

[1] That is, no one was to be spared.

down the young men as they were sitting round the fire; they butchered a child of twelve; and they put the close to their work by stabbing an old man of eighty. Thirty-eight were put to death; the rest escaped to the snow-clad mountains to perish of cold and hunger.

(i) "The Master of Stair (the Secretary for Scotland) seems to have proposed to himself a truly great and good end, the pacification and civilisation of the Highlands." "The Master of Stair was only dismissed from office by the king. The Parliament of Scotland did not accuse 'the original cause of the unhappy business' as being participant in what they voted to be a murder."

*Master* is a title borne by the eldest sons of some Scottish barons. The Master of Stair was the eldest son of Viscount Stair, President of the Court of Session.
*Sept*=clan. *Tribe* is the genus; *sept* the species.

(ii) The **Massacre of Glencoe** has been celebrated in verse by Sir Walter Scott. The following is one stanza:—

"The hand that mingled in the meal,
At midnight drew the felon steel,
And gave the host's kind breast to feel
Meed for his hospitality.
The friendly hearth that warmed that hand,
At midnight armed it with the brand,
That bade destruction's flames expand
Their red and fearful blazonry."

**9. William on the Continent.**—William was as deeply interested in breaking the power of Louis, as in settling the affairs of England and Great Britain. For the former purpose, it was his habit to spend the summer on the Continent; and, out of his thirteen years on the throne of England, eleven years were spent in war. In 1692 William was defeated at **Steinkirk**; and a discontented Parliament followed this defeat. The year after, he met another defeat, still more severe, at **Landen**, where the bloodiest and most stubborn battle of the war was fought. Still William never lost heart: his Dutch obstinacy was proof against every disaster. And he was not always seconded by the English Parliament or the English nation. At length, in the year 1695, he captured the strong fortress of **Namur**, in spite of a powerful French force within, and the presence of a very large French army without. This was the turning-point in his fortunes abroad. William, on his return to England, made a progress through the country; and a Parliament was returned with a large majority in favour of the war and of the Whig policy. Parliament was eager to assist King William in his

**Fall of Namur 1695.**

struggle against Louis; but there was little money in the country. At length, however, the war was brought to a fortunate conclusion by the **Treaty of Ryswick**, in the year 1697. The country was overjoyed; and the king made a triumphal entry into London.

The Treaty of Ryswick 1697.

(i) **Steinkirk** (also written, *Steen Kerke*) is a small village north-east of Mons.

(ii) **Landen** lies between Tirlemont and Liége, just where the high hilly country of Belgium (as it is now called) dips down into the plain. It was an important military position, and this can be seen from the fact that five railways now converge upon it. (The Battle of Landen is called **Neerwinden** by the French.)

(iii) **Namur** is a fortified town of great artificial and natural strength—the latter from its position at the confluence of the Meuse and the Sambre.

(iv) **Ryswick** is a small town, in what is now called Holland, to the south of the Hague. One of the terms of the Treaty was that the Pretender should be expelled from France.

**10. The Darien Scheme.**—William Paterson, a clever, sanguine, and enterprising Scotchman, whose best title to fame is that he founded the Bank of England, started another scheme, which was to make all Scotland wealthy and happy for ever after. He had studied with great care the map of the world; and it struck him that the Isthmus of Darien (or Panamá) was the true commercial centre of the globe, and that a commercial colony established there would command the trade of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and draw supplies for the good of Scotland from the great continents of Asia, Africa, and the two Americas. A company to carry out this magnificent scheme was established. In six months the sum of four hundred thousand pounds was subscribed; every Scotchman who had £5 to spare rushed to invest it in the grand Darien scheme, and half the capital of what was then a very poor little country was sunk in it. People who had bought shares went to bed and dreamed all night of gold and ruby and copper mines, and a trade "advancing by leaps and bounds." "Many," says Sir Walter Scott, "subscribed their all; maidens threw in their portions, and widows whatever sums they could raise upon their dower, to be repaid a hundredfold by the golden shower which was to descend upon the subscribers." On the 26th of July 1698, three vessels sailed from Scotland with twelve hundred Scotchmen on board; and "the whole city of Edinburgh poured down upon Leith to see the colony depart, amidst the tears and prayers and praises

The Darien Scheme 1698.

of relations and friends." They were going to make their own fortunes and the fortunes of everybody else; Edinburgh would rival London, and Scotland would take its rightful place at the head of the commerce of the world. The Scottish Parliament had granted them a charter, which gave them a monopoly of trade with Asia, Africa, and the two Americas for thirty-one years, with leave to import all goods duty free, except sugar and tobacco. The expedition reached Darien in safety, and built a town and a fort, which they called New Edinburgh and New St. Andrews, after the new and the old capital of Scotland.

**11. Failure of the Darien Scheme.**—But England was against them, and Holland was against them; the great East India Company looked upon them as poachers, and Spain regarded them as no better than pirates or filibusters. They had an insufficient supply of provisions, and the governor of the English colonies in North America refused to let them have any more; the climate was pestilential, and hunger and fever soon thinned their ranks, and left the survivors lean and pale and worn out. They deserted their colony, and sailed for New York. But, before the news could reach Scotland, another body of thirteen hundred emigrants had set sail, only to find the settlement a silent desert, and to be themselves driven out by Spanish men-of-war.—The Scottish people were deeply mortified and terribly enraged by the failure of the great scheme in which they had embarked their hopes, their hearts, and their money; and they declared, that "those who perished for want of provisions were as much murdered by King William's Government as if they had been shot in the snows of Glencoe." William pointed out that the charter had been granted without his knowledge when he was absent in Holland, and that it would be better for both countries if they were united and possessed one parliament.

Failure of the Darien Scheme 1699.

**12. William at Home.**—William had a very difficult task in the government of the three kingdoms; and, had it not been for the generous aid which he received from his wife, it would have been an impossible one. He had, practically, received his crown from the hands of the Whigs; but he wished to be king of the whole nation, and not of a party. Again, his long struggle with Louis of France obliged him

to be his own minister of foreign affairs; while his view of the duties and the responsibilities of a king were lofty and serious, and his strong feelings regarding his position rather inclined him to the side of the Tories. He early learned, moreover, that he could not trust the prominent men in the country. Men like Marlborough and Russell were known by William to be in correspondence with James, so that they might not lose any chance should a change in the succession take place. It was for this that, in 1692, Marlborough was dismissed from all the offices he held. At first it was thought it would be a good thing to have a strong government composed of able members of both parties; but this plan was found not to work. In 1695 the Duke of Leeds (formerly Marquis of Caermarthen and Lord Danby) left the government, which from that time became purely Whig in character and composition. After the death of Mary in 1694, William received an accession of political strength in the friendship of the Duke of Marlborough. This astute person saw that her sister Anne was now certain to succeed; Anne was completely under the power of Marlborough's wife; and thus he saw his way clear before him to the highest offices in the Army and in the State. Nay, more, he saw his way to becoming the practical ruler of England, the head of the coalition against Louis, and the arbiter of the fortunes of Europe. In the year 1698, the Parliament elected was strongly Tory in character; it reduced the standing army to ten thousand men, and sent William's Dutch Guards back to their own country; and, in 1700, William was obliged to form a Tory Government, the most distinguished members of which were Lord Rochester and Lord Godolphin. In this year, also, the little **Duke of Gloucester**, Anne's son, and heir to the throne, died; and it became necessary to provide for the **Protestant Succession**. Parliament, with the sanction of William, had no difficulty, in 1701, in passing the **Act of Settlement**, by which the crown was conferred on the Electress **Sophia**, wife of the Elector of Hanover, and grand-daughter of James I. When, in this year of 1701, James II. died at St. Germains, Louis XIV. at once recognised his son as rightful King of England, Scotland, and Ireland. This set the nation in a flame; and Tory vied with Whig in showing their attachment to William and the Protestant cause. But the Whigs were, of course, in the majority: William saw his opportunity, dissolved Parliament; got a new Parliament together

composed chiefly of Whigs, dismissed his Tory Cabinet, and declared war against Louis. England was arming; Europe was arming; when the accident to William put an end at once to his life and to his hopes of curbing the power of France.

(i) The first *united* ministry in the history of the English Parliament was formed in 1696. It was Whig.

(ii) The Tories in the Parliament of 1699 did not at all share William's dread of the power of France. The country gentlemen had, moreover, been heavily taxed; and the officers in the English army were extremely jealous of the Dutch and of the favour shown to them by William.

(iii) This son was called by his French friends *Le Prétendant*—that is, the Claimant; but the Whigs of the day very cleverly translated it by the term *Pretender*, and so it remained. England was indignant at the interference of a foreign king with the succession to the throne.

(iv) By the **Act of Settlement** Parliament resumed its ancient English rights of electing the king. Like the Witenagemote, of which it was the legitimate successor, it passed over those heirs that were nearest in blood—because they were not Protestants, and conferred the crown on persons of much more distant relationship.

**13. Death of William.**—A Parliament was called, which voted William £600,000, and advised him to make no peace with France until this personal affront—this impudent violation of the Peace of Ryswick—was fully atoned for. William was himself in the last stage of bodily feebleness; but no one could discern "one single mark of languor or decline." He hunted once a week, though he was so weak that he had to be lifted on to his horse. One day he was hunting at Hampton Court—it was the 21st of February 1702—when his horse stumbled at a mole-hill and threw him. He broke his collar-bone; a fever supervened, and he never rose from his bed. He died on the 8th of March. From that day the usual toast of the Jacobites was "to the little gentleman in black velvet" who had brought about the death of William III.

**14. The Work of Parliament.**—The **Convention**, which had been called together in the beginning of 1689, resolved itself into a **Parliament**, without any appeal to the Country. It imposed a new oath of Allegiance and Supremacy on all persons who held office either in church or state: and those among the clergy whose consciences would not permit them to swear allegiance to a Parliament-made king, left the Church and became generally known as **Non-jurors**.

This Convention-Parliament also passed the **Mutiny Act** and the **Toleration Act.** But its greatest achievement was the transformation of the Declaration of Right into the **Bill of Rights.** William's **Second Parliament** met in 1690, and tried, but without success, to pass the Abjuration Bill. In 1693 the **National Debt** was originated by Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer; and this debt went on growing until, by the end of William's reign, it had reached the amount of £12,000,000.—In 1694 Parliament was able to pass the **Triennial Act,** though it had to overcome the disinclination of William himself, who always feared these changes of the House of Commons. —In 1697 Parliament reduced the standing army of the country to 10,000 men.—The Parliament of 1701 felt it necessary, in consequence of the death in the previous year of the little **Duke of Gloucester**—the son and heir of the Princess Anne—to pass an **Act of Settlement,** or "Succession Act," by which the Crown, after Anne's death, was to pass to the Electress Sophia and her children, if they were Protestants. —The last Parliament of William met in the end of 1701; but it had not much time to do any work. It passed a **Bill of Attainder** against the Old Pretender; and it imposed an oath to uphold the Act of Settlement, or the "Protestant Succession," on all persons holding office either in church or state.

(i) The **Mutiny Act** is passed every year. If it were not renewed, the Army would be *ipso facto* dissolved. The "supply" for the Army is also voted from year to year; so that, though there is a standing Army, its continued existence depends not on the Sovereign, but on the will of Parliament.

(ii) The **Toleration Act** gave complete freedom of worship to Nonconformists; but it did not allow them to hold office of any kind.

(iii) The Abjuration Bill, which did not pass, called upon all office-holders to abjure allegiance to James. But William's health was delicate; Louis XIV. was very powerful; James II. was always on the watch; and no one knew what might happen. If James II. came back, a person who had abjured his allegiance would probably find it go hard with him.

(iv) The **National Debt** owes its origin to William's precarious tenure of the Crown. Had he been firmly seated, he could, like other kings of England, have borrowed money on his own security. This was impossible. Hence Montague borrowed the money on the security of the **Government**; and the money was lent by members of the nation *to* the Nation as a whole, as an organic body. The National Debt, at the Peace of Paris in 1815, was £861.000,000. It is now about £760,000,000.

(v) **The Triennial Act** had two sides: (a) No Parliament was to last more than three years. (b) The country not to be without a Parliament for more than three years.

(vi) The reduction of the army to 10,000 men was due to the Peace of Ryswick, which removed all danger of an invasion of England by Louis XIV.

(vii) The **Act of Settlement** contained the following important clauses: (a) the crown to go to the Electress Sophia and her heirs; (b) the Sovereign to be a Protestant and not to leave the kingdom; (c) no intervention by war in favour of the foreign possessions of the Sovereign; (d) foreigners not to receive grants or hold offices; (e) ministers to be responsible for the acts of the Sovereign, and not to be protected from impeachment by pardon "under the Great Seal"; (f) judges to be appointed for life.

(viii) One of the most important acts of William's Parliaments was a thing they did *not* do. They refused to renew the Act for licensing books and printed matter, which expired in 1695; and from this date all printing was absolutely free.

**15. Great Men.**—In home politics, the three most distinguished advisers of William were **George Savile**, Marquis of Halifax, **Lord Danby**, who was created Duke of Leeds; and **Lord Godolphin**. For foreign affairs William was his own minister. In war by far the greatest name is again that of King William himself. In finance, **Charles Montague** (who at the end of the reign was created Earl of Halifax) showed courage and originality; and his financial plans were supported by the great mathematician **Sir Isaac Newton**, then Master of the Mint, and by the great philosopher, **John Locke.**—In Ireland, the **Earl of Tyrconnel's** was the most prominent name; in Scotland, that of **Viscount Dundee.**—Of William's private friends and trusted advisers, the most distinguished was **Bentinck**, whom William made Earl of Portland.

**16. Social Facts.**—There are in history two, and perhaps only two, instances of an army being absorbed, after its work was done, in the ranks of peaceable and hard-working citizens, the soldiers returning once more to their occupations as farmers, labourers, shopkeepers, artisans. These two instances are those of the Cromwellian Army in 1660—the year of the Restoration, and of the Army of the United States, after the Civil War of 1861-65. Both of these were citizen armies; the combatants in them were not hired soldiers; they fought for what they believed to be a great and a just cause. But, when an army of hired soldiers is disbanded, the case is very different; the old soldiers who have made fighting the profession of their lives, cannot readily go back to the pursuits and the habits of peace, and many of them, indeed, cannot find work if

they wished to find it. Hence they become highway robbers, marauders, footpads, and swell the ranks of the classes who live by plunder, disorder, and lawlessness. This was very greatly the case after the peace of Ryswick in 1697; and the government of the time was too poor and too weak to grapple with the evil. The exchequer had been emptied by the expenditure in the war with France; and trade was not in a flourishing condition. The new coinage helped to put trade on a sounder footing; though the loss on the old and debased coins was made good by an evil tax upon houses and windows. —Two excellent societies were founded during this reign—the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (the "S.P.C.K."), and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, both of them in the year 1698—the year after the peace of Ryswick.

(i) "The peace had, all over Europe, and nowhere more than in England, turned crowds of old soldiers into marauders." Carriages were attacked even in Hyde Park, which, however, at that time lay well in the country. A band of robbers built huts for themselves in Epping Forest and waylaid travellers and passers-by.

(ii) The coinage had been so much clipped (the edges were not milled, as now, but quite raw) that shopkeepers refused to take it except by weight. The working classes received their pay in these coins, "by rate;" but they had to pay by weight for the provisions they bought; and in this way they sometimes lost a third, or even a half of their wages.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM AND MARY'S REIGN.

**1689.** (a) **Accession of William and Mary.**
(b) **The Mutiny Act.**
(c) War with France
The Grand Alliance—England, Holland, Spain, the German Empire, Austria.
(d) **Toleration Act.**
(e) **BILL OF RIGHTS.**

**1690.** (a) Battle of Beachy Head.
(b) **Battle of the Boyne.**
(c) Flight of James.

**1692.** (a) Dismissal of Marlborough
(b) **Massacre of Glencoe.**
(c) **Battle of Cape La Hogue.**
(d) Battle of Steinkirk.

**1693.** **The National Debt begins.**
Battle of Landen.

**1694.** (a) **Bank of England founded.**
(b) **The Triennial Act.**
(c) **Death of Mary.**

**1695.** Taking of Namur.

**1696.** **Coinage restored.**

**1697.** **Peace of Ryswick.**

**1698.** **First Partition Treaty.**

**1699.** **The Darien Scheme.**

**1700.** (a) **Second Partition Treaty.**
(b) Death of the Duke of Gloucester.

**1701.** (a) **THE ACT OF SETTLEMENT.**
(b) Death of James II.
(c) Louis XIV. recognises the "Old Pretender" as James the Third.

**1702.** **Death of William.**

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1690.** Calcutta founded.

**1697.** (a) Visit of Peter the Great to England. Lives in Orme Square, Bayswater. Learns ship-carpentering at Deptford.
(b) Charles XII., king of Sweden.

**1701.** Frederick I., king of Prussia.

# CHAPTER VII.

# ANNE

## (THE LAST OF THE STUARTS).

**Born 1665. Succeeded (at the age of 37) in 1702. Died 1714. Reigned 12 Years.**

ANNE STUART was the daughter of James, Duke of York, afterwards James II. Her mother was Anne Hyde, daughter of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, the author of the "History of the Rebellion," and Lord High Chancellor to Charles II. Her elder sister was MARY, wife of William of Orange, who had been Queen before her; and her half-brother was JAMES FRANCIS EDWARD, the Old Pretender, who was the youngest child of James II. Her right to the throne came from the Act of Settlement of 1701. Anne outlived all her seventeen children.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

LOUIS XIV. of France. PHILIP V. of Spain (Duke of Anjou), Archduke CHARLES of Austria, } Rivals for the Spanish throne.

**1. Anne, 1702-1714.**—Anne, the second daughter of James II., and the last of the Stuart family, now came to the throne. She was a quiet, good-natured, inoffensive woman. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, was a nobody—of whom Charles II. said, that he had tried him, drunk and sober, and had "found nothing in him." From the time Anne was a girl, she had been ruled by her favourite, Sarah Jennings, afterwards the handsome but domineering wife of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. These ladies were so fond of each other that they dropped the usual style of address, and the Queen wrote to her "Dear Sarah" under the signature of Anne Morley, while Sarah Churchill took the name of Mrs. Freeman. Within a few days of Anne's accession to the throne, Marlborough was created Captain-General of Her Majesty's Forces.

The handsomest and best-bred man of his time, serene in temper, of the coolest and most undaunted courage, his character was nevertheless stained by avarice and by treachery. While in command of the English army, he would give information to the enemy for a sum of money; he deserted James II. for William at the Revolution, and then intrigued with James again; he would sell his dearest friend for gold; and he loved no man but himself, and respected no cause but his own interest. His wife, his position, and his pocket were the only three things he cared for. He hated writing, and he never could spell.—Anne chose her ministers chiefly from the Tory party, which she liked to call the "Church Party," and the chief among them were Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough, the latter, however, a Whig.

(i) The first administration of Queen Anne was a combined ministry of Whigs and Tories. **Godolphin** was Lord Treasurer; **Nottingham** Secretary of State; and **Marlborough** Commander-in-Chief.

(ii) Marlborough was the real ruler, and was practically not only Commander-in-Chief, but also Minister for Foreign Affairs.

2. **The Two Periods of Anne's Reign.**—The reign of this queen falls easily and naturally into two periods. The first was the period when the Duke of Marlborough was paramount in the Houses of Parliament, and his wife, the Duchess, in the royal closet. During this period Marlborough was the chief man in the kingdom, and his wife the chief woman at the Court. The second period began when Anne discarded the Duchess of Marlborough, and chose Mrs. Masham to be her favourite: Mrs. Masham being guided by Harley and St. John, the chiefs of the Tory party. Mrs. Masham was a cousin of Lady Churchill; but she was also a cousin of Harley. During the first period, Lady Churchill ruled, assisted by the queen; during the second, the affairs of the country were managed by Mrs. Masham and Queen Anne and their friends. The queen's husband, Prince George of Denmark, cared for nothing but good eating and hunting. Most of the discussions and intrigues of the reign circled round the question of succession, the question whether the "Old Pretender" might not be allowed to come back to his own.

(i) "Anne had not a store of amity for more than one person at a time."—SWIFT.

(ii) The "Old Pretender" was the son of James II.; the "Young Pretender" was the grandson.

**3. War of the Spanish Succession.**—This war was fought to determine who should succeed Charles II. on the Spanish throne. But it had in reality much wider issues. England did not need to care whether the king of Spain were an Austrian or a Frenchman. But she did care that France should not become so powerful both by land and sea as to be able to force England to take the Stuarts back; she did care that France should not hold Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan, the Spanish Netherlands, and the Indies, and thus become supreme on the Ocean as she was upon the Continent. And on these grounds, the Whig party followed up with ardour the continental policy of William III., and set itself steadily to break up the power of Louis XIV. And thus in time the struggles and expenditure of England gained for her a place in the front rank of European Powers, a place which she holds now, and which she never at any time lost. The Duke of Anjou, the son of the Dauphin of France, was now king of Spain under the title of Philip V.; and we tried to drive him off the throne, and to place in his stead the Archduke Charles of Austria. William had, before his death, concluded a treaty with Holland and the Emperor of Germany, which was known as the **Grand Alliance**, to support the claim of the Archduke Charles of Austria to the Spanish crown, and to defeat the purposes of Louis.

**4. Marlborough's Campaigns.**—War was formally declared in May 1702, and Marlborough entered upon that series of splendid victories which ranks him with the great captains of the world—with Caesar and Napoleon, with Wellington and Von Moltke. The fighting took place chiefly in the Spanish Netherlands, the part now called Belgium, long "the cockpit of Europe"; but the first great battle was fought in Bavaria, as the French had made up their minds to attack Vienna. Marlborough marched in 1704 from Flanders up the Rhine right into the heart of Bavaria, and was there joined by Prince Eugene of Savoy, the commander of the Imperial army. At **Blenheim**, on the Danube, he inflicted a terrible blow on the French and Bavarians, and took their leader, Marshal Tallard, prisoner. This victory saved Austria; it broke the spell of Louis's continued success; and Marlborough, who always took care to be well rewarded for his work, received a gift of the royal manor of Woodstock, upon which he afterwards built the

Blenheim 1704.

Palace of Blenheim. This year also saw the capture by Admiral Rooke of Gibraltar, an almost impregnable fortress, which has ever since remained in the hands of Great Britain. Marlborough's next great battle was fought in 1706; when, at **Ramillies**, a village about thirty miles from Brussels, he defeated the French under Marshal Villeroi. In 1708, **Oudenarde**, a place not far from Ghent, saw him for the third time brilliantly victorious over the French, who lost 15,000 men and more than one hundred banners. His last great victory was at **Malplaquet**, also in that part of the Netherlands now called Belgium, near Mons; but the French, though defeated, only lost 12,000 men, while the victors lost the enormous number of 24,000. This was in 1709. The war, which lasted for eleven years, lingered on till 1713, when it was brought to a close by the **Peace of Utrecht**.

**Ramillies** 1706. **Oudenarde** 1708. **Malplaquet** 1709. **Treaty of Utrecht** 1713.

(i) The result of the **Battle of Blenheim** was to save Vienna, and to prevent the restoration of the line of James II. "Throughout the rest of the war Louis fought only for self-defence. Blenheim had dissipated for ever his once proud visions of almost universal conquest."—CREASY.

(ii) **Gibraltar** has been in the hands of England since 1704. It commands the water-highway to India and the East.

(iii) The result of the **Battle of Ramillies** was to force the French to evacuate Brussels, Antwerp, and Ghent. "As Marlborough by the Battle of Blenheim rescued Germany, so it may be said of him that by the Battle of Ramillies he conquered Flanders."—STANHOPE.

(iv) **Oudenarde** gave Lille into the hands of the Allies.

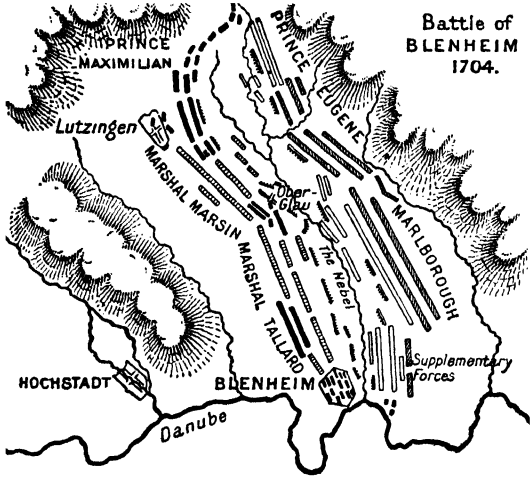
(v) The victory at **Malplaquet** gave the Allies Tournay and Mons, and opened the road to France.

(vi) All this time the English Fleet was busy. It captured Gibraltar and Minorca, secured to us the possession of Newfoundland, and took the French colony of **Acadie** (now Nova Scotia).

(vii) The total result of the campaigns was to drive the French out of the Netherlands, to destroy the prestige of Louis, and to drain the resources of France to the last louis d'or.

**5. Blenheim.**—The Battle of Blenheim was fought to prevent the siege of Vienna, which was threatened by the French and Bavarian army from the west, and by the Hungarians from the east. Marlborough, after a series of forced marches and skilful manœuvres, succeeded in throwing himself between the Franco-Bavarian army and

the Austrian capital. The French took up a strong position on hills and rising ground in the neighbourhood of the village of Blenheim, on the Danube. In front of the French position ran the Nebel, a brook which flows through a series of marshes. The French leader, Marshal Tallard, mistakenly considered Blenheim the key of the position, fortified it with palisades, and garrisoned it with a large body of infantry. Marlborough tried to take the village, but was beaten back. He then attacked the centre of the French line by bringing his troops across the marshes, and gaining for them a position on the rising ground beyond. After several attacks, he succeeded in piercing the French centre. A feigned attack which was steadily maintained against Blenheim kept a large number of the French troops busy, prevented their going to the relief of the centre, and thus neutralised their efforts in the battle. The Franco-Bavarian army fled in two bodies. Blenheim still held out; but now, surrounded by the English army, and played on by their artillery, the garrison was compelled to capitulate, and 11,000 men were made prisoners. The victory was a complete one; as, out of 60,000 men, the French and Bavarian generals could, after the battle, muster only 20,000 available troops. Marshal Tallard was himself a prisoner.




**Blenheim 1704.**

(i) FORCES: (a) French and Bavarian Army under **Marshal Tallard** and the **Elector of Bavaria**: 60,000 men; 61 guns.

(b) Allies under **Marlborough** and **Prince Eugene**: 56,000 men; 51 guns.

(ii) POSITION: Both armies at right angles to the Danube on opposite sides of the Nebel, (a) The **French**, on rising ground, protected by the stream and marshes in front. Their line defined by three villages:

Blenheim on the extreme right; Oberglau in the centre; Lutzingen on the left. All three villages strongly garrisoned by infantry. Connecting lines consist only of cavalry.

(b) The **Allies**, commanded by Marlborough on the left, and Prince Eugene on the right.

(iii) MOVEMENTS: (a) **First Movement.** Allied attack on Blenheim, led by Cutts "the Salamander." Repulsed.

(b) **Second Movement.** General advance of the Allies across the Nebel and the swamps. Attack on Oberglau. Repulsed. Allied army almost cut in two

(c) **Third Movement.** Grand attack on French centre, which is only a long thin line of cavalry connecting the fortified villages. French defeated.

(d) **Fourth Movement.** The left wing, commanded by the Bavarian Elector, outflanked by Marlborough, marching from the French centre. Driven from the field.

(e) **Fifth Movement.** Blenheim surrounded and bombarded. The troops holding it surrender.

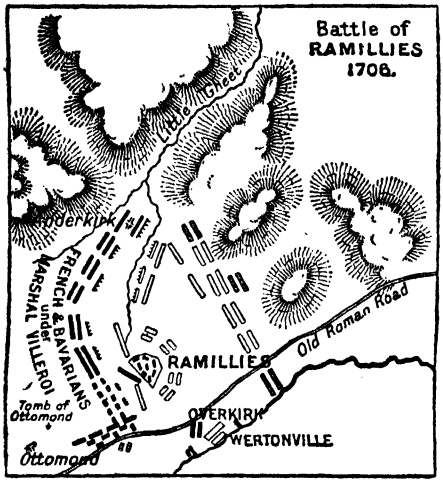
(iv) RESULTS: (a) Total defeat of the French. Their losses are 14,000 killed and wounded; 13,000 prisoners—among them Tallard.

(b) Allied losses: 12,000 men.

**6. Ramillies.**—The Battle of Ramillies was fought to prevent the fall of Namur. Marlborough's advance seemed to threaten this fortress; and Marshal Villeroi, in command of the French army, had received instructions to fight a battle for the purpose of saving the town. The French held a range of hills which ran in the form of a semi-circle round the sources of the Little Gheet. Their extreme right touched an old road called the "Road of Queen Brunehaud," and was covered by a lofty barrow known as the "Tomb of Ottomond." Their left lay on a village called Ander-Kirk. This part of the French position was protected by the river Little Gheet, and the marshes through which it flowed. Marlborough was so fortunate as to hold the inside of the circle—"a chord across the arc formed by the French lines,"—so that his troops had always a shorter line to march on than the enemy had. The Tomb of Ottomond was the key of the position. This taken, the whole of the enemy's line could be raked with shot. Marlborough made a feigned attack on Ander-Kirk; Villeroi and his generals galloped to that part of the field; he now flung his

**Ramillies 1706.**

troops on Ramillies and the Tomb of Ottomond; and seized the high ground held by the French. The enemy retreated; the retreat became a rout; and the French were driven out of the Netherlands.




(i) FORCES: (a) **French**: 62,000 men; 130 guns.

(b) **Allies**: 60,000 men; 120 guns.

(ii) POSITION: (a) **French** drawn up on inner curve of a semi-circular slope; the village of **Ramillies** and the **Tomb of Ottomond** on their right; the village of **Anderkirk** on their left.

(b) **Allies** on a chord across the arc formed by the French line.

(iii) MOVEMENTS: (a) **First Movement.** A feigned attack on the extreme left of the French.

(b) **Second Movement.** An attack by Marlborough's strongest troops on the extreme right. The British are driven back.

(c) **Third Movement.** Reinforcements are brought up; and the British cavalry charge and sweep away the French right. Tomb of Ottomond occupied.

(d) **Fourth Movement.** The village of Ramillies is stormed; and the French centre is driven back.

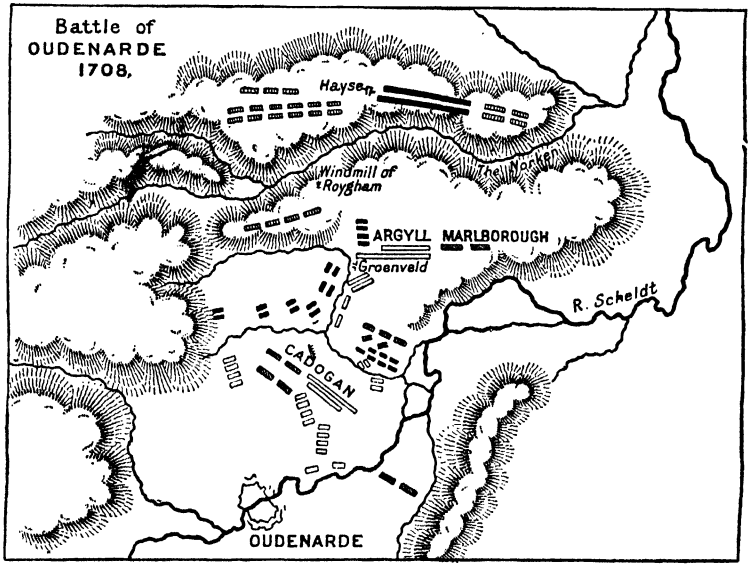
(e) **Fifth Movement.** Marlborough's troops advance from their new ground. French have no time to rally their right and centre. The French flee in rout all along the line.

(f) **Sixth Movement.** The British horse pursue the fugitives for twenty-five miles.

(iv) RESULTS: **French**: Killed and wounded 7000; prisoners 6000.
**Allies**: Killed and wounded 3600.—All the Netherlands given up. Only Mons and Namur remain in the hands of the French.

**7. Oudenarde.**—Marshal Vendôme, the new commander-in-chief of the French army, had taken the cities of Bruges and Ghent, and had made up his mind to capture also the town of Oudenarde, a

fortress which lies higher up the Scheldt than Ghent, in order to secure his new acquisitions. Marlborough determined to fight a battle for the preservation of this stronghold. The French took up a position on a stretch of rising ground parallel with the Norken—a stream which flows into the Scheldt. Marlborough performed a circuit round the French army, slipped between it and France, and thus cut off its communications. Marshal Vendôme was in command; but the nominal commander-in-chief was the Duke of Burgundy, the heir to the French throne. The Duke of Burgundy ordered forward seven battalions; these were fallen on by General Cadogan and cut to pieces. Vendôme was anxious to remain behind the Norken, and to act on the defensive, knowing that the allies were wearied with their long marches. But the Duke insisted on




sending forward his troops across the Norken into the narrow valleys, the fields in which were surrounded by hedges, ditches, and walls. Here a set of fierce hand-to-hand combats followed, and generally in favour of the English. Marlborough, who commanded the left, now saw that the French right was completely unguarded, fell upon it, doubled it up, and almost totally annihilated it. Night came on: part of the French army broke through a gap in the hills; and the rest fell back upon Ghent.

Oudenarde 1708.

(i) FORCES: **French**, 85,000 men; **Allies**, 80,000.

(ii) POSITION: (a) The **French** on rising ground to the west of the Norken. The **Allies** in front of Oudenarde, and west of the Scheldt, facing the French, but with cross-valleys between.

(b) Marlborough with the left; Prince Eugene and Cadogan with the right.

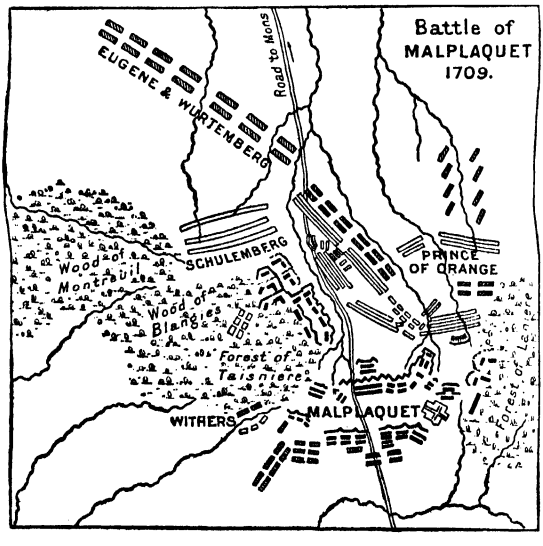
(iii) MOVEMENTS: (a) **First Movement.** The Duke of Burgundy sends troops forward as far as Eyne—a village near Oudenarde. Cadogan falls upon and routs them.

(b) **Second Movement.** Burgundy orders forward the French right wing into the winding and narrow valleys. Hand-to-hand battles. The English cavalry on the heights to the right hold the French left in check.

(c) **Third Movement.** Marlborough orders Overkirk to sweep round the French right—which is far advanced beyond their centre—and to envelop it. Annihilation of French right wing.

(iv) RESULTS: Road open for the Allies to Paris.

**8. Malplaquet.**—Marlborough and Eugene had attacked Mons. Marshal Villars, the only French marshal as yet undefeated, tried to prevent the siege; but he was too late. He made haste, however, to raise the siege, if he possibly could. To the south of Mons lie masses of elevated ground, ranges of hills, broken country, covered with woods and forests. The only way to Mons from the south and west was by the **Trouée** (="Open Gap") between the forests of Taisnière on the west, and Lanière on the east. On one side of this gap stands



the village of Malplaquet, which Villars marched up to and seized. Here he fortified his position—which was protected by thick woods on both wings—in the strongest possible manner, by throwing up earthworks on the hills and along the sides of the woods. Marlborough, who had marched from Mons, wanted to attack at once; but Eugene thought it better to wait the coming of more troops. Thus another day was given to the French to strengthen their earthworks. The attack began on the right of the allies, and was led by General Withers. The pressure on the French left was so strong that Villars was obliged to send troops to the aid of the French in the Taisnière Forest; and thus he weakened his centre. Marlborough saw the blunder; hurled masses of troops on the entrenchments in the French centre; broke through them and seized the position. Marshal Villars was severely wounded; but Marshal Boufflers, a singularly able general, at once took command, ordered a retreat, and brought off his army in complete order. The only result to the English was that they held the field of battle. Malplaquet was the bloodiest and the hardest-fought fight in the whole war.

**Malplaquet 1709.**

(i) FORCES: **French** and **Bavarians**, 95,000 men; **Allies**, 93,000.

(ii) POSITION: (a) **French** on high ground between two dense woods, with Malplaquet on their right.

(b) The **Allies** at the foot of the different ranges of hills, and north of the Trouée.

(iii) MOVEMENTS: (a) **First Movement.** Attack by Prince Eugene's corps on the wood of Taisnière on the French left. Repulsed.

(b) **Second Movement.** General Withers attacks the French left Villars sends up troops to its assistance.

(c) **Third Movement.** Prince of Orange attacks French right; is driven back with great loss.

(d) **Fourth Movement.** Marlborough, seeing French centre weakened, orders Lord Orkney to attack it. Orkney breaks the centre, and establishes a battery of artillery there.

(e) **Fifth Movement.** Final attack on right and left wings; defeat of the French at both.

(iv) RESULTS: (a) The Allies took 20,000 prisoners; the French, 14,000.

(b) The Allies held the field.

**9. The Union, 1707** (i).—William III., with his usual clear-sightedness, had long foreseen the necessity of uniting the two

countries of England and Scotland, as well as the two crowns. The Scottish Parliament, grieved and sore under the disaster of Darien, had in 1704 passed an **Act of Security**, which decreed that, after the Queen's death, the successor to the throne of Scotland should *not* be the English king, unless Scotland were allowed to enjoy all the commercial privileges which had hitherto belonged to England. The Whig party had promoted the idea of the Union with great eagerness ever since the Revolution of 1688. After much discussion, commissioners were appointed,—thirty for each country,—and by them a Treaty of Union was drawn up, which, by the aid of promises of money, places, and peerages, passed the Scottish Parliament sitting in Edinburgh. The chief clauses of this important agreement were:—

(i) That the two kingdoms should form one—under the title of **Great Britain**; and should have one Parliament.

(ii) That the Electress Sophia of Hanover and her heirs should succeed to the crown of the United Kingdom, but on condition of their being Protestants.

(iii) That all British colonies and British ports should be open to Scotch vessels and to Scotch traders.

(iv) That Scotland should be represented in the House of Lords by sixteen Peers, who were to be elected for each Parliament, and by forty-five members in the House of Commons.

(v) That the Presbyterian Church of Scotland should be maintained, and that the Scottish Courts of Law should remain unchanged.

(vi) In reply to the Scottish **Act of Security**, the English Parliament had passed an Act to exclude Scottish sheep, cattle, coals, and linen from England.

**10. The Union, 1707** (ii).—There was now therefore only one Parliament for the two countries; the term *British* applied to the English, the Scotch, and the Welsh, and a national flag was adopted for the United Kingdom. Scotland gained enormously by the Union. Small villages rose rapidly into great towns; and Glasgow, which was then a small quiet country town on the green banks of the clear-flowing Clyde, began to flourish and to grow, until now it is the second city in the kingdom, with a population of three-quarters of a million, and wealth beyond even the dreams of the Scotchman of 1707.

(i) The chief grievance of the Scots was that they were not allowed to trade with the English colonies. They were also uneasy, if they joined England, about their Church, their Law, and possible taxes. On all these points the English Commissioners gave way.

(ii) "The gentry of Scotland looked on themselves as robbed of their natural consequence, and disgraced in the eyes of the country. . . . Three rebellions (1708, 1715, 1745), two of which assumed a very alarming character, may, in a great measure, be set down to the unpopularity of this great national act; and the words, 'Prosperity to Scotland, and no Union,' is the favourite inscription to be found on Scottish sword-blades, between 1707 and 1746."—SIR W. SCOTT.

Louis, to create a diversion, sent a fleet to the Forth in 1708. The Pretender was to have gone with it, but he had taken measles. Admiral Byng drove the fleet back to Dunkirk.

**11. Change of Favourite.**—The Queen was, in 1706, growing weary of a favourite who managed her and led her, or drove her and planned for her, and never allowed her to have her own way. Mrs. Morley was beginning to shudder at the very name of Mrs. Freeman. Abigail Hill, afterwards Mrs. Masham, was the new favourite; and Queen Anne sent a message to the Duchess of Marlborough to deliver up the gold key which was the symbol of her office as Lady of the Bedchamber. At first she refused point-blank; but when she saw that she must, "she took it from her side, threw it into the middle of the room, and bade the Duke take it up and carry it to whom he pleased." Mrs. Freeman had had marble chimney-pieces and brass door-locks fitted to the rooms she occupied in the Palace; and, in the intensity of her spite, she ordered the chimney-pieces to be taken out and the door-locks to be removed. She flung away the keys, so that they could not be found, and said that "old Morley might buy a new lot for ten shillings." The Whig rule was evidently coming to an end, and the Tory star was rising in the political sky.

(i) Mr. Masham was a gentleman of the Queen's household, and was made a peer. Mrs. (afterwards Lady) Masham was a strong Tory, an ardent High Churchwoman, and a devoted adherent of the exiled Stuarts.

(ii) The Queen had weak eyes and could read little. But she early learnt to play on the guitar, and to cultivate cards and gossip with her young friend Sarah Jennings. These tastes were afterwards encouraged by Mrs. Masham.

**12. Dr. Sacheverell.**—An unlooked-for event hastened the progress of the Tories. Doctor Henry Sacheverell, the rector of St. Saviour's, Southwark, had preached a sermon in St. Paul's before the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London, in which he declared the Revolution to have been a most unrighteous and unjust movement, advocated the old Tory doctrine of *non-resistance*, called for the punishment of Dissent and Dissenters, and urged all good citizens to rally round the Church, which he declared to be "in danger"—in the

most terrible danger. The Lord Mayor, who sympathised with him, begged him to print his sermon; and the Government resolved, against the advice of Marlborough, to try him for sedition. His trial lasted three weeks. The Queen herself came down to the trial, to encourage the Doctor; the common people, who were all for "High Church and Dr. Sacheverell," burnt down several Dissenting chapels to show their orthodoxy and their zeal, and London was filled with riot, confusion, and alarm. Sacheverell was found guilty, and forbidden to preach for three years; but the lightness of the punishment was regarded as a triumph for the Tories, who felt they had the people and the country with them (1710).

(i) The Queen went every day to the trial at Westminster Hall as a private spectator. But the mob quickly found out who was in the sedan-chair, and kept shouting, "God bless the Queen and Dr. Sacheverell! We hope your Majesty is for High Church and Dr. Sacheverell!"

(ii) The Doctor was prohibited from preaching for three years; and two of his sermons were ordered to be burnt at the hands of the common hangman.

13. **The Treaty of Utrecht.**—The country was weary of the long war, and weary of the taxation which the war brought with it. Before the end of the year 1710 Godolphin was out, and Harley, Earl of Oxford, the leader of the Tory party, was in. With him was joined Mr. St. John, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke; and these two men at once set to work to put an end to the war. Marlborough was accused of taking bribes from a contractor who supplied bread to the army, was dismissed from all his offices, and the war was brought to an end by the **Treaty of Utrecht** in 1713. By this treaty Great Britain was allowed to keep Gibraltar and Minorca, and received Nova Scotia and the island of St. Christopher in the West Indies; while Louis, on his part, bound himself to guarantee the succession of the House of Hanover. This treaty, though too favourable to France, filled the cup of Louis's humiliation; he had been forced to recognise William the Third; he was now obliged to recognise Queen Anne; and we shall see him compelled also to recognise George I.

(i) The chief points in the **Treaty of Utrecht** were:—

(a) Louis XIV. to expel the Old Pretender from France; and to recognise Anne and the Protestant Succession.

(b) Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, St. Christopher's (St. Kitt's), Gibraltar, and Minorca to remain in the hands of Great Britain.

(c) Philip to be allowed to keep Spain; but the French and Spanish Crowns never to be united.

(d) The **Asiento** (=contract to supply slaves to the South American Colonies) to be granted to the South Sea Company for thirty years; and the privilege of sending to South America one British ship a year for cargo.

(ii) The **War of the Spanish Succession** added £22,000,000 to the National Debt.

**14. The Rise of Party Government.**—It is in the reign of this feeble Queen that we must place the first clearly marked beginnings of Party Government in England. James II. had violent quarrels with his parliaments; William III. had serious differences with his, and often had to yield; but Anne had no disputes with the thirteen parliaments of her reign, because she was quite content to let them do as they pleased. The power of the **Crown** hence gradually passed into the hands of the party that had a **majority**; and, as the power of the Crown grew less, the power of the dominant party in Parliament grew greater. And thus it gradually came to pass that **Government by Party** became the recognised means of managing the affairs of the country; and as this power fell into the hands of those who could command most votes, the power of Government gradually passed into the hands of the voters. In Anne's time, the chief parties were the **Whigs** and the **Tories**. The Tories were attached to the Church, detested the Dissenters, and their cry was "The Church in Danger!" The Whigs wished to see Toleration fairly established, to make the laws equal for all, and their cry was "The Protestant Succession in Danger!" The Whigs, who loved the memory of William III., "the Protestant hero," were all for fighting Louis and breaking down the power of France; the Tories were, on the contrary, the Peace Party, were lukewarm in the war, opposed it, and afterwards put an end to it. The Crown could choose its own Ministers, and Anne did so; but gradually the choice of Ministers fell to the **Leader of the Majority**, to the statesman who could command the largest following in the House of Commons, and the Sovereign, though he might suggest or object, could not interfere. Party Government in Parliament got gradually organised; and a set of principles and rules were formed and established for its peaceful guidance.

**15. Death of Queen Anne.**—The Queen had never been a strong woman, and her health had been much broken by sorrow and anxiety.

She had seen all her seventeen children pass to the grave before her. Her only son, the young Duke of Gloucester, died before she came to the throne. Nor were her habits good. She was too fond of "good living"; and on the very day her husband died "she ate three very large and hearty meals." The business of the State troubled and excited her. She would have liked very much that her brother, the Old Pretender, should be her successor, in spite of his religion and the Act of Settlement. Bolingbroke favoured this feeling, and was indeed carrying on a secret correspondence with the Chevalier St. George, as the Old Pretender was called abroad; but Oxford did not like this, and the two quarrelled. On the afternoon of the 27th of July 1714, there was a long and violent dispute between the two, which lasted—to the great agitation of Anne—far into the night, and which ended in the dismissal of Oxford from the office of Lord High Treasurer. Within two days the Queen was struck by apoplexy, and died on the 1st of August. Bolingbroke had had no time to carry through his schemes for the House of Stuart; the hopes of the Jacobites had been defeated by the Queen's delivering the staff of the highest office—that of the Lord High Treasurer—to the Duke of Shrewsbury—the same Shrewsbury who had sent for the Prince of Orange, and bidding him "use it for the good of her people." The Duke was a Whig; he and his friends were staunch supporters of the House of Brunswick, and the good of the people meant in their opinion the **Protestant Succession.**

(i) The Queen's death was brought on, or at least accelerated, by the violent quarrels at her Council-meetings. Harley, "the dragon," spoke in the most furious manner to Lady Masham, and was replied to with spirit. Anne said she "could not outlive their violence," and had only strength at two in the morning of 28th July to ask Harley to resign. She died on August 1st.

(ii) "Neither wholly lost in the frivolities of life, nor deaf to the call of its nobler duties; condescending, without want of dignity in bearing; and open-handed to the soldiers who fought her battles, and to the poor under the shadow of her throne."—WARD.

(iii) "She was a pattern of conjugal affection and fidelity, a tender mother, a warm friend, an indulgent mistress, a munificent patron, and a mild and merciful prince."—SMOLLETT.

(iv) Queen Anne was an ardent supporter of the Church of England. She gave up the "first-fruits and the tenths" due to the Crown, to increase the salaries of the smaller and poorer livings. This fund has since been called "**Queen Anne's Bounty.**"

(*a*) Before the Reformation, the first-fruits was the income of every spiritual benefice for the first year.

(*b*) The tenths = the tenth part of the annual value of each living.

(c) Both of these formed part of the old papal dues. The first-fruits was a tax initiated by Pope John XXII. for the Crusades.

**16. Great Men.**—England produced many great men during the reign of the "Good Queen Anne." In war, there were **Marlborough** and **Peterborough**, the former one of the most intellectual and far-seeing commanders of any age, the latter a daring and eccentric man of genius, who was celebrated for the rapidity of his movements in a campaign. In statesmanship we find the names of **Harley** and **St. John** (or **Bolingbroke**), and the young and rising reputation of **Sir Robert Walpole.**

(i) "Our duke," said one of his officers, "was as calm at the mouth of a cannon as at the door of a drawing-room! As he rode along the lines of battle, or galloped up in the nick of time to a battalion reeling from before the enemy's charge or shot, the fainting men and officers got new courage as they saw the splendid calm of his face, and felt that **his** will made them irresistible." From the date of the Battle of Blenheim, "Malbrook" became a name of fear to every child in France.

(ii) **Charles Mordaunt,** Earl of Peterborough (1668-1735), served as a sailor in his youth. He took the side of William of Orange at the Revolution, and held Exeter for him with his soldiers. In 1705 he was sent to command in Spain, as a diversion against the French Army. He took Barcelona, and with 1200 troops defeated a Spanish army of 7000. He was in his time Commander of the fleet and Governor of Minorca. He died at sea. Macaulay calls him "the most extraordinary character of his age."

(iii) Among names in the second rank of statesmanship are **Godolphin** and the Dukes of **Shrewsbury** and **Argyll.** In war, we find the names of **Prince Eugene** ("our good Prince Eugene") and General (afterwards Earl) **Stanhope.**

(iv) The most famous women were **Sarah Jennings** (afterwards Lady Churchill, next Duchess of Marlborough), and **Abigail Hill** (afterwards Mrs. and next Lady Masham).

**17. Social Facts.**—The reign of Queen Anne is remarkable for the rise of the daily newspaper. The *Daily Courant* was the name of the first. These papers not only purveyed news to the public, but boldly entered upon the criticism of Government procedure; and, in order to diminish their number and circulation, a heavy tax was imposed upon them.—The mighty cathedral of **St. Paul's,** after the labour of more than a generation (thirty-seven years), was at length brought to completion, at an expenditure of more than a million, by **Sir Christopher Wren,** in 1708. Wren was also the architect of more than fifty churches in London.—This reign was the first for several centuries that had been undisturbed by rebellion and civil war in England; and one of its greatest triumphs of peace was to place most parts of the kingdom in communication with each other by a **General Post Office,** which was established for the first time in 1710.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF QUEEN ANNE'S REIGN.

**1702.** Accession of **Anne.**
(a) **War of the Spanish Succession.**
(b) Commissioners meet to treat for a Union with Scotland.

**1704.** (a) **Rooke** captures Gibraltar.
(b) **Marlborough** wins the Battle of **Blenheim.**
(c) Scottish **Act of Security.**

**1706.** Marlborough defeats the French at **Ramillies.**

**1707. UNION WITH SCOTLAND.**

**1708.** (a) Marlborough and Prince **Eugene** defeat the French at **Oudenarde,** and take **Lille.**
(b) French Fleet in the Forth.

**1709.** Marlborough and Prince Eugene defeat the French at **Malplaquet,** and take **Mons.**

**1710.** (a) Dr. **Sacheverell** is impeached by the Whigs; and the trial brings about a Tory reaction.

**1710.** (b) The Whig Ministry is dismissed. A Tory Government is formed under **Harley** and **St. John.**

**1711.** (a) The **Duchess of Marlborough,** through the influence of Mrs. Masham, is dismissed.
(b) The **Duke of Marlborough** is accused of peculation, and dismissed.
(c) The **South Sea Company** is formed.

**1713.** (a) The **Treaty of Utrecht.**
(b) Harley (now Earl of Oxford) and St. John intrigue to bring back the Old Pretender.

**1714.** (a) The **Schism Act** is passed, by which no one can keep a school unless he is a member of the Church of England.
(b) **Death** of Queen Anne.

## BATTLES AND TREATIES OF QUEEN ANNE'S REIGN.

**1704. Blenheim,** in Bavaria, 23 miles N.W. of Augsburg. Marlborough defeats the French under Tallard.

**1706. Ramillies,** in Flanders, in which Marlborough again defeated Villeroi.

**1707. Union with Scotland.**

**1708. Oudenarde,** west of Brussels, in which Marlborough defeats Marshal Vendôme.

**1709. Malplaquet,** in French Flanders, in which Marlborough defeats Marshal Villars.

**1713. Treaty of Utrecht,** "the shameful peace," which recognises Philip V., Duke of Anjou, as King of Spain.

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1703.** St. Petersburg founded.

**1709. Charles XII.** of Sweden defeated by the Russians at the Battle of **Pultowa.**

**1714.** Death of the Electress **Sophia,** mother of George I., and granddaughter of James I. of England.

# PLAN OF DATES

# SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

# ENGLAND IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

**1. Political.**—The mediæval baron—the feudal lord had disappeared in the course of the sixteenth century; and in his place stood the modern nobleman. The rise of commerce and manufactures had also given us the wealthy merchant, and had greatly added to the power of cities and towns—of burghers and town-councillors. The "divine right of kings" gradually disappeared during the century; and the Puritanic method of government had also been tried and found wanting. The power of Parliament grew greater and greater from reign to reign: during the Rebellion, it cut off the head of a king; at the Restoration, it recalled a king from exile; at the Revolution, it dismissed one king and elected another.

**2. The Country.**—About one-half of the country was in a state of nature. Where we now see rich corn-land and green pastures, there stretched wide moors, dense forests, and dreary fens. Deer roamed in thousands; wild boars were plentiful; wild bulls wandered in the southern forests; and the smaller wild beasts, such as badgers and wild cats, were very numerous. Fen eagles preyed on fish along the eastern coasts; huge bustards roamed along the eastern downs; and clouds of cranes could be seen hovering over the marshes of Cambridgeshire and the fens of Lincolnshire. Of scientific agriculture there was none; and even the proper rotation of crops was neither observed nor understood. The turnip had not yet been introduced; and as it was impossible in many parts to keep stock alive during the winter, the sheep and oxen were killed and salted down in large numbers at the approach of cold weather. Even wealthy people tasted no fresh meat during the winter months. The mineral resources of England—tin and copper—were hardly worked at all—except in Cornwall; and most of the iron required by the country was brought from the Continent.

(i) In the seventeenth century, about 50 per cent. of the land in England was under cultivation; in the latter half of the nineteenth, the productive area was 80 per cent. of the whole.

(ii) "The last wild boars, which had been preserved for the royal diversion, had been slaughtered by the exasperated rustics during the licence of the Civil War."

(iii) Sheep and oxen were very much smaller and leaner than they are now. The average weight of a sheep was 28 lbs.—it is now 100 lbs.; of an ox 370 lbs.—it is now about 1000 lbs.

(iv) In the seventeenth century, about 10,000 tons of pig-iron were cast; in the nineteenth, nearly 5,000,000 tons. Wood was used for smelting iron; the forests were rapidly disappearing; and Parliament had to interfere and prohibit the employment of timber.

# THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

| 1600 | 1601 | 1602 | 1603 | 1604 | 1605 | 1606 | 1607 | 1608 | 1609 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| East India Company receives a Charter. | Execution of Essex. Abolition of Monopolies. First regular Poor-Law. | | Death of Elizabeth. JAMES I. | Hampton Court Conference. | The Gunpowder Plot. | Charters to Virginia and New England. | Virginia founded. Beginning of the British Colonial Empire. | Impositions. John Milton born. | |

## 1610

| 1611 | 1612 | 1613 |
|---|---|---|
| Ulster planted by English and Scottish settlers. | Death of Salisbury. Carr chief favourite. Episcopacy established in Scotland. | |
| **1614** | **1615** | **1616** |
| | | Raleigh released from the Tower. Villiers chief favourite. |
| **1617** | **1618** | **1619** |
| | Execution of Raleigh. | |

## 1620

The Mayflower at New Plymouth.

| 1621 | 1622 | 1623 |
|---|---|---|
| Impeachment of Bacon. Protest of House of Commons. James tears the Protest out of the Journals. | Pym, Selden, etc., thrown into the Tower. | |
| **1624** | **1625** | **1626** |
| Monopolies finally declared illegal. | Death of James I. CHARLES I. Charles marries Henrietta Maria of France. | Buckingham impeached. |
| **1627** | **1628** | **1629** |
| War with France. | PETITION OF RIGHT. Assassination of Buckingham. Wentworth joins the king. | No Parliament for eleven years. Sir John Eliot sent to the Tower. |

## 1630

Strafford (Wentworth) and Laud the King's advisers.

| 1631 | 1632 | 1633 |
|---|---|---|
| John Dryden born. | John Locke born. | Wentworth Lord-Deputy of Ireland. Laud Archbishop of Canterbury. |
| **1634** | **1635** | **1636** |
| Ship-money levied. | Ship-money levied on inland towns and counties. | |
| **1637** | **1638** | **1639** |
| John Hampden refuses to pay Ship-money. | Second Covenant in Scotland. | Pacification of Berwick. |

## 1640

The Scots invade England. Strafford impeached.

| 1641 | 1642 | 1643 |
|---|---|---|
| Triennial Act. Execution of Strafford. Abolition of Star-Chamber, etc. THE GRAND REMONSTRANCE. | FIRST CIVIL WAR. Battle of Edgehill. | Chalgrove Field. Battle of Newbury (1st). |
| **1644** | **1645** | **1646** |
| MARSTON MOOR. Battle of Newbury (2d). | Execution of Laud. New Model. Battle of Naseby. | |
| **1647** | **1648** | **1649** |
| The king given up by the Scots. | SECOND CIVIL WAR. Battle of Preston. | Execution of Charles I. COMMONWEALTH. Cromwell in Ireland. |

## 1650

Battle of Dunbar (September 3).

| 1651 | 1652 | 1653 |
|---|---|---|
| Battle of Worcester (Sept. 3). | "Settlement" of Ireland. First Dutch War. | "Barebone's Parliament." Instrument of Government. OLIVER CROMWELL Lord Protector. |
| **1654** | **1655** | **1656** |
| | | |
| **1657** | **1658** | **1659** |
| The Throne offered to Cromwell in the Humble Petition and Advice. | Death of Cromwell. RICHARD CROMWELL Protector. | Restoration of the Long Parliament. |

## 1660

Monck declares for a "Free Parliament." CHARLES II.

| 1661 | 1662 | 1663 |
|---|---|---|
| Corporation Act. Episcopacy restored in Scotland | Act of Uniformity. | Daniel Defoe born. |
| **1664** | **1665** | **1666** |
| Conventicle Act. | Plague of London. Five-Mile Act. | Fire of London. |
| **1667** | **1668** | **1669** |
| The Dutch in the Medway. | The Triple Alliance. | |

## 1670

Secret Treaty of Dover.

| 1671 | 1672 | 1673 |
|---|---|---|
| Feudal Tenures converted into common freeholds. | Declaration of Indulgence. | The Test Act. |
| **1674** | **1675** | **1676** |
| | St. Paul's commenced. | |
| **1677** | **1678** | **1679** |
| | Secret Treaty with France. Oates's Popish Plot. | Habeas Corpus Act. |

## 1680

| 1681 | 1682 | 1683 |
|---|---|---|
| | The Duke of Monmouth makes a progress through England. | Rye-House Plot. London deprived of its Charter. |
| **1684** | **1685** | **1686** |
| | Death of Charles II. JAMES II. Battle of Sedgemoor. | Camp at Hounslow. |
| **1687** | **1688** | **1689** |
| First Declaration of Indulgence. | Second Declaration of Indulgence. Birth of the "Old Pretender." Declaration of William of Orange. Flight of James II. | THE DECLARATION OF RIGHT. WILLIAM AND MARY. |

## 1690

Battle of the Boyne. Second Flight of James.

| 1691 | 1692 | 1693 |
|---|---|---|
| | Massacre of Glencoe. Battle of Cape La Hogue. Battle of Steinkirk. | The National Debt begins. Battle of Landen. |
| **1694** | **1695** | **1696** |
| Death of Mary. Bank of England founded. | Taking of Namur. | |
| **1697** | **1698** | **1699** |
| Peace of Ryswick. | S. P. C. K. founded. | The Darien Scheme fails. |

*By permission of D. Nutt, Esq., Q.C.*

**3. Population.**—The population of England during the seventeenth century ranged from five millions to five millions and a half. Four-fifths of the people were engaged in the tilling of the soil. The wages of a common labourer averaged fourpence a day with food, or eightpence without food. A mechanic earned a shilling a day. On the other hand, meat, beer, and bread (made of rye, barley, or oats) were only about half the price they now are. The class that required assistance from the parish was very large; and some writers have estimated the paupers of England as one in four of the whole population. The hardships of the agricultural labourer were to a large extent mitigated by the privilege of easy squatting.

(i) In some parts of England, the wages of the labourer were fixed by law.

(ii) The paupers of England amounted, in 1890, to little more than 800,000, or about one in thirty of the population.

(iii) "Of the wild land in England, much was, by law, common; and, in such tracts, squatters and trespassers were tolerated to an extent now unknown. The peasant who dwelt there could, at little or no charge, procure occasionally some palatable addition to his hard fare, and provide himself with fuel for the winter. He kept a flock of geese on what is now an orchard rich with apple blossoms. He snared wild fowl on the fen which has long since been drained and divided into corn-fields and turnip-fields. He cut turf among the furze bushes on the moor which is now a meadow bright with clover and renowned for butter and cheese."—MACAULAY.

**4. The Towns.**—In the seventeenth century, **Bristol** was, after London, the largest English seaport; and **Norwich** was the greatest manufacturing town. **Manchester** was a large village with less than six thousand inhabitants, and without a single printing-press or a solitary coach or cab. **Leeds** was not much larger than Manchester; but its trade in woollen cloths was rapidly growing. The population of **Sheffield**, in the time of Charles II., did not amount to four thousand souls; and the majority of the working-people were deformed or had distorted limbs. **Birmingham** had also a population under four thousand, but was beginning, in the middle of the century, to rise into notice as a centre of the hardware manufacture. **Liverpool** was a town of about the same size; the annual shipping amounted to about 1400 tons; and the sailors belonging to the port to nearly two hundred.

(i) The populations of these towns at the present time are:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bristol, | 338 000. | Leeds, | 448,000. |
| Norwich, | 114,000. | Sheffield, | 425,000. |
| Manchester, | 553,000. | Birmingham, | 533,000. |
| Liverpool, | 716,000. | | |

(ii) In the seventeenth century, the phrase "to go to Town" did not mean to go up to London, but to go to the local capital. Thus the country gentry had "town-houses" in York, the capital of the north; in Exeter, the capital of the west; in Shrewsbury; in Chester, the capital of West Cheshire; and in Stockport, the capital of East Cheshire. They spent their winters in these fashionable towns, and went to balls, routs, dinners, and other festivals.

**5. London.**—London was, in the seventeenth century, as it is at the present day, by far the largest town in the kingdom. The population amounted to about half-a-million. As a port, it was the rival of the great continental port of the Low Countries—Amsterdam. But it had only one bridge—**London Bridge**; and that bridge had no great merits, from the point of view either of those who crossed it, or of the boats that sailed under it. The **City**, as it is still called, was

the most important part of London. The streets were very narrow; many of the houses were of wood and plaster, and the upper stories projected far over the shops and booths below. The City, in the seventeenth century, was not merely a place of business for merchants, it was also their residence. There they lived in stately mansions, with decorated entrances, noble staircases, and splendid halls and rooms. The humbler merchants lived over their shops. Men and women, in striking dresses and costumes which indicated their rank or profession, filled the streets. The houses were not known by numbers, but by signs; and the Golden Fleeces, the Saracen's Heads, the Blue Boars, the Royal Oaks, made a most picturesque confusion for the eye as it glanced along the rows of houses. The "West End" reached no further west than St. James's Square. The streets were ill lighted, or hardly lighted at all. The police or watchmen were so feeble that thieves, robbers, ruffians, and bullies of every kind did pretty much what they pleased; and a citizen might be called upon to defend himself at any moment. The coffee-houses of London were the chief social institution, and were to the seventeenth century what Clubs are in the present day. "The coffee-house was the Londoner's home."

(i) The ships of London entering and leaving the port amount to more than 20,000,000 tons; the shipping entering and leaving all the ports of Holland amounts to about 9,000,000 tons. (The tonnage of vessels entering and leaving British ports amounts to over 100,000,000.)

(ii) "In 1685, a single line of irregular arches (London Bridge), overhung by piles of mean and crazy houses, and garnished—after a fashion worthy of the naked barbarians of Dahomey—with scores of mouldering heads impeded the navigation of the river." —MACAULAY.

(iii) "The Lord Mayor of London was never seen in public without his rich robe, his hood of black velvet, his gold chain, his jewel, and a great attendance of harbingers and guards."—MACAULAY.

(iv) John Milton was born in 1608, in Bread Street (in the City), at the sign of the Spread Eagle.

(v) "There was no foot-pavement in London as distinguished from the carriage-road. The carmen in the principal road fought with the hackney-coach drivers. The chairmen drove the foot-passengers off the railed-in way; and the foot-passengers themselves struggled for the honour of the wall. Every square and open place was a receptacle for rubbish and filth."—KNIGHT.

**6. The Upper Classes.**—The country gentlemen of England, during this century, were not a wealthy class. They were not rich enough to travel on the Continent, nor to keep up a house in London. Their heirs passed most of their time with grooms and gamekeepers, and knew only enough to value grain and stock, and to drive a good bargain. Their chief pleasures were field-sports; and their language and pronunciation were of the broadest and coarsest kind—were those of boors and clowns. Their intellects were permanently muddled with strong beer. Almost every meal had its close in intoxication. The ladies of the house, who could barely read and write, but who could brew gooseberry wine and make pie-crust, left the table as soon as the viands had been devoured; the gentlemen called for fresh tankards of strong ale and pipes of strong tobacco; and the dinner generally ended with the host and some of the guests asleep under the table. The politics of the country gentlemen were Tory; and, however badly

treated they might be, they were always ready to rally round the Throne and to give a loyal and hearty support to "Church and King." The country clergy were even more rabidly Tory than the country gentry; but they were looked upon as plebeians. The domestic chaplain, or "young Levite," had a salary of £10 a year, his board, and a bed in a garret. He was allowed to dine with the family: but he sat "below the salt"; and, when the better dishes came in, he rose and stood apart in the dining-hall, until he was called on to return thanks for the meal, only a portion of which he had been permitted to share in. When he married, he married the lady's-maid of the wife of his patron. When he received a country living, he found that his social position was beneath that of the local attorney or the local apothecary. His income was small, if his family was large; and there were holes in the thatch of his parsonage, and in his clergyman's gown. Sometimes he had himself to plough his farm, to load dung-carts, to feed swine and cattle; his boys had to follow his example; and his girls to go out as domestic servants. If he called at the house of his patron, he was shown into the kitchen, and regaled with cold beef and beer; and he was often glad to get them. A few books on theology made up his library. The higher clergy, on the other hand, —especially those in London,—were learned and thoughtful men; and the great names of Tillotson, and Stillingfleet, and Bull are still remembered with reverence by those who love the Church of England.

**7. Dress.**—In the time of Charles I. the dress of the Cavalier and the Roundhead was as strikingly contrasted as their political and religious opinions. Lace and elaborate embroidery, a broad-rimmed King Charles hat with a large flowing feather, slashed doublets of silk or velvet, loose hose edged with lace or decked with ribbons, flowing hair, essenced love-locks or enormous wigs, gilt spurs on high and broad-flapped boots,—made of the Cavalier a most striking, picturesque, and gentlemanly figure. Everything bespoke a free, gay, and jovial bearing. The dress of the Puritan was severe both in colour and in cut. Dull browns or blacks, a plain broad linen collar round the neck, a steeple hat, dark or black hose worn tight, short plain boots, short lank hair, marked the follower of Fairfax or of Cromwell. In the time of Charles II., the long massive wig, called the peruke, made its appearance, and continued down even to the time of the third George. Here is Shakespeare's portrait of the Puritan:

> "He is a great observer, and he looks
> Quite thro' the deeds of men; he loves no plays;
> . . . . . he hears no music;
> Seldom he smiles, and smiles in such a sort
> As if he mocked himself and scorned his spirit
> That could be moved to smile at anything."—JULIUS CÆSAR, i. 2.

**8. Manners.**—Coarseness and brutality—in one word, inhumanity —are the most prominent marks of the latter half of this century. Domestic servants were regularly beaten by their masters and mistresses—and that for the pettiest offence or neglect. Schoolmasters flogged and caned their pupils with the most terrible ferocity. Husbands—respectable men—beat their wives. If a poor drunken wretch was placed on the pillory, he was assailed with showers of

filth, stones, or brickbats by the lookers-on. When a criminal was flogged at the cart's tail, no pitying eye surveyed him in the long street; but a vile and coarse-minded rabble pressed round the hangman at his hideous task, shouting with laughter and with glee, urging him to put more power into his arm and his cat-o'-nine tails, and to make the unhappy victim howl again. "The prisons were hells upon earth": women were flogged in them; and men who called themselves gentlemen made up parties of pleasure—"parties of gentlemen and ladies"—to go and gloat over the sickening sight.

(i) Dr. Busby, a head-master of Westminster, was the type of a flogging schoolmaster. "Pedagogues," says Macaulay, "knew no way of imparting knowledge but by beating their pupils."

(ii) "A man pressed to death for refusing to plead, a woman burned for coining, excited less sympathy than is now felt for a galled horse or an over-driven ox."—MACAULAY.

**9. Communication.**—Travelling was, in the seventeenth century, difficult, expensive, and dangerous. The roads—if roads they might be called—were full of ruts and deep holes; and, on dark nights, they could not be distinguished from the unenclosed fields, heaths, or fens that lay on either side. Coaches would stick fast in quagmires or in muddy holes, and the footmen had to haul them out with ropes, or to run to the nearest farm for a team of horses. A coach and six was often a necessity. When a river overflowed its banks, travellers had to swim for their lives. The markets of country-towns often remained unsupplied with provisions for months together, owing to the state of the roads. The side-roads or country by-roads were totally unfit for carts or carriages: they could only be traversed by trains of pack-horses. The stage-coach between London and Oxford took two days for the journey; the "Flying Coach," in the latter half of the century, professed to do the distance in twelve hours. The York coach required four days to go to London; at Christmas time, more than five days. On the other hand, the way-side inns were excellent; the food and wines were of the best; and the welcome always kind and cordial. But highwaymen infested the roads; and they were sometimes in league with the inn-keepers, who gave them useful information. Letters were delivered in the country towns about three times a week; in the far north and west, only once. "The mail-bags were carried on horseback day and night at the rate of about five miles an hour."

(i) The footmen, whose duty it was to run or walk by the side of the coach, carried bundles of ropes on their left shoulders, to be used when occasion demanded; and a survival of these bundles is still to be seen on the shoulders of men-servants. "When Prince George of Denmark visited the stately mansion of Petworth (in Sussex) in wet weather, he was six hours in going nine miles."

(ii) "In the seventeenth century the inhabitants of London were, for almost every practical purpose, farther from Reading than they now are from Edinburgh, and farther from Edinburgh than they now are from Vienna."—MACAULAY.

(iii) The progress of a traveller might be described in the words used by Milton of Satan. He

> "O'er bog or steep, through straight, rough, dense, or rare,
> With head, hands, wings, or feet, pursued his way,
> And swam, or sunk, or waded, crept, or flew."

"In the first fourteen sessions of the reign of George III., 452 acts were passed for the repairing of highways in different districts."

(iv) In Charles II.'s time, the charge for carrying a letter was 2d. for 80 miles. The annual gross receipts of the Post-Office amounted to about £70,000; to-day they amount to about £12,000,000. The profits were about £20,000; to-day they are about £3,000,000.

**10. Manufactures.**—The woollen manufacture was the chief industry of England; and all others were regarded as secondary and inferior. Wool was "the foundation of England's riches." The two centres of this manufacture were in the south-west and the north-east. Frome, Bradford-on-Avon, etc., were the chief seats of the manufactures in the south; Leeds, Bradford, Halifax, etc., were its chief abodes in the north. The largest cloth market in England was the "Bridge of Leeds," over the river Aire. The chief cloth-making town in the country was Norwich. Manchester had made a beginning during this century in the manufacture of cotton, which was brought from Smyrna and the Levant. The manufacture of silk was carried on chiefly in Spitalfields—in the east of London, where it had been introduced by French refugees who fled after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV. in 1685.

The Revolution Period of 1688 was the "period of transition from the plough to the loom; from the spinning-wheel to the factory; from the age of tools to the age of machinery."

**11. Newspapers and Books.**—The daily newspaper did not exist at all, not even in the end of the century, when the Whig Party was in power, and the principles of freedom were gaining ground in the nation. A few papers appeared twice a week; but the best place to get the news of the day was not the journal, but the coffee-house. People in the country had their **Newsletter** once a week; and the newswriter went about everywhere, from coffee-house to coffee-house, collecting news and gossip of every kind. These newsletters, which were in manuscript, were handed about from family to family until they were black and torn with thumbing and handling. There were no printing-presses anywhere except in London and the two Universities; and the only press in the North of England was at York.—There were no circulating libraries even in London; and the library, even of a country gentleman, consisted of the Bible, a hymn-book, and a few books on theology. Country ladies were not educated at all; not one of them could even spell respectably.

(i) The Licensing Act expired in 1695; and any one could publish a sermon or a poem without leave from the Censor. But the English Judges were unanimously of opinion that no one except Government was at liberty to publish political news.

(ii) There were 34 counties of England in which no printing-press existed—one of them being Lancashire.

(iii) "The shops of the great booksellers, near St. Paul's Churchyard, were crowded every day and all day long with readers; and a known customer was often permitted to carry a volume home."—MACAULAY.

(iv) Even Mary—the wife of William III.—was unable to spell. She spelt *coronation* "crownation."

**12. Literature.**—No greater contrast could be found in the history of this country than that between the literature of the first part of the seventeenth century and the literature of the last part. In the early part of the century lived and wrote **Shakespeare, Ben Jonson,**

**Beaumont** and **Fletcher, Massinger**, and other great English dramatic poets and writers. At the end, or towards the end, we have **Richard Baxter, John Dryden,** and **John Locke.** Between them come the two poets—a contrast in politics and in religion as well as in poetry—**John Milton** and **Samuel Butler**; while in prose we find the great names of men of very different styles of genius—**Jeremy Taylor** and **John Bunyan.** The writers of the early part of the century were genuine Englishmen, influenced only by English thought and life; the writers of the latter part, more especially Dryden, were greatly under the influence of French literature and French manners. The Revolution and the Restoration had come between the two periods, and the gay old English life, as well as the stern manners of Puritanism, had disappeared in favour of the looseness and coarseness introduced by Charles II. and his foreign court.

(i) **Shakespeare** died in 1616, just eight years after **Milton** was born.

(ii) **Ben Jonson** (1573-1637) was made poet-laureate in 1619. He held a pension both from James I. and Charles I. His best-known play is "Volpone, or the Fox."

(iii) **Philip Massinger** (1584-1640) was the author of many plays, among others "A New Way to pay Old Debts."

(iv) **John Milton** (1608-1674) published his greatest work, "Paradise Lost," in 1667. (**Edward Hyde,** Earl of Clarendon, the grandfather of two Queens of England—Mary and Anne—was born and died in the same years as Milton. He wrote the "History of the Rebellion," that is, of the Parliamentary wars.)

(v) **Samuel Butler** (1612-80) wrote the "Hudibras," which he brought out three years after the Restoration. It is a mock-heroic poem, written to ridicule the manners, language, and religious habits of the Puritans. It was the favourite book of Charles II.

"He never ate, nor drank, nor slept,
But Hudibras still near him kept;"

—but he was too selfish to do anything for Butler.

(vi) **Richard Baxter** (1615-91) was a wonderfully eloquent writer. He was Rector of Kidderminster, and was driven out of his rectory at the beginning of the Civil War. His greatest work is "The Saints' Everlasting Rest."

(vii) **John Dryden** (1631-1700) is the greatest of our English poets in the second rank. He wrote numerous plays and a great many poems. His best-known works are the "Absalom and Achitophel" (a political satire); his translation of Virgil's "Æneid"; and his ode called "Alexander's Feast." (This last poem he wrote at one sitting when at the age of sixty-six.)

(viii) **John Locke** (1632-1704), a great English philosopher, wrote "An Essay on the Human Understanding." He displays "the very genius of common-sense."

(ix) **Jeremy Taylor** (1613-67) is the most eloquent and ornate in style of all our English Divines. His "Sermons" and "Holy Living and Holy Dying" are his best works. He has been called "the Shakespeare of English Prose."

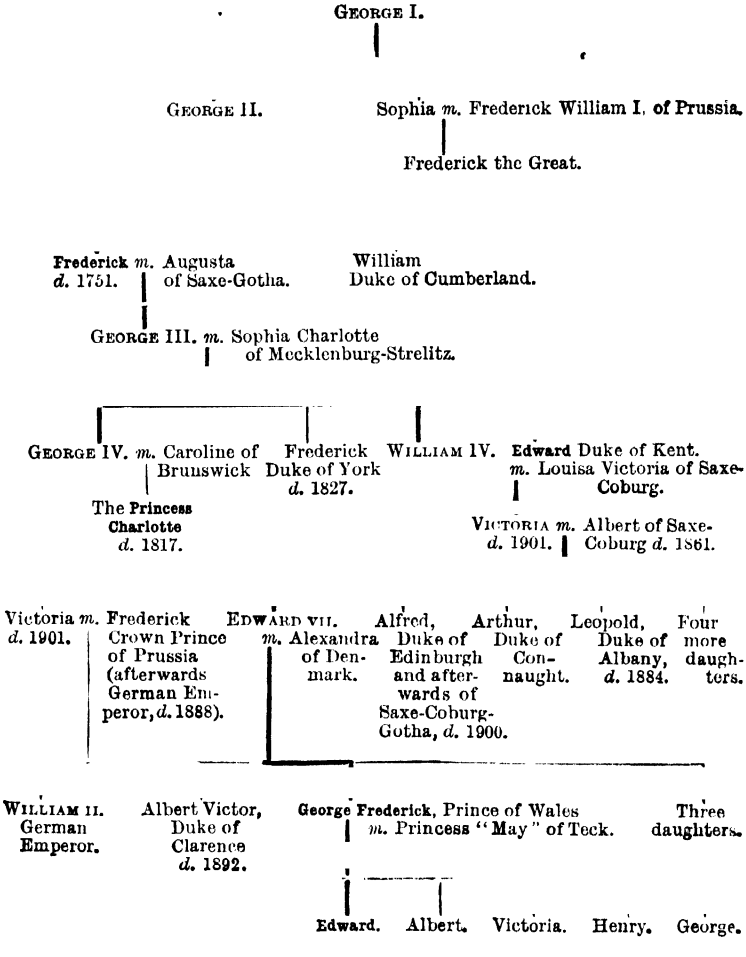
(x) **John Bunyan** (1628-88) is known all over the world as the author of "The Pilgrim's Progress"—a book which has fascinated young and old for many generations. He is sometimes called the "Spenser of the People."

# BOOK VIII.

# THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

## (OR BRUNSWICK).

# THE HOUSE OF HANOVER OR BRUNSWICK.




This new House was called the **House of Brunswick** (as well as **of Hanover**), because the first Elector of Hanover was a Duke of Brunswick.

# CHAPTER I.

# GEORGE THE FIRST

Born 1660. Succeeded (at the age of 54) 1714. Died 1727.

Reigned 13 years.

GEORGE I., King of Great Britain and Ireland, was the eldest son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, and of Sophia, youngest daughter of Elizabeth (Queen of Bohemia), and granddaughter of James I. He was born at Hanover in 1660. He was by profession a soldier; and he showed both courage and zeal in his profession. He succeeded to the throne by virtue of the Act of Settlement (or Succession Act) of 1701, which excluded all the heirs of Charles I., or James II., who were themselves Roman Catholics, or had married Roman Catholics. George I. was proclaimed king in London, Edinburgh, and Dublin immediately on the death of Anne. George could neither speak nor read English. He married Sophia Dorothea of Zell (in Brunswick). They had two children, George II. and Sophia, who married Frederick William of Prussia. For the last thirty-two years of her life his wife was a prisoner in the fortress of Ahlden; and she was never allowed to come to England. George died at Osnabrück on June 9th, 1727.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| FRANCE: | PRUSSIA: | RUSSIA: | SWEDEN: |
|---|---|---|---|
| LOUIS XIV. to 1715. | FREDERICK WILLIAM | PETER THE GREAT | CHARLES XII. |
| LOUIS XV. | 1713. | 1689-1725. | 1697-1718. |

**1. George I. 1714-1727.**—An elderly little German gentleman, who could hardly speak a word of English, whose manners were shy, sullen, and morose, who had kept his wife prisoner in a castle for years, who was dressed all in brown, even to his stockings, and who was constantly surrounded by his own countrymen, could not awaken in the breasts of his British subjects that feeling of loyalty which they are always ready to cherish and to display. But this little gentle-

man stood as the symbol of the **Protestant Succession**; and therefore, he was welcome to the majority of the nation. The Jacobites did not stir hand or foot. It was the Whigs who brought him over; he put himself entirely in Whig hands, and thus the establishment of the House of Hanover took too much the appearance of a party triumph. George's first Parliament, which was strongly Whig, at once set to work to impeach Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormond. An article in the Treaty of Utrecht had stipulated that the Pretender should be expelled from France; but these statesmen were accused of having connived at the violation of this article, and even of having carried on a correspondence with the Pretender himself. Bolingbroke and Ormond fled to France, but Oxford had to spend two years in the Tower. George I. could not speak English; he did not understand the working or the traditions of the British Constitution; he was therefore obliged to throw himself entirely on his ministers. Hence the system of parliamentary government, which began under William III. and strengthened itself under Queen Anne, took firm root during this reign, and has grown to be a living part of the political existence of this country.

(i) The return of the Stuarts was not only a possible, but a very probable, event. Queen Anne was fond of her father James II., and had a weakness for her half-brother, the "Old Pretender" (James III.); St. John (Bolingbroke) had a strong talent for intrigue; the Jacobite party was well organised, very much in earnest, and in close sympathy with the conservative feeling of the body of the people.

(ii) When George I. landed at Greenwich, he was most courteous to Marlborough and the Whig Lords; cut Ormond dead; and barely noticed Oxford, who was introduced to him as "Lord Oxford, of whom your Majesty has heard."

(iii) Riots broke out all over England, and the Jacobite party and the Tories made as many difficulties for the Government as they could. Under these circumstances, a Bill called the **Riot Act** was passed, which provided that any assembly of more than twelve persons must disperse upon being summoned to do so by a magistrate, and for failing to go should be judged guilty of felony.

(iv) **General Stanhope** and **Lord Townshend** were George's first Secretaries of State; and **Sir Robert Walpole** was his first Chancellor of the Exchequer. They were all Whigs.

**2. "The Fifteen."**—A year after the accession of George, the Earl of Mar, who had been Secretary of State for Scotland in the last reign, raised the standard of the Pretender in the Highlands. Mar was a man of no great ability, but he had always shown considerable skill in trimming his sails to the wind of fortune, and had thus

earned the nickname of "Bobbing John." He had offered his services to George—had offered to present a loyal address from the Highland clans; but George was cold, and even rude, and told him that he had no further occasion for his services. Disgusted by the conduct of the king, he hurried to London, sought favour at court, took a wife from among the great people of the Whig party; and then, having deceived every one, he secretly went back north to his own country of Braemar, on the river Dee, sent out invitations to the Highland chiefs for a hunting-party, and at this "Hunting of Braemar" raised the royal standard of James VIII. of Scotland and III. of England. The Highlanders shuddered when they saw the gilt ball on the top of the flagstaff carried away by a sudden gust of wind; but, persuaded by Mar, they separated to send the fiery cross through their glens and valleys and mountain-sides. One end of this cross was singed with fire, and the other dipped in blood; and the symbol meant that, if the people did not obey the summons of their feudal superiors, they would be visited with fire and sword—would have their houses burnt over their heads, and be put to death. The Jacobite gentlemen of Northumberland and Cumberland also took up arms; but they were soon after defeated at **Preston**.—The Royalist army in Scotland was commanded by the Duke of Argyll; and the opposing forces met at **Sheriffmuir**, near Dunblane. Mar's troops completely routed the left wing of the Royalists; but, on the other hand, his own left wing was defeated and put to flight, and Argyll was left in possession of the field. The Pretender himself landed at Peterhead about six weeks after, went on to Scone, and fixed his coronation for the 23d of January; but, finding his chances of success very small, he went back again to France. The Earls of Derwentwater and Kenmare were beheaded for their share in this attempt; the Earl of Nithsdale escaped from prison by the help of his wife, who dressed him in women's clothes; about thirty persons were hanged, and more than a thousand were transported as slaves to the plantations of America.

**Jacobite Rebellion in Scotland 1715.**

(i) **Sheriffmuir** is a high table-land between Dunblane and Bridge of Allan, in Perthshire. Argyll held the road from Perth to Stirling—that is, from the Highlands to the Lowlands. The battle was a drawn battle; but Argyll still held the road. The old ballad runs thus:

"There's some say that we won; and some say that they won;
And some say that none won at all, man;

But of one thing I 'm sure, that at Sheriffmuir
A battle there was, which I saw, man.
And we ran, and they ran; and they ran, and we ran;
And we ran, and they ran awa', man."

(ii) **Forster**, who headed the rising in the North, was member for Northumberland. He escaped from prison.

**3. The Septennial Act.**—The year 1716 was to have been the year of a general election for Parliament; but the Government, fearing that the Jacobites would take advantage of this to raise riots and create disturbances, and might even secure a majority in Parliament, passed a Bill, called the **Septennial Act**, which authorised Parliament to sit for seven years. It was a temporary measure; but it has never been repealed, and it is still law.

**The Septennial Act 1716.**

(i) "The Septennial Act," says Dr. Priestley, "was a direct usurpation of the ancient rights of the people; for, by the same authority that one Parliament prolonged their own power to seven years, they might have continued it to twice seven." This act is "analogous to the act of the Long Parliament in declaring itself indestructible."

(ii) The excuse for it was that "a restless and Popish faction are designing and endeavouring to renew rebellion."

**4. Foreign Affairs.**—As Hanover was now united to the British Crown, the chances were in favour of Great Britain becoming more and more involved in Continental politics. But, indeed, the chief object of George I.'s Government was to prevent any European power giving assistance to the Jacobites. In other words, the foreign policy of George's ministers was to preserve the Treaty of Utrecht. For this purpose the **Triple Alliance**, between Britain, France, and Holland, was formed in 1717. The Spanish minister, Cardinal Alberoni, was anxious to get back some of the dominions which Spain had lost under that famous treaty; and it was chiefly against Spain that, in 1718, the **Quadruple Alliance** between Britain, France, Germany, and Holland was formed. War was also declared against Spain in the end of this year. Charles XII. of Sweden, "the brilliant madman" who had overrun the east of Europe with his army, was angry with George for having—as Elector of Hanover—purchased from Denmark the duchy of Bremen, and he agreed with the Jacobites to land in Scotland with 10,000 men; but the plan came to nothing.—In 1719, again, the prime minister of Spain, Alberoni,

invited the Pretender to Madrid, placed at his disposal 6000 men, 12,000 stand of arms, and a fleet of ten ships of war; but the fleet was struck by a tempest, scattered, and driven back to Spain.

(i) A small band of Spaniards effected a landing at Glenshiel, in the Highlands; they were joined by parties of Highlanders; but the whole force was easily disposed of (1719).

(ii) The crown of Hanover was held by a British sovereign till the accession of Queen Victoria. The Salic Law forbade a woman to be sovereign of Hanover; and the crown passed to the Duke of Cumberland—one of the sons of George III. After the war of 1866, Prussia seized the kingdom of Hanover (which had taken the side of Austria in the war of '66) and "mediatised" it.

(iii) Before war was declared, Admiral Byng attacked and destroyed the Spanish Fleet, which was cruising off Cape Passaro, and threatening Sicily (1718).

(iv) By the **Triple Alliance**, the clauses in the Treaty of Utrecht regarding the succession of the House of Hanover in G. Britain, the succession of the House of Orleans in France, and the renunciation of all claims of the Spanish king on the throne of France, were fully guaranteed. Louis XIV. died in 1715; his successor was his great-grandson Louis XV., a delicate little boy. The Regent of France was the Duke of Orleans, who, in the hope of being one day king himself supported the Treaty of Utrecht, so as to keep Philip of Spain—the nearest heir to the French throne—out of the succession.

**5. The South Sea Bubble.**—The sixth year of this reign saw one of the most terrible social disasters that had ever fallen upon England. At the accession of Queen Anne, the National Debt amounted to sixteen millions, at her death it had reached fifty-two millions; and English statesmen were afraid of nothing so much as of the growth of this debt. A company had been created for the purpose of trading with the Spanish coasts of South America; it was called the South Sea Company, and it made proposals to the Government to buy up a part of the National Debt, and to give its own stock in exchange. Those who had annuities from Government were invited to exchange them for the stock of the South Sea Company. The business of this company was thoroughly sound; but their hopes and their promises were absurd and delusive—they even went so far as to hold out a prospect of fifty per cent. A rage for speculation seized the country, every man and woman was filled with an insane haste to grow rich; everybody rushed to buy; desks for bank-clerks were put up in the streets; and the consequence was, that the £100 shares of the company went gradually up to £1000. All kinds of lunatic companies were

**The South Sea Bubble 1720.**

started—to import asses from Spain, to extract silver from lead, to turn salt water into fresh, to introduce perpetual motion; and old and young, statesmen and errand-boys, noblemen and footmen, rushed to invest their pounds and even their sixpences in these hopeful undertakings. The nominal value of all the shares in all the companies was five hundred millions of pounds—twice the value of all the land in England. Most of these companies were without a charter, and the South Sea directors prosecuted and crushed them; but they themselves came down in the general crash. One morning it was found that no one would buy South Sea stock at £1000; and the consequence was, everybody now rushed to sell. The stock fell in price every hour, until what had been bought for £1000 now only fetched £175. The difference, £825, represented the loss on each share to those who had bought at so high a price. Thousands were ruined, many poor widows starved, merchants and nobles committed suicide, and misery reigned in London and the provinces: the madness had gone, leaving desolation and despair behind it. Another fury succeeded—a fury against the directors: those who had lost would not be satisfied with less than hanging them; but Sir Robert Walpole, who had joined the Government, made arrangements by which individuals and the country and the Government were helped through their difficulties. The directors were, however, imprisoned, and their estates, over two millions in value, seized and divided among the sufferers.

(i) The most remarkable scheme proposed in this age of enterprise was a company "for carrying on an undertaking of great advantage, but nobody to know what it is." Shares even in this company were taken.

(ii) General (now Lord) Stanhope was charged with bribery and corruption; he burst a blood-vessel, and died of the shock. Lord Sunderland had to resign his post as Secretary of State; and Aislabie, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, was formally expelled from the House.

(iii) It was remembered that Walpole had always opposed the South Sea schemes; and he now became the most popular man in the country. The year after, he was made First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister.

(iv) **Walpole** was the first person who received the title of **Prime Minister.** In the Norman times, the chief minister in the country was the **Justiciar**; between these and the Revolution Period it was the **Chancellor.**

**6. Sir Robert Walpole.**—For nearly twenty years the affairs of the nation were in the hands of Sir Robert Walpole; and to him it was that England owed her rapid and sound progress in commerce

and manufactures. His policy consisted in the pursuit of peace in every direction—peace at home, peace abroad. The age was corrupt, people acted from the lowest motives, and Walpole's motto was, "Every man has his price." One man he bought with place, or with pension, or with a title, a ribbon, or a star; another he bought with ready money put into his pocket; and so he always got the House of Commons to vote as he wished. His greatest merit is, that he maintained peace for the country longer than ever it had been kept before.—In 1722 he had to break up a Jacobite conspiracy, the chief manager of which in this country was Francis Atterbury, bishop of Rochester. Atterbury was banished the kingdom, and went over to James in France, where he spent his life in vain attempts at a new restoration.

**Atterbury's Plot 1722.**

(i) **Walpole** was a typical English country gentleman, and as such was personally very popular in the House of Commons. He understood men, and could manage them without letting them see it; and he had that broad common-sense which enables a man to see what measures can be carried and how.

(ii) The Jacobite Plot of 1722 caused the suspension of the **Habeas Corpus Act** for a whole year. This is the longest period of suspension on record in England.

(iii) "**Francis Atterbury** had been known for nearly thirty years as the keenest of controversialists, as well as the most impressive of preachers. From the beginning of the century he had been considered the leader of the High Church Party, and had gradually become identified with the most extreme principles of passive obedience."—KNIGHT.

(a) "**Walpole**, if not the greatest, was probably the most satisfactory, statesman of the century. He was free alike from the incurable instability and insincerity of Bolingbroke, from the grandiosity of Chatham, from the frigid good-boyishness of his son. He was an honest man, a good fellow, a good patriot according to his lights, a far-seeing statesman, a wonderfully able financier, and, as a minister and politician, one of the boldest, wariest, most enterprising, most indomitable fighters in all history."—MORLEY.

(b) "His big square figure, his vulgar good-humoured face, were those of a common country squire. And in Walpole the squire underlay the statesman to the last. He was ignorant of books; he 'loved neither reading nor writing'; and, if he had a taste for art, his real love was for the table, the bottle, and the chase. He rode as hard as he drank. Even in moments of political peril, the first despatch he would open was the letter from his gamekeeper. . . . Walpole was the first Minister 'who gave our government that character of lenity which it has since generally deserved.'"—GREEN.

(c) "He was the first and greatest of our Peace Ministers, 'The most pernicious circumstances,' he said, 'in which this country can be are those of war; as we must be losers while it lasts and cannot be great gainers when it ends."—GREEN.

**7. Ireland.**—Though Ireland had a Parliament of her own, that Parliament had no power of independent legislation, because, by Poyning's law, the English Council in London could revise and alter a bill introduced into the Irish House of Commons in any way it pleased. But, in 1719, the British Government went a step further

and passed a Bill making all laws enacted by the Parliament of Britain valid also in Ireland. This Bill irritated the Irish people to an extreme degree. One consequence of it was very remarkable. Walpole, in 1722, granted to **William Wood**, a proprietor of iron and copper mines in England, the right of minting copper coins for Ireland to the extent of £108,000. The cry arose in Ireland that the poor were going to be plundered; and the Irish Privy Council voted an address to the king, in which it pointed out that the terms of Wood's patent would bring about a loss to the nation of 150 per cent. Dean Swift, rushing into the fray, wrote "Letters by M. B. Drapier," in which he tried to show that Wood was going to make 1100 per cent. profit. This was entirely wrong; but the "Drapier's Letters," as they were called, struck the chord of national feeling in the Irish heart, and Swift became the most popular man in the country. Carteret, the Lord Lieutenant, offered a reward of £300 for the discovery of the author of the "Drapier's Letters"; he prosecuted their printer, but the Grand Jury threw out the bill; Dean Swift had beaten the Government; and Wood's patent had to be withdrawn.—In 1727 the British Government went still further: it took away the franchise from all Roman Catholics, so that no man of that religious persuasion could either vote at an election or sit as a member of the Parliament of his own country.

(i) "The Irish went mad about Wood's half-pence. The mischievous Dean stirred up the nation not only with Drapier's Letters, but with songs that were sung in every street. Wood was to be scalded in his own melted copper. He was to be hanged:

> The half-pence are coming—the nation's undoing;
> There's an end of your ploughing, and baking, and brewing;
> In short, you must all go to rack and to ruin."—KNIGHT.

(ii) Dean Swift said, in the character of "The Drapier," "I intend to truck with my neighbours, the butchers and bakers and the rest, goods for goods; and the little gold and silver I have I will keep by me, like my heart's blood, till better times, or until I am just ready to starve; and then I will buy Mr. Wood's money, as my father did the brass money in King James's time, who could buy £10 of it for a guinea."

(iii) The consequence of the Disfranchising Act was that only one-sixth of the people of Ireland possessed a vote.

**8. Death of George.**—Like William III., George passed every summer on the Continent,—though not, like William, in the pursuit of war; for he much preferred Hanover to England. In June 1727

he set out on his last visit to his German subjects. He was travelling in his coach, when a letter was thrown in at the open window; he read it, and was struck with a fit of apoplexy. His attendants wanted to stop the carriage and obtain medical assistance; but he kept muttering, "Osnabrück! Osnabrück!" where his brother, the prince-bishop, had his palace. To Osnabrück they drove; and when the bishop was awakened by the gallop of horses in his court-yard at the dead of night, he found King George I. a ghastly corpse at the back of his carriage. The letter was from his wife, who had died in prison eight months before, after having been confined for over thirty years. He left one son, George Augustus, Prince of Wales, with whom he had been quarrelling for years; and hence there had existed in London and in the country for a long time a King's Party and a Prince's Party. George had all along been a foreigner in speech, in habits, and in tastes. He was surrounded by a Hanoverian court, he was sullen and reserved; he was detested by the people of London, and neither he nor his favourites could make their appearance in public without being received with yells and hootings, brickbats and execrations.

(i) "George I. showed an uncommon prudence and coolness of behaviour when he came into his kingdom; exhibiting no elation; reasonably doubtful whether he should not be turned out some day; looking upon himself only as a lodger."—THACKERAY.

(ii) The quarrel between George I. and his son, and the consequent formation of a King's Party and a Prince's Party, was in reality a good thing for the peace of the nation. If father and son had been agreed on their policy, those who were dissatisfied with the government would have naturally allied themselves with the Pretender. But this was not necessary; they had only to join the party of the Prince of Wales.

> "Under the two sovereigns who followed Anne the power of the Crown lay absolutely dormant. They were strangers, to whom loyalty in its personal sense was impossible; and their character as nearly approached insignificance as it is possible for human character to approach it. Both were honest and straightforward men, who frankly accepted the irksome position of constitutional kings. But neither had any qualities which could make their honesty attractive to the people at large. The temper of the first was that of a gentleman usher; and his one care was to get money for his favourites and himself. The temper of the second was that of a drill-sergeant, who believed himself master of his realm, while he repeated the lessons he had learned from his wife and which his wife had learned from the Minister."—GREEN.

**9. The Work of Parliament.**—The Succession Act of 1701 was the work chiefly of the Whig Party; and it was to the Succession Act that George I. owed his position on the throne of Britain. **George's First Parliament** met in 1714, and contained a large majority

of Whigs. The English had no feeling of personal loyalty to George —they regarded him as at best only a political necessity; the Scotch spoke of him as a "wee bit German lairdie"; but most of the nation were agreed that the system represented by this elderly German Prince must be steadfastly upheld.—The **Second Parliament**, under the Stanhope Ministry, passed the **Septennial Act** in 1716.—The **Third Parliament** tried to limit the number of Peers in the Upper House; but this measure was defeated by the exertions of Walpole. In 1718 it had the good sense to repeal the Occasional Conformity Act and the Schism Act. In 1719 it passed a Bill to make all Acts passed in the British Parliament valid also in Ireland.—The **Fourth Parliament** suspended the Habeas Corpus Act for a whole year, after the discovery of Atterbury's Plot.

(i) Parliament, under the Triennial Act, would have been dissolved in 1717; and it was feared that the Jacobites might take advantage of the General Election to further another rising, or might even be strong enough to get a majority at the polls.

(ii) Stanhope was anxious even to repeal the Test and Corporation Acts; but the narrow majorities he received for the repeal of the Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts showed him that it would be unwise to attempt it. Then it was always easy to raise the cry of "The Church in danger!"

(iii) The Bill to make all Acts of the British Parliament valid in Ireland was repealed in 1782, when Ireland obtained an independent Parliament ("the Grattan Parliament").

**10. Great Men.**—The most distinguished men in this reign were for the most part politicians and statesmen. Of these, by far the most prominent was **Sir Robert Walpole**—"the first and greatest of our peace Ministers," "the first of our Finance Ministers," and a man possessed of the very genius of common sense. Of the other Ministers on the side of the king, the ablest were **Viscount Townshend** and **Earl Stanhope**; while, on the side of the Pretender, we must observe the brilliant intellect of **Bolingbroke**, and the talent and perseverance of **Bishop Atterbury**. Among literary men who took part in politics, by far the greatest were **Joseph Addison**, who was made Secretary of State in 1717, and **Jonathan Swift**—the former the most graceful, the latter the most powerful, writer of English prose in the whole range of the eighteenth century. In the feeble warlike operations carried out during this reign by the Jacobites, the **Earl of Mar** in Scotland and **Mr. Forster** in England, were the two most prominent persons.

When Queen Anne died, Bolingbroke said, "The Tory Party is gone." He himself had to flee in the year 1715, and lay under attaint. When the attaint was removed, and he was permitted to return in 1723, he joined with Pulteney—a dissatisfied member of Walpole's Cabinet, who had quarrelled with Walpole, and formed a regular opposition. This opposition party called themselves "The Patriots." Bolingbroke also started an opposition daily paper called *The Craftsman*—the first paper ever published in this country not in the service of the Government.

**11. Social Facts.**—The German Court and the German followers that George I. brought with him in his train to England lowered the whole tone of morals and manners in the society of London. Art, too, declined; and the mean spirit produced by the prevalence of stock-exchange operations, by the low condition of the religious bodies in the country, by the permanence of peace at home and abroad, furnished no kindly or fruitful soil for the nobler arts of painting, architecture, literature, or music. In this respect the reign of George I. forms a marked contrast to the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

> "The German women plundered; the German secretaries plundered; the German cooks and attendants plundered; even Mustapha and Mahomet, the German negroes, had a share of the booty. Take what you can get was the old monarch's maxim. . . . He took our loyalty for what it was worth; laid hands on what money he could; kept us assuredly from Popery and wooden shoes. . . . Cynical and selfish as he was, he was better than a king out of St. Germains with the French king's orders in his pocket, and a swarm of Jesuits in his train.'—THACKERAY.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE I.'s REIGN.

**1714. Accession of George I.**

Lord Townshend, General Stanhope, and Sir Robert Walpole, chief ministers.

**1715. "The Fifteen."**

(a) Earl of Mar in Scotland. Battle of Sheriffmuir.

(b) Forster and Lord Derwentwater in England; defeated at Preston.

**1716. The Septennial Act.**

1717. The Triple Alliance.

1718. The Quadruple Alliance.

1719. Invasion of Scotland by the Spaniards.

1720. **The South Sea Bubble.**

**1721. Walpole Prime Minister.**

1722. Jacobite Plot.

1723. (a) Banishment of Atterbury.
(b) Return of Bolingbroke.

**1727. Death of George I.**

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1715. Death of Louis XIV.** Louis XV., his great-grandson, succeeds.

1717. Charles XII. of Sweden and Cardinal Alberoni of Spain encourage the Jacobites.

**1718. Death of Charles XII.**

1724. Wood's copper coinage and the Drapier's Letters.

1725. Death of Peter the Great.

1727. (a) Irish Roman Catholics disfranchised.

(b) Irish Parliament sits from 1727 to 1760.

# CHAPTER II.

# GEORGE THE SECOND

**Born 1683.** Succeeded (at the age of 43) in 1727. Died 1760.

Reigned 33 years.

GEORGE II., only son of George I. and Sophia Dorothea of Zell, was born at Herrenhausen in 1683. In 1705 he married Caroline of Anspach. They had two sons—Frederick, Prince of Wales, who died before his father; William, Duke of Cumberland—and five daughters. In 1714 George came over to England with his father; and, in 1715, took his seat in the House of Lords as Duke of Rothesay. He succeeded to the throne in 1727, and died in 1760.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS: WALPOLE; PELHAM; NEWCASTLE.
CHIEF SECRETARIES OF STATE: CARTERET; FOX; PITT.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| FRANCE: | AUSTRIA: | PRUSSIA: |
|---|---|---|
| LOUIS XV., | MARIA THERESA, | FREDERICK WILLIAM, 1713 to 1740. |
| 1715 to 1774. | 1745 to 1765. | FREDERICK THE GREAT, 1740 to 1786. |

**1. George II., 1727-1760.**—George II. was, like his father, a German in every way, liking Hanover much better than England, and interfering in Continental far more than in British politics. Like his father, too, he had a standing quarrel with his son, Frederick, Prince of Wales, who was very popular, not so much on the ground of his own merits and character as because his father was universally detested. But George II. could speak English, and this was one point in his favour. He was a spare, dry little man, but brave, obstinate, passionate, and fond of soldiering. His clever wife, Caroline of Anspach, ruled him without much difficulty, and Sir Robert Walpole managed *her*; and, as we have seen, the chief policy of that statesman was to keep the country out of foreign war.

(i) "George was throughout life extremely regular in his habits, rose usually between five and six o'clock in the morning, went to bed for an hour's siesta in the afternoon, and distributed the rest of the day between business, pleasure, and exercise, in the most methodical manner. His favourite sport was hunting. . . . He was so completely swayed by his wife in affairs of state that the King may be said to have been merged in the Queen. This humiliating position he did his utmost to disguise; but it gradually came to be notorious:—

'You may strut, dapper George, but 'twill all be in vain.
We know 'tis Queen Caroline, not you, that reign.'"

NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

(ii) "He had a good memory, an understanding narrow, but clear and active within its limits. He was totally incapable of any sort of dissimulation, or even simulation; honourable also, except when spite or avarice intervened, loyal to his allies, and an exact observer of his pledged word."—NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

(iii) **Frederick, Prince of Wales**, was not an estimable character. He had a most wonderful talent for exasperating his relatives—especially his father; he wrote caricatures even of his own mother; was addicted to gambling, but forgot to pay what he owed; he was utterly insincere, and indifferent to truth; he had "his father's head and his mother's heart."

(iv) When he died, the following epitaph went round London:—

"Here lies Fred, who was alive, and is dead.
Had it been his father, I had much rather.
Had it been his brother, still better than another.
Had it been his sister, no one would have missed her.
Had it been the whole generation, still better for the nation.
But since 'tis only Fred, who was alive, and is dead,
There's no more to be said."

**2. The Porteous Riot.**—Smuggling was at this time very common in Scotland. Two smugglers, named Wilson and Robertson, having been guilty of an act of violence against an officer of the revenue, were apprehended, tried at Edinburgh, and sentenced to death. While leaving the Tolbooth Church in Edinburgh after the "condemned sermon," surrounded by four keepers, Wilson seized two with his hands and held a third with his teeth, while Robertson knocked down the fourth guard and escaped into the crowd, who willingly made a lane for him. At the execution of Wilson, the populace attacked the city guard, who were under the command of Mr. John Porteous, their captain; Porteous ordered his guard to fire, and a few persons were killed and several wounded. He was afterwards tried for murder and sentenced to death; but the Secretary of State, taking all the

circumstances into account, sent down a reprieve from London. The populace of Edinburgh, however, were not to be baulked of their revenge. A quiet, determined, and well-organised mob assembled, disarmed the guard, broke into the guard-house, barricaded the streets against the soldiery, burnt through the strong door of the prison, where Porteous had been drinking wine a short time before with his friends, found him concealed up the chimney, dragged him down, and told him to prepare for death. They carried him to the Grassmarket, the usual place of execution, took a rope from a shop and left a guinea for the payment of it, and hanged him on a dyer's pole—all with the greatest order and regularity.

**The Porteous Riot 1736.**

(i) The king was absent in Hanover; the queen was Regent, and she looked upon this act of the Edinburgh mob as a terrible insult to her authority. She was eager to abolish the city guard and the city charter, to level the gates, and to have the provost declared incapable of office; but she was at last prevailed upon to be satisfied with fining the city £2000. This did not please the people of Edinburgh; nor were the people of London any better pleased with the royal family.

(ii) The queen lived in Kensington, then a country village; the king had been away in Germany all the summer and autumn, and some daring Jacobite posted on the gate of St. James's Palace the following notice: "Lost or strayed out of this house, a man, who has left his wife and six children on the parish. Whoever will give any tidings of him to the church-warden of St. James's parish, so as he may be got again, shall receive four shillings and sixpence reward. *N.B.*—This reward will not be increased, nobody judging him to deserve a crown."

(iii) George II. was absent in Hanover at the time of the Porteous Riots; and Queen Caroline was Regent. She was terribly angry, and said to the Duke of Argyll that she would turn all Scotland into a hunting-ground. "Then," replied Argyll, "I had better go down and get my dogs ready."

(iv) Sir Walter Scott has told the story of the Porteous Riots in his "Heart of Midlothian."

**3. The Spanish War.**—Every country at this time kept the trade with its own colonies for itself; but, in spite of this, hundreds of English ships—especially from London and Bristol—carried on an unlawful trade in smuggled goods with the Spanish possessions. The Spaniards captured some of the ships in 1739, and behaved with cruelty to the English seamen. Among other things, they had, the year before, cut off the ear of a Captain Jenkins, who used to go about—asking satisfaction from the

**The War with Spain 1739.**

Government—with his ear in a box, wrapt up in cotton wool; and when brought before the bar of the House of Commons, he there proudly exhibited his amputated ear. The king and the people were eager for war; and Walpole, though strongly desirous of peace, declared war against Spain rather than give up office. "The ear of Jenkins drove England to war." London was overjoyed, and peals of bells resounded through the city. "Now they are ringing their bells," said Walpole; "but they will soon be wringing their hands." The war was not successful, though petty gains were made. Admiral Vernon took Portobello (on the Isthmus of Darien) with six ships; and Commodore Anson plundered Paita, a port of Chili, captured a Spanish treasure-ship with £300,000 on board, and sailed round the world.—In the year after this, 1742, Walpole, having been defeated on an election question, resigned, and went to the House of Peers as Earl of Orford. Pulteney, his rival, and a great orator, had been previously called to the Upper House as Earl of Bath; and, when the great statesmen met, Orford, remembering their debates, their life, and their power in the House of Commons, walked up to him and, laughing, said, "Here we are, my lord—two of the most insignificant fellows in England."

**Walpole resigns 1742.**

(i) When asked in the House of Commons how he felt when subjected to such tortures and indignities, Jenkins replied, "I commended my soul to God, and my cause to my country."

(ii) **Pulteney**, the leader of the Opposition, said, "We have no need of allies to enable us to command justice;—the story of Jenkins will raise us as many volunteers as we like."

**4. War of the Austrian Succession.**—In 1731, Britain, the Emperor Charles VI., and the Dutch entered into an alliance to counteract the designs of France and Spain. The Emperor had no son, and he wished to secure the succession to his hereditary states—Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, and the Netherlands—to his daughter Maria Theresa: the document by which the Allied Powers secured this arrangement was called the **Pragmatic Sanction.** When the Emperor died, France and Spain declared war. We sent to the Continent a few troops and more money; and, in the summer of 1743, the king joined his British and Hanoverian army in Germany. At the battle of Dettingen, on the

**War of the Austrian Succession 1741-48.**

Main, his troops were hard pressed by the French, when George, whose horse had run away, dismounted, drew his sword, put himself at the head of his right wing, and exclaimed: "Now, boys,—now for the honour of England; fire, and behave bravely, and the French will soon run." And the determined little man did make the French run, and helped to win the victory. This was the last time a king of our country was under fire.—Two years later, in 1745, George's second son, the Duke of Cumberland, was defeated by Marshal Saxe at **Fontenoy** in Belgium, and again at **Lawfeldt** in the same country in 1747. Peace was made, and this war put an end to, by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

(i) At the Battle of Fontenoy, "the Duke of Cumberland formed a column of fourteen thousand British infantry, thirty or forty abreast; and, with measured tread, regardless of every natural obstacle, undismayed by the cannonade left and right which mowed down their ranks, this terrible column strode on through the enemy's lines, carrying all before them."

(ii) The advance of the British column at Fontenoy is one of the most celebrated events in the history of the British Army. "It was a noble precursor of the heroic madness of Balaklava."

**5. "The Forty-Five."**—Early in the war of the Austrian Succession, the French Government had, by way of diversion, invited to France Charles Edward—the young Pretender, or "Bonnie Prince Charlie" of the Jacobite songs—and had planned an invasion of England which he was to lead. Charles landed in the Highlands, and quickly gathered a number of the clans around him. At Perth he had himself proclaimed Regent of Scotland for his father, James VIII. Thence he marched to Edinburgh, took up his abode at Holyrood Palace, held receptions there, and conquered all hearts by the amiability of his manners and the winning charm of his courtesy.—Sir John Cope was in command of the Government troops, then lying at **Prestonpans**, a village a few miles east of Edinburgh. In the early morning, just as the sun rose, Prince Charles's Highlanders attacked Sir John's troops, fired, threw down their muskets, and, grasping their broad-swords, poured down upon the astonished line "with a swiftness not to be conceived." The Royalist soldiers turned and fled, and in six minutes it was all over. The dragoons, with Sir John Cope in the midst of them, fled to Berwick, where Lord Mark Kerr, an old Marlborough veteran, received him with the com-

**Rebellion in Scotland 1745.**

**The Battle of Prestonpans 1745.**

plimentary remark, "that he believed him to be the first general that had ever brought news of his own defeat."

(i) One of Prince Charlie's Highland friends discountenanced the attempt at an insurrection with means so small, and urged him to go back home. "I am come home, sir," replied the Prince.

(ii) When the Prince was trying to persuade two Highland gentlemen to join him, he observed a young man near who seemed very uneasy. His colour came and went; his eyes sparkled with fire; he moved about on his feet, and now and then grasped the hilt of his sword. Charles turned suddenly to him and said, "Will you not give me your aid?" "I will, I will," said the young man; "though no other man in the Highlands should draw a sword, I am ready to die for you." His name was Ranald MacDonald.

**6. The Pretender's March into England.**—The Pretender's forces had now increased to about six thousand men, of whom five hundred were cavalry; and he formed the daring resolution of marching upon London. He thought England would everywhere rise in his favour. No sign of an English rising met his eyes as he marched through Penrith, Kendal, and Lancaster; at Preston—always a Conservative town—he obtained a few recruits; Manchester was "taken" by "a sergeant, a drummer, and a girl," and a small regiment of Manchester recruits was formed. London was stricken with panic; there was a run upon the Bank of England, which had to take to paying cheques in sixpences,[1] and the king sent his jewels to a vessel in the Thames. The prince's troops reached Derby on the 4th of December,—a day known in London as "Black Friday,"—but beyond Derby they did not march a step. A council of officers was called; it was found that thirty thousand men lay between them and London; and it was resolved to march back into Scotland, and try to form a separate Stuart kingdom there.

Prince Charles at Derby 1745.

(i) "In every place we passed through," writes a Scotchman in the army of Prince Charles, "we found the English very ill-disposed towards us, except at Manchester, where there appeared some remains of attachment to the House of Stuart."

(ii) "The Highlanders in the streets of Derby were animated to the highest pitch of enthusiasm. They were to be seen, during the whole day, in crowds before the shops of the cutlers, quarrelling about who should be the first to sharpen and give a proper edge to their swords."—KNIGHT.

[1] For the purpose of gaining time, and so preventing the bank from breaking or "stopping payment."

**7. The Pretender's Retreat.**—With heavy hearts, and sullen silent rage and depressed looks, the Highlanders and the Prince began to retrace their steps. On the 23d of December they again crossed the Border, and no Englishman could point to a single act of plunder or disorder during their long march of six hundred miles. Indeed, so scrupulous had they been on this point, that, when they came within sight of Oxenfoord Castle—the seat of the hated Earl of Stair, who had ordered the Glencoe massacre,—the Glencoe men claimed it as their right to mount guard over the castle and to save it from injury; and they did. They met General Hawley at Falkirk, and defeated him; and then they marched on towards Inverness. The Duke of Cumberland, the second son of George the Second, came over from the Continent, and was sent after them with an army more than twice as large.

**8. Culloden.**—The two armies met on **Culloden Moor.** The Prince's troops were starving and exhausted with marching, and they had few cannon. Through hail-storms of grape and shot the Highlanders made their way; but, though they broke through the first line, the second and third, which had reserved their fire, received them with volleys so heavy and well-sustained that they were sent reeling back in broken and disordered ranks. The contest was soon over, and Prince Charles had to flee from the field. "This battle, which conclusively ended a dynastic contest of fifty-seven years, did not continue for fifty-seven minutes."—The Duke of Cumberland, whom the Scotch nicknamed the *Butcher*, allowed the wounded to be murdered, "knocked on the head" as they lay on the ground; in one part of the field they were collected into two heaps, and a six-pounder fired into each heap; and thirty-two persons, who had taken refuge in a small hut, were burnt to death next day in the building.

**The Battle of Culloden 1746.**

(i) The **Battle of Culloden** was lost partly in consequence of the conduct of the Clan MacDonald. "This clan, which had been placed in the left wing, and were offended, to use the words of one of their officers, at not having this day 'the right hand in battle'—the honour which Robert the Bruce bestowed upon Angus Mac-Donald, Lord of the Isles—refused to make an onset. Their chief fell, exclaiming, 'My God! have the children of my clan forsaken me?'"—KNIGHT.

(ii) "William of Cumberland was during many years one of the most unpopular men in England."

**9. The Flight of Prince Charlie.**—A reward of £30,000 was put upon the head of the young Chevalier; but no one, however poor, was found willing to betray the prince. After suffering terrible hardships, living for several weeks with freebooters in a cave, being hunted from place to place and from island to island of the Hebrides by soldiers, attended by the loving devotion of a Highland lady called Flora Macdonald, he at last made his way in a French ship to the coast of Brittany. His after life was a misery and a wreck. Driven from France, in accordance with a stipulation of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which merely confirmed an article of the Treaty of Utrecht, he wandered about the Continent seeking help towards another invasion, and gradually sinking into habits of confirmed drunkenness. He died in 1788; and with his younger brother, Henry Benedict Stuart, Cardinal York, who died in 1807, went out of existence the line of the unfortunate and self-blinded Stuarts.

For their share in this insurrection of 1745, about eighty persons were put to death, among them the Earl of Kilmarnock, Lord Lovat, Lord Balmerino, and Charles Ratcliffe, the brother of the unfortunate Earl of Derwentwater, who himself suffered in 1716.

**10. Wolfe in Canada.**—The French held Canada in North America, while all to the south of St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes was in the hands of the British. But the Marquis Duquesne, a new governor, began in 1752 a new policy, the object of which was to seize the Mississippi and the country east and west of it, and to confine the British within the narrow strip of land which lies between the Alleghanies and the Atlantic.—The French war began in 1756 with the taking of Minorca by the French; and Admiral Byng, who was sent to its relief, declined to fight the French fleet. For this he was tried the year after by court-martial, and shot upon the quarter-deck of his own vessel.—The British were hard pressed in America, when William Pitt, "the Great Commoner," who was then Secretary of State, sent out a mean-looking little man, General Wolfe, with eight thousand men to Quebec. Wolfe was only thirty-three; he had entered the army at the age of fourteen, and had seen a great deal of service; he was weak and sickly in frame, but he had sound sense, fiery energy, and great resource. Quebec stands on a high table-land, which was thoroughly guarded by French troops, very

watchful, and admirably disciplined; and only one spot was left without a guard, as it was considered impossible to scale that part of the cliff. But Wolfe, who did not believe in the word impossible, sent his men up that almost perpendicular cliff during the night; and they struggled up in single file by the help of boughs and stumps of trees, or holding on to the corner of a rock. When day broke, a compact army stood, as if by magic, on the heights of Abraham, the high table-land of Quebec. The French general, the Marquis Montcalm, could not believe the news. Wolfe drew up his little army on the plateau, and told them not to fire till they saw the whites of the Frenchmen's eyes. Almost at the commencement of the action he received a shot in the wrist, but tied it up with his handkerchief. He put himself at the head of his grenadiers,[1] when another ball struck him in a vital part. He still pressed on. A third ball hit him in the breast, and he fell. He was carried to the rear; and, while he lay there, an officer exclaimed, "They run." "Who run?" asked the dying man, raising himself on his elbow. "The enemy, the enemy." "Thank God; I am satisfied," said Wolfe, and fell back dead.—The French general died next morning, and the fortress capitulated on the 18th of September 1760; and within a year the whole of the French colony of Canada was in the hands of the British.

**Capture of Quebec 1759.**

**Canada in British hands 1760.**

(i) "In breaking through the line with which France had striven to check the westward advance of the English colonists, Pitt had unconsciously changed the history of the world."—GREEN.

(ii) "Foremost among those who scaled the cliff was one of the new Highland regiments"—raised according to the plan for the Pacification of the Highlands.

**11. The Seven Years' War.**—Frederick the Great of Prussia still held Silesia; France, Russia, and Poland were on the side of Maria Theresa; but George II., who feared for his Hanoverian dominions, made an alliance with Frederick. Thus was Britain drawn into the Seven Years' War. The people considered themselves as enslaved to Hanover; and the man they looked to for help, William Pitt, was too much disliked by the king to be long in power. "I am sure," he said to himself, "that I can save this country, and that no one else can." He was again accepted as

[1] Men who march in front of a regiment, armed with *grenades* or small bombshells. The grenades are now out of use, but the name remains.

minister by the king in 1757; he pushed on the war with vigour; successes both by sea and land were quickly gained; the French were beaten at Minden in 1759 by British and Hanoverian troops, and Admiral Hawke completely destroyed the French fleet in the Bay of Quiberon, on the coast of Brittany. The constant success of his schemes raised Pitt to the highest summit of power. No one had the courage to oppose him, his power over the House of Commons was absolute, and the members were always ready to vote him as much money as he asked for.

**12. India.**—The rich and extensive peninsula of Hindustan was ruled over at this time by native princes; but here and there were colonies founded by the English, the French, the Dutch, and the Portuguese. The East India Companies of the English and the French were, however, by far the strongest among the European powers. In fact, the English Company was almost a sovereign power; it had an army, judges, and law courts, subjects, and the power of making alliances with Indian princes; and, above all, it had a monopoly of trade. Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry—then the central station of the French—had formed the scheme of conquering the whole of India for France; and, as one means towards that end, he set about intriguing with the native princes against the English. But he found a strong and terrible rival in Robert Clive, a young Englishman who had entered the East India Company's service as a clerk, but had joined their army and distinguished himself greatly by his brilliant courage and fertile resource. Clive broke the power of the French, made himself master of the Carnatic,[1] and took full possession of Bengal by his splendid victory of Plassey on the 23d of June 1757. The Nabob of Bengal was Surajah-ad-Dowlah, a boyish tyrant, of a character fiendish and cruel even for India, who had the year before taken the English settlement at Calcutta. By his orders one hundred and forty-six prisoners were driven at the point of the bayonet into a room twenty feet square, with no inlet for air except two small gratings, and left there without water for the whole of an Indian summer night to endure the tortures of thirst, and to die of suffocation. When the door was opened in the morning, only twenty-three wretched persons

**The Battle of Plassey 1757.**

**The Black Hole of Calcutta 1756.**

[1] The Carnatic is a vast district in India—south-west of Madras.

were alive; and these tottered or were lifted out of their cage—known in history as "**The Black Hole of Calcutta**"—more like corpses than living beings. This terrible cruelty was fully avenged by Clive in the Battle of Plassey. Though he had only about three thousand men, of whom only eight hundred were British troops, he put to flight and utter rout an army of sixty thousand men and fifty cannon, with a loss on his own side of only twenty white men and fifty sepoys.[1]

(i) "With the victory of Plassey began in fact the Empire of England in the East." —GREEN.

(ii) Pitt called Clive "a heaven-born general"; and Macaulay says of him that he was "not a man to do anything by halves."

**13. Death of George II.**—In the midst of all these successes, the reign of George II. came suddenly to a close on the 25th of October 1760. The king had risen at his usual hour of six, had taken his cup of chocolate, and had been left by his attendants, when from the next room a heavy fall was heard, and then a deep groan. When they went in, they found the old man dead: he had died of rupture of the heart. He was seventy-six. He had always been a methodical, hard-working man, with a fixed time for every duty,—and a large share of his time went to the business of the State,—very parsimonious, stubborn, and passionate, but brave and persevering.

**Death of George II. 1760.**

"His habits were methodical to a point of mechanical regularity that drove those who had to live with him almost mad. His drives in the afternoon, his commerce and backgammon at night, his *levees* and audiences in the morning, were all fixed to the instant, so that, as the weary courtiers complained, with an almanack for the day of the week and a watch for the hour of the day, everybody would know precisely what point in the mill-horse track the Court was passing."—MORLEY.

"Whenever we hear of dapper George at war, it is certain that he demeaned himself like a little man of valour. At Dettingen his horse ran away with him, and with difficulty was stopped from carrying him into the enemy's lines. The king, dismounting from the fiery quadruped, said bravely, 'Now, I know I shall not run away'; and placed himself at the head of the foot, drew his sword, and calling out to his own men to come on, in bad English, but with the most famous pluck and spirit. In '45, when the Pretender was at Derby, and many people began to look pale, the king never lost his courage—not he. 'Pooh! don't talk to me that stuff!' he said, like a gallant little prince as he was."—THACKERAY.

**14. The Work of Parliament.**—George II.'s **First Parliament** met in 1727 under the administration of Lord Townshend and Sir Robert Walpole; but produced no bill of any importance.—The **Second Parliament** met in 1728, with **Walpole** at the head of the Government. It passed an important act—the **Act of Indemnity,**

[1] Sepoys = native soldiers under the command of British officers.

which enabled Nonconformists to hold office. It passed an Act even more important from its influence on social affairs and the more speedy and sure distribution of justice—the act which permitted all law proceedings to be written out in English instead of in the old crabbed and sometimes quite inadequate "Law-Latin."—The **Third Parliament** met in 1735, and sat for six years; but its only performance worth notice was the passing of the **Gin Act**.—The **Fourth Parliament** met in 1741. Walpole was defeated on the question of a disputed election, and resigned all his offices. **Lord Wilmington** came into power. He was quickly succeeded by **Henry Pelham**, who brought in and passed the **Place Bill**—a measure of the highest importance for the purity of administration, as it excluded from the House of Commons clerks and officers of the public departments, persons who were generally mere creatures of the court, and who voted just as they were bid. In 1744 Pelham formed the "Broad Bottom Administration," which received this name from the fact that it included men from every section of the great Whig Party.—The **Fifth Parliament** met in 1747, and passed an Act for the **Pacification of the Highlands**. This act had the very salutary effect of putting an end once for all to the chronic condition of petty warfare in which the Celtic population of the Highlands lived. It also passed an act for the **Reformation of the Calendar**, by which "eleven days were dropped" between the 2d and the 14th September 1752.—The **Sixth Parliament**, which met in the year 1754, had, as Prime Ministers, the Duke of Devonshire and the Duke of Newcastle (the brother of Henry Pelham, who died in 1754), but **William Pitt** was the leading spirit in both administrations. In 1757 Pitt brought in and carried a bill for the establishment of a **National Militia**; and he further made use of the opportunity given him by this bill to enrol regiments from the Highlands, and thus to enlist on the side of the existing government and dynasty the aye-ready loyalty of the Highland people of Scotland.

(i) The **Act of Indemnity** was for those who had broken the Test and Corporation Acts. It was an annual bill: Walpole was not yet strong enough to make it permanent.

(ii) The **Gin Act** put a duty of 20s. on each gallon of gin, and fixed the annual licence of the retailer at £50. It proved to be an excellent source of income to the Government.

(iii) The question of a disputed election came, at this time, before the House of

Commons itself, sitting as a Committee; and such questions were always fought on party lines. Hence, if the government happened to be defeated on an election question, the Ministry had to resign.

(iv) The Scottish Highlanders were obliged (a) to give up their arms; (b) to cease wearing their national dress; and (c) the rule and jurisdiction of the Highland chief over their clans was taken away and compensation granted them.

> "Even in peace, the power of ravaging the estates of a neighbour or of the Lowlands, by letting loose upon them troops of banditti, kennelled like blood-hounds in some obscure valley till their services were required, gave to every petty chieftain the means of spreading robbery and desolation through the country at his pleasure."—SIR W. SCOTT.

(v) **Pitt** had always opposed the hiring of Hanoverian and Hessian troops. (Then troops were bought and sold like cattle by their sovereign-masters and dukes.) George II. dismissed Pitt for this; but, as Newcastle could not form a ministry without Pitt, George was obliged to receive him. Pitt raised 30,000 men, and got some of his very best regiments from the Highlands.

**15. Great Men.**—In the early part of George II.'s reign, and till the death of Queen Caroline, **Walpole** was by far the most powerful statesman in the kingdom. He and **Queen Caroline** directed the whole policy of the country. After him, **Henry Pelham** was the ablest Prime Minister; and, among the younger men who were destined to make a mark in the history of our country, both during this and the following reign, by far the most distinguished were **William Pitt** (afterwards Earl of Chatham, and often called "The Elder Pitt") and **Henry Fox**, afterwards Lord Holland. **Bolingbroke** and **Pulteney** were able leaders of the Opposition. In war at home, **Prince Charles Edward** and **William, Duke of Cumberland**, showed ability on the two opposite sides; while at sea, **Anson** and **Rodney** upheld the fame of the British flag. **Clive** in India and **Wolfe** in Canada showed consummate military ability; and both widened and strengthened the bounds of the growing British empire. In the field of religion, **John Wesley** and **Charles Wesley** were the leaders and inspirers of a most zealous and thoughtful body within the Church of England; though it afterwards developed into the Methodist body without.

(i) "The miserable incapacity of the Duke of Newcastle only called to the front the genius of William Pitt. . . . 'Mr. Pitt does everything,' wrote Horace Walpole, 'and the Duke gives everything.' . . . 'No man,' said a soldier of the time, 'ever entered Mr. Pitt's closet who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in.' Ill-combined as were his earlier expeditions, many as were his failures, he roused a temper in the nation at large which made ultimate defeat impossible. . . . The groundwork of Pitt's character was an intense and passionate pride; but it was a pride which kept him from stooping to the level of the men who had so long held England in their hands. He was the first statesman since the Restoration who set the example of a purely public spirit. Keen as was his love of power, no man ever

refused office so often, or accepted it with so strict a regard to the principles he professed. 'I will not go to Court,' he replied to an offer which was made him, 'if I may not bring the Constitution with me.'"—GREEN.

"If you and I had been alive then, and strolling down Milsom Street (Bath)—hush! we should have taken our hats off, as an awful, long, lean, gaunt figure, swathed in flannels, pushed by in its chair, and a livid face looked out from the window,—great fierce eyes staring from under a bushy, powdered wig, a terrible form, a terrible Roman nose,—and we whisper to one another, 'There he is! There's the great Commoner! There is Mr. Pitt!"—THACKERAY ("THE FOUR GEORGES").

(ii) In the two administrations of 1757, though the Duke of Devonshire, and after him the Duke of Newcastle, was Prime Minister, Pitt, who held one of the offices of Secretary of State, was the real moving power. "This first administration of Chatham—the greatest and most glorious, perhaps, that England had ever yet known—was an administration not always, indeed, free from haste or error in its schemes, and no doubt owing its success in part to the favour of fortune and to the genius of generals; but still, after every allowance that can be justly required, an administration pre-eminently strong at home and victorious abroad—an administration which even now is pointed at with equal applause by contending and opposite parties, eager to claim its principles as their own."—MAHON.

William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, was called "The Elder Pitt" to distinguish him from his son William, who was called "The Younger Pitt." The Elder Pitt was also called "The Great Commoner," because his strength lay, not in Parliament, but in the support of the people at large. "It is the people who have sent me here," Pitt once said at a Cabinet Meeting when the Peers in the Cabinet were opposing his measures.

**16. Social Facts.**—Art revived during this reign in England; and the noble grace and sweet humanity of **Sir Joshua Reynolds** still live to charm us in his pictures. The strong English sense of **William Hogarth** has depicted for us the darker and grosser sides of life in London with a tragic and realistic power that can never cease to attract and to astonish.—The taste for literature continued to grow; and in 1731, the **Gentleman's Magazine**—a monthly journal which is still in existence—began to appear. Manufactures, too, were growing in importance—especially those of silk and woollens. Cotton, which was destined to change the very landscape of the north of England, began to become known. Metal works were established in Birmingham and Sheffield; and silver-plated goods were commonly known under the name of Sheffield plate. The discovery, in 1740, that iron could be worked with common coal instead of—as before—with charcoal only, opened wide the doors for industry, enterprise, and wealth. Agriculture was improving in many directions. When Lord Townshend left the ministry in 1730, he set to work to grow turnips; and his example was widely followed. Before his time, a field had to lie fallow for a year after a crop of wheat; from his time, with the introduction of turnips and other root-crops, rotation in agriculture became possible.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE II.'s REIGN.

**1727. Accession of George II.**

1730. Rise of Methodism under John and Charles Wesley and George Whitfield.

1731. (a) Britain guarantees the "Pragmatic Sanction."

(b) Use of Latin in our Law-pleadings and Statute-Books abolished.

1736. Porteous Riots in Edinburgh.

1737. (a) The Prince of Wales heads the opposition to Walpole.

(b) **Death of Queen Caroline.**

1738. "Jenkins's Ear."

**1739. War with Spain.**

**1742. Walpole resigns.**

(a) Lord Wilmington Prime Minister.

(b) Walpole goes to the House of Lords.

1743. Battle of Dettingen.

Last appearance of a king of G. Britain on the field of battle.

1744. Pelham Prime Minister.

(a) War with France.

(b) The "Broad-Bottom Administration."

(c) Invading fleet of the "Young Pretender" wrecked.

(d) The Battle of Fontenoy (1745).

**1745. "The Forty-Five."**

(a) Battle of Prestonpans.

(b) Prince Charles reaches Derby.

(c) Prince Charles retreats to Scotland.

1746. Battle of Falkirk.
**Battle of Culloden.**

(a) Escape of Prince Charles.

(b) Act of Indemnity for treason.

1748. **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle** puts an end to the War of the Austrian Succession.

1750. Consolidation of various kinds of stock into the "Three Per Cents."

1751. (a) Death of Frederick, Prince of Wales.

(b) "New Style" authorised

1753. British Museum begun.

1754. Duke of Newcastle Prime Minister.

1756. Beginning of the **Seven Years' War** with France.

(a) Admiral Byng declines to fight at Minorca.

(b) Duke of Devonshire Prime Minister, with **Pitt** as the real head.

1757. (a) Byng shot.

(b) Pitt dismissed and re-appointed

1758. Large subsidy to Prussia.

**1759. Capture of Quebec by Wolfe.**

Battle of Minden.

**1760. Death of George II.**

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

1740. (a) Accession of Maria Theresa to the throne of Austria

(b) Accession of Frederick the Great to the throne of Prussia.

**1741. War of the Austrian Succession.**

1751. Clive repulses the French at **Arcot.**

1755. **Fort Duquesne** on the Ohio.
War between the British and the French colonists.

**1756. The Seven Years' War.**

Alliance between England and Prussia.
**The Black Hole of Calcutta.**

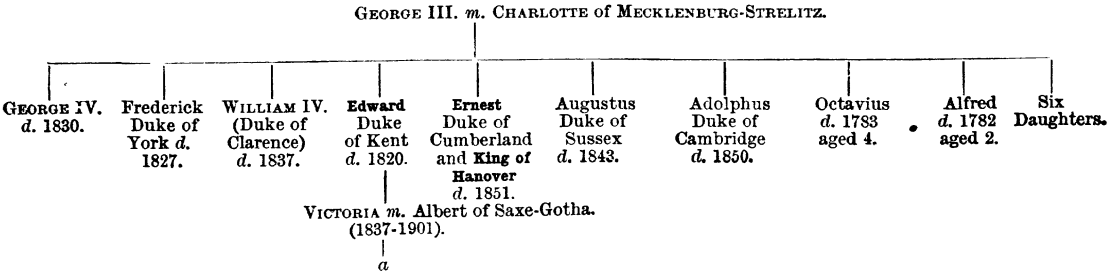
**1757. Battle of Plassey.**

1758. Taking of Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg).

**1759. Capture of Quebec.**

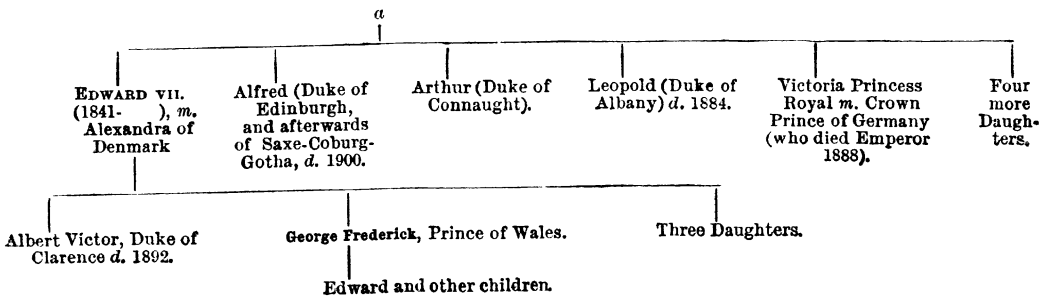
**1760. Battle of Wandewash.**
Fall of French power in India.
**Canada seized by the British.**

# GEORGE THE THIRD'S FAMILY.




(i) Of the six daughters, the eldest, Charlotte, married the King of Wirtemberg. The third became Princess of Hesse-Homburg.

(ii) William IV. was not only King of Great Britain and Ireland, he was also King of Hanover. On his death, as a woman could not succeed to the Hanoverian Crown, the succession passed to the fifth son, Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, and Britain was saved by this from further embroilment in the political affairs of Germany.



# CHAPTER III.

# GEORGE THE THIRD

Born 1738. Succeeded (at the age of 22) in 1760. Died 1820.
Reigned 60 years.

GEORGE III. was the eldest son of Frederick, Prince of Wales (son of George II. and Augusta of Saxe-Gotha. He was born in Norfolk House, St. James's Square, London. The young prince passed his youth among women and pages, kept by his mother in complete ignorance of the outside world. He married the Princess Charlotte, sister of the reigning duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. They had fifteen children—nine sons and six daughters. George III. died in 1820—six days after the death of his fourth son, Edward, Duke of Kent, the father of Queen Victoria. George was succeeded by his eldest son, George IV; and next by his third son, William, Duke of Clarence.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS: **WILLIAM PITT** (Earl of Chatham); **Earl of Bute**; **George Grenville**; the **Marquis of Rockingham**; **Duke of Grafton**; **Lord North**; **WILLIAM PITT** (the younger)

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| FRANCE: | GERMANY (Emperor of) | SPAIN: |
|---|---|---|
| LOUIS XV. to 1774. | FRANCIS I. to 1765. | CHARLES III. to 1788. |
| LOUIS XVI. deposed 1792. | JOSEPH II. to 1790. | CHARLES IV. to 1808. |
| Republic to 1799. | LEOPOLD II. to 1792. | FERDINAND VII. deposed 1808. |
| NAPOLEON I. Consul to 1804. | FRANCIS II. to 1804. | JOSEPH BUONAPARTE to 1814. |
| NAPOLEON EMPEROR to 1815. | (End of the HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE in Germany.) | FERDINAND VII. to 1833. |
| LOUIS XVIII. King to 1824. | | |

**1. George III., 1760-1820.**—George III. was only two-and-twenty when he succeeded his grandfather on the throne of Britain. He

was good-looking, amiable in manners, pure in character, and full of good intentions; and it made him very welcome to the English people that he was "a born Englishman." In his first speech to Parliament, he said that "he gloried in the name of Briton." But he had been poorly educated; his natural taste led him to call Shakespeare "wretched stuff"; and he was as obstinate as he was narrow-minded. He hated the great mind and noble character of Pitt; the Marquis of Bute had been his tutor, and the Marquis of Bute he made his Prime Minister. His mother had constantly exhorted him in his youth to have his own way when he came to the throne; "George," she kept saying,—"George, be a king." His idea was, like Charles I., to rule the people for their own good, but entirely by his own will; and he accordingly made up his mind to rule, in spite of ministers, Parliament, and people,—a mode of government which in twenty years lost Britain the great and wealthy colonies of America. He was a good man, but he was not a good king. About a year after his accession, he married a bright, lively, and shrewd young woman, the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

(i) "'George, be a king!' were the words which his mother was for ever croaking in the ears of her son: and a king the simple, stubborn, affectionate, bigoted man tried to be. He did his best; he worked according to his lights; what virtue he knew, he tried to practise; what knowledge he could master, he strove to acquire. He was for ever drawing maps, for example, and learned geography with no small care and industry. He knew all about the family histories and genealogies of his gentry. He knew the whole 'Army List'; and all the facings, and the exact number of the buttons, and all the tags and laces, and the cut of all the cocked hats, pigtails and gaiters in his army."—THACKERAY.

"Rain, or shine, the king rode every day for hours; poked his red face into hundreds of cottages round about, and showed that shovel hat and Windsor uniform to farmers, to pig-boys, to old women making apple dumplings; to all sorts of people, gentle and simple. . . . On one occasion he played the part of King Alfred, and turned a piece of meat with a string at a cottager's house. When the old woman came home, she found a paper with an enclosure of money, and a note written by the royal pencil: 'Five guineas to buy a Jack.'"—THACKERAY.

(ii) "The influence of Bute was recognised in the popular cry of 'No Scotch favourites!' and the uncertainty of the final preponderance of the rivals for power (the Earl of Bute, the Duke of Newcastle, and William Pitt) was expressed in the joking question whether the king would burn in his chamber Scotch coal, Newcastle coal, or Pit-coal."—KNIGHT.

**2. The Peace of Paris and John Wilkes.**—The kings of France, Spain, and the Two Sicilies, all of them Bourbons, had entered into an agreement which was known as the "Family Compact," for the purpose of mutual defence. War was declared against them by

Great Britain; Havannah in the West and Manilla in the East Indies were captured; but Lord Bute made haste in 1763 to patch up a peace, by which we were to keep Canada and some islands in the West Indies, and to receive Minorca and Florida from Spain. In the king's speech to Parliament this peace was styled "honourable and beneficial." But a member of Parliament, called John Wilkes, who was also the editor of a newspaper known as the *North Briton*, denounced the ministers for having in this statement "put a lie into the mouth of the king." The Government made up their minds to prosecute Wilkes; and this was the beginning of a contest between the Government and the popular party, which lasted for eleven years—in which Wilkes, a bold, bad man, had nevertheless the right on his side, and gained the victory. Wilkes was arrested and imprisoned, but he forced the Secretary of State to pay £1000 for his illegal arrest; was returned to Parliament three times by the county of Middlesex, and as often rejected by the House; was made Alderman, Sheriff, and, lastly, Mayor of London, and at length compelled the Parliament to allow him to take his seat.

**The Treaty of Paris 1763.**

(i) The **Seven Years' War** had cost us £60,000,000. But Pitt boasted that there were two things which ought to be regarded as offsets against this: (a) that, under his administration, commerce had flourished in company with war; and (b) the raising in our people's hearts of "that spirit which has made us what we are."

(ii) **Wilkes** was arrested under a "General Warrant"—that is, a warrant in which no name is mentioned, and thus the officers can arrest any one whom they suspect. Long debates on the legality of such warrants were carried on in the House: one debate lasted eleven hours; another, seventeen. The Whigs hunted up votes wherever they could find them. "You would have laughed," says Horace Walpole (son of Sir Robert), "to see the spectres produced on both sides. Votes were brought down in flannels and blankets till the floor of the House looked like the pool of Bethesda."

**3. The State of Parliament.**—It was not that the people were fond of Wilkes, but that he represented a cause and a hope—the hope that Parliament would one day really represent the British people. As it was, the House of Commons, which excluded all reporters, sat with closed doors, and possessing boundless authority, represented only itself. Seats were bought and sold in the open market, as much as £4000 being frequently given for one; and, in the House itself, votes were bought and sold for money, for titles, or for preferment. An office was opened at the Treasury for the bribery of Members;

and £25,000 are said to have been spent upon procuring votes in a single day. Pitt himself declared that the House represented not the nation, but "ruined towns, noble families, wealthy individuals, and foreign potentates." Even George III. himself used his royal revenue to purchase seats and to buy votes. Not one person in fifty throughout the kingdom was in possession of the franchise.

(i) Chatham said: "It is not in the little dependent boroughs, it is in the great cities and counties that the strength and vigour of the Constitution resides; and by them alone will the Constitution be honestly and firmly defended."

(ii) The price for a small borough in the General Election of 1768 was £4000. Oxford offered to sell itself for £7500—this money to be used to liquidate the Corporation Debt; the Mayor and Aldermen were thrown into prison; but they went on with their bargaining notwithstanding.

**4. The American War of Independence** (i).—Our American colonies had been during this reign growing in wealth, power, and population. They contained about two millions and a half of people —a people with much of the stubbornness, more than the pride, and all of the self-respect of Britons born; and most of the colonies were larger than many of the kingdoms of Western Europe. The New England States had been founded by the Puritans; the Carolinas, Virginia (which was originally founded by Raleigh), and Maryland in the south, by the exiled Cavaliers and Roman Catholics; and the great central States of Pennsylvania and New York by the Quakers and the Dutch. Each colony had a governor appointed by the Crown, and a separate charter.—The Government had attempted to tax these colonies in order to defray in part the cost of protecting them; but the colonists had long advocated and had come to believe in the doctrine that they ought not to be taxed unless they were represented in Parliament. Representation with taxation was their political creed; "No taxation without representation," their motto and their cry. If they could not buy goods without being taxed, they would not buy them at all. The "Sons of Liberty" would wear no broadcloth, and "the Daughters of Liberty" would drink no tea if that tea had to pay a duty of threepence a pound. The first attempt to tax them was contained in the **Stamp Act**; but the colonists declared they would buy no stamped paper. They erected gallows and kindled bonfires beside them, brought the Commissioners of Stamps under these gallows, burnt the stamps

**The Stamp Act 1765.**

in the fires, and gave the Commissioners their choice of resigning or of swinging from the "fatal tree." The Stamp Act was repealed; and some small duties put in its place. These again were withdrawn; but a small duty of threepence a pound was levied on tea—not for the purpose of raising a revenue, but simply by way of asserting the supreme right of the British Government. But some forty or fifty Bostonians, dressed in paint and feathers as Mohawk Indians, went on board the tea-ships lying in Boston harbour and emptied every ounce of tea into the water. In consequence of "the Boston tea-party," as it was called, the city lost her charter; her harbour was closed; and the custom-house was transferred to Salem (1774).

(i) The difficulties of the American colonists were: (a) They were not allowed to buy anything except from the mother-country. (b) Their exports to Britain were smaller than their imports from Britain—hence they were always in debt to us. (c) They had been in the habit of trading with the West Indies and the Spanish colonies of South America—against the law of Spain; and Grenville regarded this as smuggling, and stopped it. (d) Thus their trade being stopped, they were deprived of their means of paying their debts to us. (e) The Paper-money of the colonies was put down; and the colonists compelled to pay in ready money at the time when they had less than ever.

British men-of-war were employed in all the seas to stop this "smuggling"; and British naval officers were turned into custom-house officers of the king of Spain.

(ii) The case for the Government was: (a) That all other countries taxed *their* colonies. (b) That the war for which the colonists were asked to pay their quota had been for their benefit.

**5. The American War of Independence** (ii).—General Gage was commander of the British forces in America. The colonists organised a militia, armed with every kind of weapon they could lay their hands on, but called, from their readiness to take the field on the shortest notice, "Minute Men." The Battle of **Bunker's Hill** was fought, and a determined struggle had begun. General Gage lost almost every action with which he had to do, by the consistent and undeviating application of the simple principle of being always a day too late; and General Burgoyne was sent out to supersede him.—The colonists started a navy also; Ezekiel Hopkins, a New England seaman, was put in command, and the flag he hoisted held the device of a pine-tree and a rattlesnake curled round it prepared to strike, with the daring motto "Don't tread upon me."—The great and good George Washington, a quiet country

**Bunker's Hill 1775.**

gentleman of Virginia, was called by the Assembly of the colonists to be Commander-in-chief of their ragged and ill-fed army. After his death, his countrymen knew him to be of all Americans "the man first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-countrymen." The war lasted seven years.

(i) The first engagement was a slight skirmish at **Lexington.**

(ii) **George Washington** was a strong, silent Englishman, calm and cool outwardly, but full of an enthusiasm which he could control in himself, and which he could also impart to others.

**6. The United States.**—At first the Congress demanded only a redress of grievances; but, on the **Fourth of July, 1776,** they publicly declared their independence of Britain, and formed themselves into a republic under the title of the **United States of America.** General Burgoyne was compelled to capitulate at Saratoga; and France acknowledged the new Republic, while Spain lent it her secret aid. Holland and the Northern Powers—Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark—formed what they called an *Armed Neutrality*; and thus Britain found herself standing alone in the world, and at war with the most powerful nations in it. For several months the united French and Spanish fleet of sixty ships rode masters of the English Channel. Lord Cornwallis was sent out to lead the British army; and in 1781 he surrendered to an army of Americans and Frenchmen at Yorktown. This settled the dispute; and even King George had to recognise the independence of the United States. It was the battle of the New against the Old, and even in the style of fighting this was seen. The British troops were moved forward in slow and formal fashion, as on parade, halted every few minutes, and

**Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776.**




The Original United States.

had their ranks dressed with the utmost exactness, while all the time from behind wall, and tree, and turf, and hillock was pouring in on them a deadly hail of shot from the ragged riflemen of the "Continental army." Thus the Continentals picked off the "Britishers" by scores, and escaped themselves without a scratch.

(i) So strong was the feeling in favour of remaining joined to the Mother Country, that the **Declaration of Independence** was only carried by a majority of one. Even this majority was got by Dickinson, the author of the "Letters of a Pennsylvanian Farmer," consenting to withdraw.

(ii) George III., when receiving the first American ambassador, said: "I will be very frank with you. I was the last to conform to the separation; but the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an Independent Power. Let the circumstances of language, religion, and blood have their full effect."

(iii) The original United States were 13 in number.

**7. The No-Popery Riots, 1780.**—An Act had been carried through Parliament which abolished the penal laws hitherto in force against the Catholics; and this seems to have made the enthusiastic Protestants of Scotland angry and suspicious. The feeling spread into England. The leader of the movement in London was Lord George Gordon, a half-crazy member of Parliament, who led his followers—to the number of about sixty thousand—into Palace Yard, to the very door of the House of Commons. He would have led them into the House, but Colonel Gordon, a near relation of his own, threatened to plunge his sword into his body if he should attempt anything of the kind. London was in the hands of the mob for nearly a week; it was on fire in thirty-six places. Catholic chapels were sacked and burnt; the shops of Catholic tradesmen were pillaged; and the houses of those known to be favourable to the Catholics were broken into and gutted. Newgate was burnt down, and the prisoners released; the Bank of England was attacked; the house of the Chief Justice, Lord Mansfield, was gutted, and the contents of his splendid law-library thrown into the flames; and society seemed wrecked and given up to the lowest characters and the most villainous criminals. No one was safe who did not chalk "No Popery" on his doors and wear a blue cockade. At length the king took vigorous action; the rioters were attacked in the streets, and about four hundred shot;

**Gordon Riots 1780.**

Lord George was thrown into the Tower; and many of his followers were tried and put to death.

(i) The lobby of the House of Commons was filled with a furious mob. Lord George actually pointed out to the mob for vengeance those members who were favourable to the Catholic claims. At length, Colonel Gordon, a cousin of his own, went up to him and said: "My Lord, do you intend to bring your rascally adherents into the House of Commons? If you do, the first man of them that enters, I will plunge my sword not into him, but into your body!"

(ii) **Lord George Gordon** was acquitted. He was converted to Judaism, and died—a Jew—of the gaol fever caught in Newgate, into which he had been thrown for libelling the Queen of France.

(iii) There is a brilliant and most vivid account of the Gordon Riots in Dickens's *Barnaby Rudge.*

**8. British Successes.**—It was only in America that the British Government met with defeat. General Eliott held Gibraltar against the Spaniards and French during a siege of three years and some months, in which he drove off the sea attack by red-hot shot. Rodney gained a brilliant victory over the French fleet in the West Indies in 1782; and a French invasion of Jersey was gallantly beaten back by Major Pierson, a young English officer, who fell in the moment of victory. Peace between France and Great Britain, and between us and the United States, was signed in 1783, and Minorca and Florida were handed back to Spain, while Canada, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the country round Hudson's Bay were left as part of the British Empire.

**Siege of Gibraltar 1779-82**

(i) The French commander built ten immense floating batteries, with walls of iron 7 feet thick, shot-proof and bomb-proof; and he had altogether 400 guns. The British had only 100. Eliott, however, kept up a steady stream of red-hot shot on the floating batteries.

(ii) **Rodney** for the first time employed the tactics which were afterwards used with success by Duncan, Howe, and Nelson. This was to fight at close quarters, and to break the enemy's line wherever the smallest opening appeared.

(iii) The Peace was signed at Versailles. On the same day, the Treaty acknowledging the independence of the United States was signed by Great Britain at Paris.

**9. Fox and Pitt.**—The two great statesmen of the day were William Pitt and Charles James Fox. Pitt was the second son of the "Great Commoner," who was afterwards created Earl of Chatham. He was Chancellor of the Exchequer at the age of three-and-twenty, "when other men have not left off cricket;" and he was Prime

Minister at the age of twenty-four. "He will be one of the first men in Parliament," said a member to Charles Fox, when Pitt had concluded his first speech in the House of Commons in 1781. "He is so already," was Fox's reply. Pitt was the haughtiest of men; he never smiled; he cared nothing about ingratiating himself with others; but his eloquence held the House of Commons as with a chain, and he ruled supreme by his will. "How great the qualities were," says a great historian, "which lay beneath his haughty exterior no one knew; nor had any one guessed how soon this 'boy,' as his rivals mockingly styled him, was to crush every opponent." Fox, on the other hand, the rival of Pitt, was a man of great ability and eloquence, of the most generous and kindly disposition, but a great gambler, and a boon companion of the unworthy and debauched Prince of Wales. These two men were the leaders of the two great parties in the House,—Pitt of the Tories, and Fox of the Whigs. Edmund Burke, the great political thinker and orator, was at first on the side of Fox; but these two eminent men were afterwards estranged from each other, and their friendship broken. Pitt governed the country, from 1783, for eighteen years,—a much longer period of power than had been held by any minister since Walpole.

William Pitt (the younger) was laid in Westminster Abbey in the grave of Chatham, his father. "What grave," exclaimed Lord Wellesley, "contained such a father and such a son! What sepulchre embosoms the remains of so much human excellence and glory!"

**10. The French Revolution.**—The course of British politics was very strongly influenced by the beginning of a crisis, which even at the end of the nineteenth century, had not yet brought its results to a close, and which is generally known by the name of the French Revolution. The nobility and clergy of France possessed enormous and unjust privileges, among others practical freedom from taxation; the poorer classes were wretched, starving, and oppressed; and the new republican ideas, which the French troops had brought back from America, began to ferment in the midst of French society. The States-General, a body which had not met since the year 1614, was called together; and, like our own Long Parliament, it gradually absorbed the power of the Crown and its ministers. In a short time the king, Louis XVI., was a prisoner, the state prison of the Bastille was

**The French Revolution begins 1789.**

levelled with the ground, the privileges of the nobility and clergy abolished, and a Republic established. In England men's hearts leaped up at the news, and the greatest hopes were cherished of a new era and new happiness for the nations. "How much," cried Fox, "is this the greatest event that ever happened in the world; and how much the best!" "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive!" exclaimed Wordsworth in one of his poems; "but to be young was very heaven!" Then Louis and his queen, Marie Antoinette, were beheaded (in 1793) by the guillotine; a Reign of Terror began, in which about fourteen hundred persons were executed in five weeks; the Christian religion was formally abolished; and a war of classes and opinions raged all over France.

(i) The Republic was established on the 22d of September 1792, which was called "the Year One."

(ii) It was Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution" that changed the current of public opinion in Britain. Burke had always had an abhorrence of abstractions in politics—such as the "Rights of Man,"—"Equality," etc., had always thought an aristocracy necessary; and, knowing how slowly institutions are built up and how easy it is to destroy them, had always felt a horror of innovations.

(a) "The equilibrium of the constitution," said Burke, "has something so delicate about it, that the least displacement may destroy it. It is a difficult and dangerous matter even to touch so complicated a machine."

(b) Coleridge says: "The extravagantly false and flattering picture which Burke gave of the French nobility and hierarchy has always appeared to me the greatest defect of his, in so many respects, invaluable work."

(iii) There is a very vivid account of the horrors of the French Revolution in Dickens's *Tale of Two Cities.*

**11. War with France.**—Pitt was at first inclined to leave France to manage its own affairs, but the French leaders showed a strong desire to spread their principles by force of arms, and to make proselytes of other nations; and thus war broke out in 1793 between France and Britain. This war raged for twenty-two years; and gradually France found all Europe arrayed against it—Lord Howe gained the famous victory of the 1st of June 1794, over the French fleets off Ushant,—a victory in which the British did all they could to save the lives of their drowning enemies, although, only five days before, the French Government had proclaimed that no quarter was to be given to either Englishman or Hanoverian.—In 1797, Sir John

Jervis with only fifteen sail of the line to the enemy's twenty-five, defeated, off **Cape St. Vincent**, the united fleets of France and Spain; and in this action a thin, haggard little man, with the look and manner of an eager school-boy, called Commodore Horatio Nelson, took two ships and laid the foundation of the immortal fame of our greatest British sailor. In October of the same year, Admiral Duncan beat the Dutch off **Camperdown**. The Dutch had formed a Republic at the instigation and order of France.—With all these victories, there was great discontent in the British navy. The sailors were dissatisfied with their pay, their food, their berths on board, and their management. A mutiny broke out in the Channel fleet at Spithead, which was quieted by Lord Howe, who came down to them with an Act securing them better wages and the king's pardon in his hands. A more terrible mutiny broke out at the Nore, which was not suppressed until the ringleaders had been arrested and hanged.

Cape St. Vincent and Camperdown 1797.

(i) "The battle of the first of June was useful to us beyond its immediate results. It gave confidence to the nation. . . . It was afterwards said that, if Nelson had been in the place of Howe, the probability is that the French would not have saved a single ship."—KNIGHT.

(ii) "**Nelson**, on this day as on subsequent occasions, saw that an implicit regard to the orders of his superior officers would prevent the accomplishment of a great object. The signal was given to tack. He saw that, by disobeying the signal, he could prevent a junction between some of the separated ships, who were manœuvring for that purpose. He instantly wore, and was consequently brought into action with seven of the largest vessels of the Spanish fleet."

(iii) "Duncan took the bold resolve to pass through the Dutch line, and thus to place himself between the enemy and their own shores. Soon after noon every ship of the British fleet had broken the enemy's line and was hotly engaged. The coast was covered for miles with thousands of spectators."—KNIGHT.

**12. Coalitions against France.**—Any land operations undertaken by the British against the French had been generally unsuccessful; and Pitt now went to work with British money to aid the Continental powers and to form coalitions against France. The **First Coalition** was formed between Britain, Austria, Prussia, Spain, and Holland, in 1793.—Nelson's great victory at the Nile enabled Pitt to form, in 1799, a **Second Coalition** against France, which was joined by Britain, Russia, Turkey, Austria, Portugal, and the Two Sicilies. The reply of France to that coalition was to make her most active

and able general, Napoleon Buonaparte, *First Consul* for ten years.—The **Third Coalition** was formed by Britain, also under the guidance of Pitt, with Russia, Austria, and Sweden, in the year 1805, after Buonaparte had been proclaimed Emperor of the French,[1] with the title of Napoleon the First.—When Pitt died in 1806, worn out with labour and anxiety, and "killed by the Battle of Austerlitz," it was said, a new and **Fourth Coalition** was formed against France by Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Saxony.

(i) "France was girt in by a ring of enemies: the Emperor, Prussia, Saxony, Sardinia, and Spain, were leagued in arms against her; and their efforts were seconded by civil war."—GREEN.

(ii) The crushing defeat of the Austrians at Austerlitz in 1805, and the overthrow of the Prussians at Jena in 1806 had made Napoleon master of nearly the whole of the Continent. Everything from the mouth of the Rhine to Naples was in his hands. But, in 1807, Russia and Prussia concluded with Napoleon the **Peace of Tilsit**; and Britain was left alone. Indeed, in this year, Russia declared war against Gt. Britain.

The Czar Alexander and the Emperor Napoleon met on a raft—as neutral ground—in the middle of the river Niemen at Tilsit. "I hate England as much as you do," said the Czar. "Then peace is made," replied Napoleon. And then the two potentates set to work to reconstruct the map of Europe.

**13. Napoleon and Nelson.**—The history of Europe for nearly twenty years at the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century is the history of Napoleon Buonaparte, the son of a Corsican lawyer, who was born at Ajaccio in 1769—the year which also saw the birth of Wellington. He first distinguished himself as an officer of artillery at the siege of Toulon, which he helped to recover from the hands of the British. From that time he gradually rose, seizing power after power, beating army after army, pulling down throne after throne, until he had risen to be Emperor of the French, and the whole of Western Europe lay at his feet.—In 1798, while as yet only a general under the French Convention, he undertook an expedition to Egypt, escaped from Nelson and the British fleet, and landed his troops in safety. But, after Buonaparte had landed, Nelson found the French ships lying in the Bay of Aboukir, under the shelter of a range of forts, attacked them at sunset, fought all night, and took or destroyed by far the larger part of the fleet. "It was not a victory," said Nelson; "it was a conquest." This was

[1] Not of *France*. He held that he ruled by the will of *Frenchmen*, of the *French* people. So Leopold was King of the *Belgians*; and King William of Prussia had himself proclaimed, in 1870, Emperor of the *Germans*. Mary was Queen of Scots.

the great **Battle of the Nile**, the first of August 1798. Nelson had received a severe wound in the head, and was carried below with his scalp hanging over his eyes. The surgeon left the patient then under his hands and ran up to attend to him. "No hurry," said Nelson; "I will take my turn with my brave fellows." It was this complete self-forgetfulness, this preference of public duty to private feelings, that made him the darling of the British navy.—Buonaparte received another check at **Acre** in 1799, when the gallant Sir Sydney Smith, at the head of a few seamen and marines, beat him back from the walls, and gave him the first reverse his arms had ever met with on land. The **Battle of Alexandria**, gained in 1801 by Sir Ralph Abercromby, compelled the French to evacuate Egypt; and, the year after, Great Britain made peace with France at Amiens. "It is a peace that everybody is glad of and nobody is proud of," said an observer. It was a short-lived peace, too; and war between these two great powers broke out once more. In retaliation for the seizure of French vessels without a formal declaration of war, Napoleon ordered the arrest of all British travellers in France between the ages of eighteen and sixty; and twelve thousand peaceful inhabitants of our islands were detained in that country, to their great sorrow and discomfort, for the next eleven years.

**The Battle of the Nile** 1798.

**Battle of Alexandria** 1801.

**Peace of Amiens** 1802.

(i) The most striking event in the Battle of the Nile was the blowing up of the French ship *L'Orient*. The ship was on fire; she was burning for an hour; the flames at length reached the magazine; and she was blown into the air. There was an awful silence on the sea. For ten minutes not a gun was fired by either fleet.

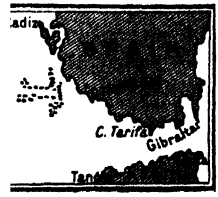
(ii) In this battle also Nelson went on his old maxim: "Lay a Frenchman close and you will beat him."

(iii) It was the Battle of Alexandria that first broke down the belief that Napoleon's troops were invincible. The famous 42d Highlanders distinguished themselves in this action.

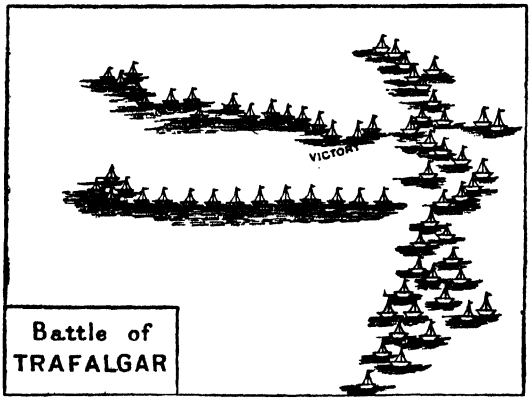
(iv) By the **Peace of Amiens** Britain restored to France, Spain, and Holland, all the conquests she had made except the islands of Ceylon and Trinidad. The king of Great Britain was also to give up the title of "King of France."

**14. Trafalgar and Austerlitz.**—In 1804 Napoleon assumed the title of *Emperor*, and meditated an invasion of Britain. He collected a large army and a vast flotilla at Boulogne, and was only

waiting for the junction of the French and Spanish fleets in the English Channel to carry out his purpose. Four hundred thousand volunteers—from John o' Groat's House to the Land's End—sprang to arms for the defence of the island. Lord Nelson, who had chased the French fleet across the Atlantic, suddenly found the combined ships of France and Spain, in full sail, off the low headland of Cape Trafalgar, and on the 21st of October 1805, he hoisted his celebrated signal, "England expects every man to do his duty," and attacked the combined fleet. The French and Spaniards had thirty-three sail of the line, five frigates, and two brigs; while the British fleet consisted of only twenty-seven first-rates, four frigates, a schooner, and a cutter. The British fleet attacked in two columns, one led by Nelson in the *Victory*, the other by Lord Collingwood in the *Royal Sovereign*. The battle was long, terrible, and bloody; but, ere it ceased, nineteen ships of the line had struck to the British flag. Nelson was shot through the shoulder, and died in a few hours, at the close of the engagement.—But within six weeks, Napoleon had made up for this terrible disaster by his brilliant victory of the 2d December 1805, over the Emperors of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz,—a victory which marked the highest point of his power, and which is said to have killed Pitt. This great statesman, pointing to the map of Europe, said: "Roll up that map; it will not be wanted these ten years." He died at the early age of forty-six.




Trafalgar October 21 1805.




Nelson's column led by the Victory; Collingwood's column is south of Nelson's.

Austerlitz Dec. 2 1805.

(i) Napoleon's army at Boulogne consisted of 130,000 men, 15,000 horses, and 600 guns. It was called the "Army of England." Its lines stretched more than three leagues—from Cape Alpreck to Cape Grisnez. The men and horses were practised daily in embarking and disembarking. Every man had his own boat and his fixed and numbered place. It was reckoned that the whole army could be put on board in two hours. But the French fleet was not ready; and Napoleon had to break up his camp and march his army into Germany.

Napoleon had a medal struck to commemorate the subjugation of England. On one side were the words: *Frappé à Londres.*

(ii) At **Trafalgar** Nelson carried out his old tactics of breaking the enemy's line and getting close to each ship. "No captain," he said, at the Council before the battle, "can do wrong who places his ship close alongside that of an enemy."

There was an illumination in London for the Battle of Trafalgar; but there was no rejoicing. "Every common person in the streets spoke first of their sorrow for Nelson, and then of the victory."

(iii) At the **Battle of Austerlitz** Napoleon defeated a hundred thousand Austrians and Russians, and took forty thousand prisoners.

Napoleon wrote to his brother: "A whole column threw itself into a lake, and the greater part of them were drowned. I fancy I still hear the cries of these wretches, whom it was impossible to save."

**15. Wellington.**—Arthur Wellesley, the rising young general, first distinguished himself in India, of which country his brother, the Marquess Wellesley, was Governor-General. In 1803 he had gained the famous **Battle of Assaye** over the powerful tribes of the Mahrattas; and the general opinion pointed to him as the man who could most equally and successfully grapple with Napoleon. That great Corsican had, by 1807, not only made himself Emperor of the French, King of Italy, and Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, but he had given thrones to three of his brothers, and duke-

**Vimiero 1808.** doms and principalities in numbers to his successful generals and marshals. He now wished to add Spain and Portugal to his empire; and the Peninsular War, a struggle which lasted six years, began in 1808. Sir Arthur Wellesley landed in Portugal, and defeated Marshal Junot at **Vimiero.** Sir John Moore also advanced into Spain, but, receiving no assistance from the

**Corunna 1809.** Spaniards, he was driven back to Corunna, to which port he executed a masterly retreat, though he himself fell, and was buried on the field of battle.

(i) The **Battle of Assaye** broke the power of the Mahratta chiefs. It was the 'bloodiest for its number" that Wellesley (Wellington) had ever seen. The Mahrattas were seven to one.

Wellington, many years after, wrote thus to a friend: "I was indebted for my success at Assaye to a very ordinary exercise of common sense. . . . I had to cross a river; my native guides

assured me that the river was impassable where I thought of crossing it. . . . I pushed forward ll I could see with my glass one village on the right or near bank of the river, and another village exactly opposite on the other bank; and I immediately said to myself that men could not have built two villages so close to one another, on opposite sides of a stream, without some habitual means of communication either by boats or a ford—most probably by the latter. My guides still persisted that there were neither; I marched for the river, found a passage, crossed my army over, and had no more to fear from the enemy's cloud of cavalry. And there I fought and won the battle—the bloodiest for the number that I ever saw; and this was all from the common sense of guessing that men did not build villages on opposite sides of a stream without some means of communication between them."

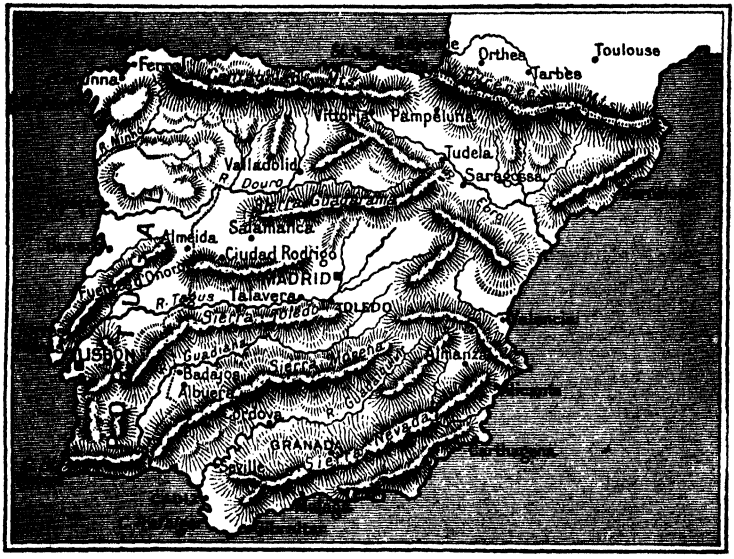
(ii) Marshal Soult, the French leader opposed to Sir John Moore, wrote to Colonel Napier, many years after the battle, that Moore "well understood how to profit everywhere by the advantages which a rough and broken country gave him, and that he had fallen in a combat which ought for ever to honour his memory."

**16. Wellington beats the French out of Spain.**—In 1809 Sir Arthur advanced into Spain, and gained the Battle of **Talavera**; but finding that the French had three armies in the country, each larger than his own, he retired slowly before Marshal Massena behind the strong threefold lines of **Torres Vedras**, near Lisbon.

"He round affrighted Lisbon drew
The treble works, the vast designs
Of his laboured rampart lines."

These lines the French were unable to force.—Wellesley had the most terrible difficulties to face. He had a very small army, and he was frequently hard put to it for provisions; while the French took whatever they wanted in the country without paying for it, and we had to depend on our allies, the Spaniards, who seldom kept their word or sent in sufficient supplies. **Peninsular War 1808-14.** At length, in 1811, he issued from his intrenchments, and by three years' hard work fought his way through Spain, and step by step beat back with well-directed blows the Napoleonic eagles across the snow-clad range of the Pyrenees into France. He won the great Battles of **Salamanca**, **Vittoria**, and **Orthez**; stormed the cities of **Ciudad Rodrigo**, **Badajos**, and **San Sebastian**; fought for six days amidst the rocks and snows of the Pyrenees; and at last, on the 10th of April 1814 gained the decisive **Battle of Toulouse**. He had trained and created an army with which "he could," he said, "go anywhere and do anything"; and now he stood with it upon "the sacred soil of France," ready and eager to meet Napoleon himself. But only six months before, Napoleon, who had left four hundred thousand men dead between Moscow and Niemen on his disastrous retreat from Russia, had been defeated by the Allies in the great **Battle of Leipsic**; and the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia

had already entered Paris at the head of their victorious armies. Napoleon was compelled to abdicate, the Bourbons came back to the




The Battle-fields of the Peninsular War.

throne of France, and the beaten Emperor was allowed to retire to the little island of Elba, of which he was made king.

(i) Sir **Arthur Wellesley**, writing to a friend, said: "The Battle of Talavera was the hardest fought of modern times. The fire at Assaye was heavier while it lasted; but the Battle of Talavera lasted for two days and a night. Each party engaged with a fourth of their numbers."

> "This battle," says a French writer, "recovered the glory of the successors of Marlborough, which for a century had declined. It was felt that the British infantry could contend with the best in Europe."

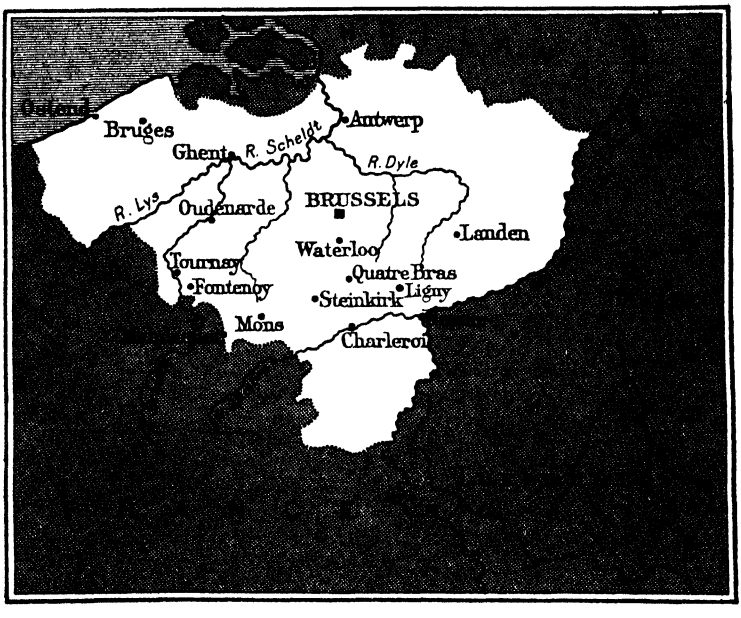
(ii) After the Battle of Talavera, Wellesley was created **Viscount Wellington.** He was afterwards made successively Earl, Marquis, Duke.

(iii) In the celebrated "Lines of Torres Vedras," the sides of the hills were cut into steep escarpments; their tops were crowned with forts; the guns planted could command every avenue of approach; the gorges were closed with redoubts; the river which flowed past the hills was rendered innavigable by dams; and the whole line of defence measured twenty-nine miles. Behind the first line stood a second; and, had both these been forced, a third series of defences was ready to receive the enemy. **Massena**, the French general, had been ordered by Napoleon to drive the British army into the sea; he sat down before Torres Vedras with 50,000 men for a month; and he then fell back with a starved and disheartened army.

(iv) When Napoleon stood on one of the hills of Elba, he could take in at one glance the whole extent of his dominions. "Ah!" he said, "it must be confessed that my island is somewhat small."

**17. The Hundred Days.**—Napoleon's world-conquering spirit could not be caged within that petty state; and in the spring of 1815 he contrived to effect his escape alone, landed in France, and presented himself to a regiment of veterans, who received him with the most rapturous welcome. This was the beginning of **The Hundred Days.** Louis XVIII. stole out of Paris and fled helplessly to Ghent; and Napoleon, having collected a vast army, marched into Flanders to meet the Prussians and the British. "I go," he said, "to measure myself against Wellington." The British Parliament voted the extraordinary and till then unheard-of budget of £90,000,000 for expenses; and the Duke of

**The Hundred Days, Feb.-June 1815.**

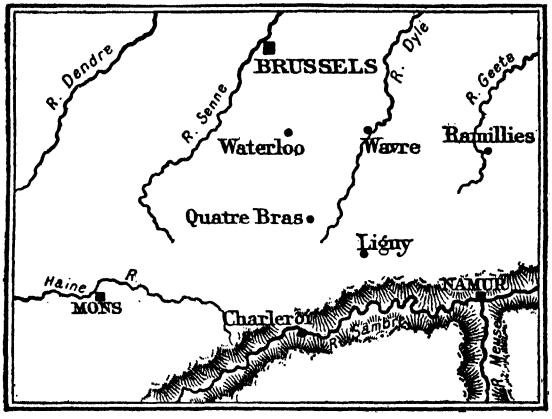



The Battle-fields of Belgium.

Wellington—for this had been his title since the Battle of Toulouse—went to meet him at the head of eighty thousand troops. Marshal Blücher, at the head of more than one hundred thousand Prussians,

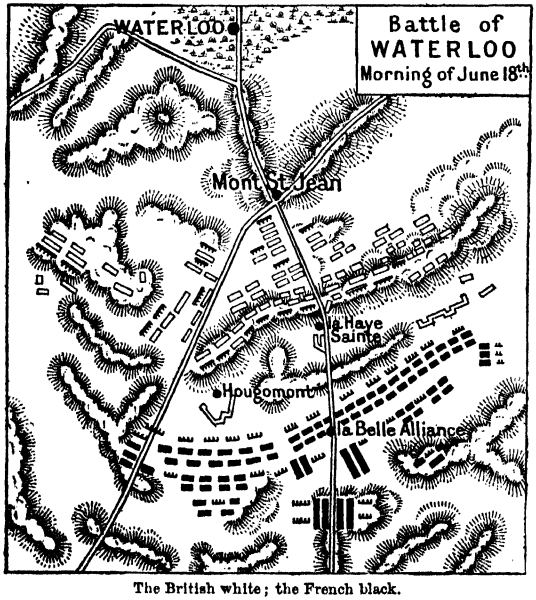
was also sent against him. Napoleon's plan was to meet and to beat them in detail at Ligny, Quatre Bras, and Waterloo.

(i) After Napoleon had made his escape from Elba, and was marching with a very few troops through the south of France, the governor of Grenoble sent out a force to arrest him. Napoleon advanced alone to meet them. "I am your Emperor!" he said, "fire on me if you like!" The soldiers threw themselves on their knees with the cry of "Vive l'Empereur!"




(ii) Napoleon generally spoke of Wellington as "that general of sepoys."

(iii) There were two battles fought before the day of Waterloo—the **Battle of Ligny**, between the Prussians under Marshal Blücher and the French; and the **Battle of Quatre Bras**, between the French and the British, on June 16th. The Prussians fell back upon Wavre; and the British on Waterloo.



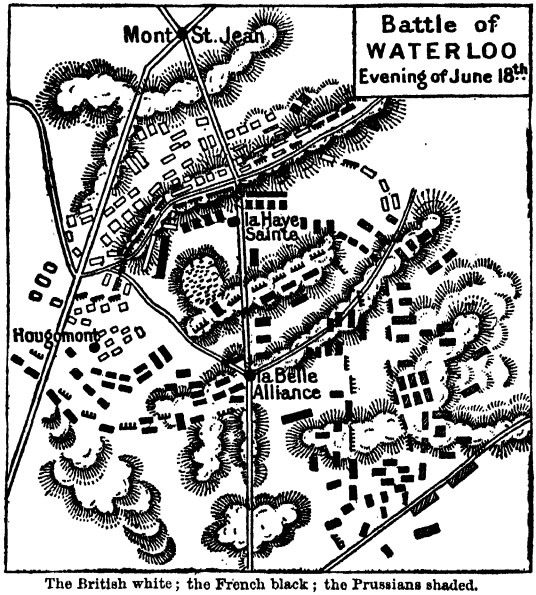

The British white; the French black.

Quatre Bras = "Four Arms," or the place where four roads meet. The roads that cross are that from Brussels to Charleroi, and that from Nivelles to Namur. (Compare *Carfax* in Oxford—the point where four streets meet.)

**18. Waterloo, June 18, 1815.**—After a severe engagement between the British and the French at **Quatre Bras**, the two great generals joined battle near the village

of Waterloo, on Sunday the 18th of June 1815. The fight was long, bloody, and stubborn; for five hours the British troops held on to their position, and resisted wave after wave of fierce attack, until at length, towards the evening of the day, the guns of the Prussians were heard in the distance. The French cavalry, fighting bravely and even desperately, flung themselves again and again on the British squares; but they were always broken and driven back with terrible slaughter. Napoleon at length ordered up his reserve, which consisted of his tried friends, veteran soldiers who had seen many a campaign and had won for him many a well fought field, and which he called *The Old Guard.* They advanced with the old fiery ardour and confident steadiness; but were received with so fearful a fire that they wavered and were driven in rout down the hill. Wellington now gave an order for the advance of the whole line; and the vast array of the British army poured down upon the French forces in one irresistible swoop, which carried every position of the French, and changed the defeat of their army into a rout and a flight. In the three days of hard fighting—for there had been engagements on the 16th, 17th, and 18th of June—nearly seventy thousand men, of whom only ten thousand were British, were killed upon the field of battle. Napoleon tried to escape to America; but, failing in this attempt, he was obliged to surrender to the captain of the *Bellerophon*; and he was banished by the Powers to the island of St. Helena, where he died of cancer in the stomach in the year 1821.

Waterloo 1815.




The British white; the French black; the Prussians shaded.

(i) "Wellington used to describe the line of ground between the farm of La Haye Sainte and Hougomont as resembling the curtain of a bastion, with these two positions for its angles."

(ii) "The general opinion was, that after having taken the post of Hougomont, he would then make himself master of La Haye Sainte, and afterwards decide the battle by a violent attack of his reserve upon the enemy's centre."

(iii) Looking on the carnage going on round him in the afternoon of the day, Wellington exclaimed: "Would to God that night or Blücher were come!"

**19. Minor Wars.**—Before returning to affairs at home, three important events ought to be noticed. In 1809 a powerful expedition was sent to the island of Walcheren, to assist the Dutch in rising against their French masters; but our troops were attacked by the marsh fever, which arose from the "blue, dense, and fetid" morning mist of the island. In 1812 the United States, irritated by our determined claim to search for British sailors on board American vessels, declared war, and attempted to conquer Canada; but the war ended, with little result on either side, in 1815. The last military operation of this long reign was the bombardment of Algiers by the combined fleet of the British and Dutch. The Dey of Algiers had kept in slavery for years a large number of Europeans; and this action of the British Government compelled him to set free nearly two thousand men who had been wretched slaves for many years of their lives.

**Walcheren 1809.**

**War with America 1812.**

**Bombardment of Algiers 1816.**

(i) The object of the **Walcheren Expedition** was to take Flushing and Antwerp, both of which were in the hands of Napoleon. An army of nearly 40,000 men was sent, escorted by a fleet of more than fifty sail of the line and frigates. This army was conquered by the chill marsh-mist which rose perpetually from the ground.

(a) "The sea was covered for miles with shipping; and all was animation. Upwards of a thousand sail were rolling at anchor off Deal, and among them six enormous three-deckers that looked like castles. All England seemed to have collected on the coast. Boats were sweeping in all directions among the fleet. . . . The whole had an incomparable look of spirit and triumph."—KNIGHT.

(b) Napoleon wrote; "Before six weeks, of the fifteen thousand English who are on the island of Walcheren, not fifteen hundred will be left. The rest will be in the hospitals."

(c) Most of the troops slept in the open air. "The island was covered with a sheet of exhalation—blue, dense, and fetid." "It unstrung every muscle, penetrated every bone, and seemed to search and enfeeble all the sources of mental and bodily life."

(ii) There were also misunderstandings between Lord Chatham, the general of the army, and Sir Richard Strachan, who commanded the fleet.

"The Earl of Chatham, with his sword drawn,
Stood waiting for Sir Richard Strachan;
Sir Richard, longing to be at 'em,
Stood waiting for the Earl of Chatham."

(iii) The American War was ended by the **Peace of Ghent** in the beginning of 1815. The most notable action in it was the duel between the two frigates the **Shannon** and the **Chesapeake.** Captain Broke, of the British frigate *Shannon,* fought the *Chesapeake* and captured her in fifteen minutes.

(iv) **Lord Exmouth** was in command of the British fleet for the reduction of Algiers. One thousand and eighty-three Christian slaves were released.

**20. Home Affairs.**—With the return of peace came widespread misery and deep discontent. Years of strife had impoverished the whole of Europe; the National Debt of Great Britain had been trebled by the war; in 1816 there was a bad harvest; foreign wheat could not by law be imported until the famine price of eighty shillings a quarter had been reached; thousands of soldiers and sailors were disbanded and without employment, and hundreds of thousands of poor people were starving. Want of labour during the war had led to the invention of new machinery; and new machinery had thrown thousands more out of work. Riots broke out everywhere. The *Luddites,* a secret society, leagued together to break the stocking-frames and lace-frames which had taken from them their employment and their bread, roamed through the country, breaking, burning, and pillaging. The war had enriched the landowner, the capitalist, the manufacturer, the farmer—in short, all those who had already money or land; but it had made the poor man poorer: it had impoverished all those who had nothing but their daily labour to live on.

(i) There had been a wet season in 1816, and a bad harvest; the people were starving; corn in May was 76s. 4d. a quarter; in December 103s. (in 1903 it was about 27s.). In Suffolk and other agricultural districts, burning corn-stacks and farmyards sent a lurid blaze through the night; threshing machines were broken by day; in towns the operatives marched through the streets bearing banners inscribed with the legend "BREAD OR BLOOD!' Bands of Luddites roamed about armed and masked, broke into factories and houses, smashed frames and machines and furniture. There were also **Bread Riots** in many parts of the country.

> LUDDISM was the name given to the conspiracies organised for the destruction of machinery. The name came from that of a poor idiot, Ned Lud, who had in 1811 broken, in a fit of passion, two stocking-frames. The law punished this with fourteen years' transportation. A Bill was passed to make the offence capital. At York, in 1812, sixteen Luddites were hanged.

(ii) "Society, too, was disturbed by the great changes of employment consequent on a sudden return to peace after twenty years of war, and by the disbanding of the immense forces employed at sea and on land."—GREEN.

**21. Death of George III.**—George III. had been insane at different periods of his life; in 1810 he became permanently and hopelessly ill; and his eldest son, George, Prince of Wales, was

appointed **Prince Regent.** To the maladies of insanity and old age was added that of blindness; and in this double darkness of body and mind the poor old king died at Windsor Castle, on the 29th of January 1820, after a long and most eventful reign of sixty years.

(i) "He was not only sightless: he became utterly deaf. All light, all reason, all sound of human voices, all the pleasures of this world of God, were taken from him. Some slight lucid moments he had; in one of which, the queen, desiring to see him, entered the room, and found him singing a hymn, and accompanying himself at the harpsichord. When he had finished, he knelt down and prayed aloud for her, and then for his family, and then for the nation, concluding with a prayer for himself, that it might please God to avert his heavy calamity from him; but, if not, to give him resignation to submit. He then burst into tears, and his reason again fled."—THACKERAY.

(ii) His eldest son, George, had had only one child, the **Princess Charlotte,** who married Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (afterwards King of the Belgians) in 1816; and on her the nation looked as their future queen; but, to the great sorrow of all loyal subjects, she died the year after her marriage.

**22. Ireland** (i).—The Parliament in Ireland did not represent the nation, but only the Protestant part of it—about one-sixth in all. The British Parliament not only suppressed the political desires of the people, but depressed their trade. The withdrawal of British troops from Ireland for the American War proved the opportunity of the Irish; and the **Protestant Volunteers,** who took the place of the regular British troops, began to think that it would be a good thing if they used their arms for the benefit of their own country. Why should they not, like the Americans, demand legislative independence? The British Parliament abolished many of the restrictions on Irish trade; it modified Poyning's law; it abolished the Sixth Statute of George I.; and at length the great orator **Richard Grattan** succeeded in carrying through Parliament a resolution—the celebrated **Declaration of Right**—declaring the complete legislative independence of Ireland. The resolution was carried unanimously in both Houses. This was in 1782.

**Grattan's Parliament 1782.**

(i) A Bill was passed by the British Parliament allowing Catholics to hold property, the free exercise of their religion, the right to educate their children, etc. etc.

(ii) "On the 17th of May 1782, Mr. Fox presented to the House of Commons the Resolutions of the Lords and Commons of Ireland on the King's Message of the 16th of April; and he moved the repeal of that Statute of George I. which asserted the dependence of Ireland."—KNIGHT.

**23. Ireland** (ii).—Thus Ireland had succeeded in obtaining the independence of its Parliament, though the country was still subject to the crown of Great Britain. But this Parliament was composed of Protestants only, and represented only Protestants. During the war of the French Revolution the hopes of many Irishmen rose high, that they would be able, with the aid of France, to bring about the complete independence of their country. Several expeditions were sent to their aid. The most formidable of these, in 1796, under General Hoche, one of the ablest of Napoleon's lieutenants, with 20,000 men, was scattered by a tempest; but a smaller one, in 1798, succeeded in reaching Longford. The persons who were in correspondence with France called themselves by the title of *The United Irishmen*; they rose in rebellion when the French landed, but were easily put down; and those made prisoners were treated with the most terrible severities. After the suppression of this outbreak, and of the secret societies which had encouraged it, the Irish Parliament was abolished, and from the 1st of January 1801 Ireland has sent her representatives to the British Parliament.

(i) On board one of the French vessels was captured the famous leader of the Irish Patriots, Wolfe Tone. He was tried by court-martial and sentenced to death; but he committed suicide in prison.

(ii) "This country (Ireland) could not be saved without the Union; but you must not take it for granted that it will be saved by it. Much care and management will be necessary; and, if the British Government place their confidence in an Irish faction, all will be ruined."—LORD CORNWALLIS.

**24. Scotland.**—Scotland, since the Union, had been rapidly advancing in industry, manufactures, commerce, and wealth. There still, however, remained great abuses. Among these was the state of the colliers and salters, who were bought and sold like slaves, along with the works they toiled in. So strong was this custom in an otherwise enlightened country, that Parliament could not venture at once to sweep it away; but an Act was introduced, declaring that all children born in connection with these works after a certain date should be free, and all grown-up persons after a certain term of service. Negro slavery was declared illegal in England in 1772, but it was not till 1799 that the freedom of these poor Scotch people was established by law.—Another abuse was, that the penal laws against Roman Catholics, which were repealed in England in 1778, were

retained in Scotland. The Lord Advocate of the day, Henry Dundas, tried to pass a bill for their abolition; but fierce riots broke out in Edinburgh and Glasgow, and even the Roman Catholics themselves petitioned that the bill might be dropped. It was not till fifteen years later, in 1793, that the Scotch Roman Catholics were relieved from their penal disabilities. Nor was political opinion in Scotland any freer than religious opinion. In 1793, Thomas Muir, advocate (or Scotch barrister), and Fyshe Palmer, a clergyman, were sentenced to transportation—the one for fourteen, the other for seven years—for no other crime than that of giving their views on the reform of Parliament.

**25. The Work of Parliament** (i).—The **First Parliament** of George III. had been called during the reign of his grandfather, in 1754; and it continued to sit for its full term of seven years. The Prime Minister at this time was the Duke of Newcastle. This Parliament passed one important Act—an act which enabled judges to remain in office for life, and not to vacate office at the death of the sovereign.—The **Second Parliament** of this Sovereign met in the end of 1761. Lord Bute was Prime Minister. This Parliament passed a **Bribery Act** in 1762; and, in the year after, under George Grenville as Prime Minister, it passed a still more important Act doing away with **General Warrants**. In 1765 it also passed the **American Stamp Act**; but, the year after, under the Marquis of Rockingham, this Act was repealed. The Duke of Grafton succeeded Rockingham and induced the House to pass a very paltry and most irritating Act—the **American Duties Act**.—The **Third Parliament** of this reign met under the Duke of Grafton, and had a great deal of trouble with **John Wilkes**. Wilkes was elected over and over again for the county of Middlesex; but the House constantly declared his election void. This Parliament repealed the American Duties Act; though it still allowed Townshend, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, to keep a duty of 3d. per pound on tea. It also permitted reports of parliamentary debates to be published, and abolished the old legal custom of the **Peine forte et dure**. Lord North was premier in this Parliament from 1770.

(i) **General Warrants** were warrants in which no name was entered, and accordingly any suspected persons might be arrested under them. They were thus manifestly instruments of tyranny.

(ii) The **Stamp Act** was to compel all persons in the American colonies to affix a stamp—which they had to buy from the Home Government—to all contracts, wills, receipts, etc. It was a mode of collecting inland revenue; as the customs were for collecting duty on goods entering the country.

(iii) The **American Duties Act** put duties on small articles, such as tea, glass, paper, and painters' colours.

(iv) **Wilkes** had published an article in **No. 45** of his paper called the **North Briton**, in which he said that the Ministers had, in the king's speech, "put a lie in the mouth of the king." The Commons voted this "a false, scandalous, and seditious libel," expelled him from the House, and declared him incapable of sitting in it. The number of the newspaper was also burnt by the common hangman.

The London populace liked Wilkes as much as they hated Lord Bute; and the following epigram was handed round:—

"Because the *North Briton* inflamed the whole nation,
To flames they commit it, to show detestation;
But throughout old England what joy would have spread,
Had the real North Briton (Bute) been burnt in its stead!"

(v) The tax on tea was retained as a matter of principle, to show that the Home Government had the *right* to tax the colonies.

(vi) If a person refused to plead in a criminal case, heavy weights constantly increased were placed on his body, and food refused him till he died. The unhappy recusants took this course, because, if they did plead and were found guilty, the whole of their property would go—not to their family—but to the king.

**26. The Work of Parliament** (ii).—The **Fourth Parliament** of George III. met in the year 1774, under the Premiership of **Lord North**, who had taken office in 1770. Wilkes was allowed to take his seat for Middlesex (he was also made Lord Mayor of London). A measure was passed in 1778 for the relief of the Roman Catholics—a measure which gave rise to the terrible **Gordon Riots** two years after. This Parliament is also famous for the celebrated resolution brought forward by Mr. Dunning, "that the power of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished," which was carried by 233 to 215.—The **Fifth Parliament** met in 1780; and the Duke of Richmond brought in a Bill for annual Parliaments, manhood suffrage, and equal electoral districts; but it was rejected without a division. In 1782 Lord Rockingham came into power, and passed an excellent and just act for the exclusion of Government contractors from the House of Commons, and for preventing revenue officers from voting at Parliamentary elections. Rockingham died in 1782, and was succeeded by Lord Shelburne, under whose administration Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States. In 1783 the

Coalition Ministry came into power, with the Duke of Portland as nominal head; but it lasted for only a few months. **William Pitt** the younger next became Prime Minister, but, during the life of this Parliament, did nothing but pass the Mutiny Act. Pitt had great plans for fiscal and political improvement; but the wars with France turned the British government into a ministry of panic and repression, and postponed reform for more than forty years.

(i) In the General Election of 1744, the "borough" of **Gatton**—in which there were no houses at all—was bought and sold for £75,000.

(ii) The Act for the relief of the Roman Catholics repealed the Penal Act of 1700, under which (a) a priest was imprisoned for life for saying mass; (b) no Roman Catholic, unless he took the oath of supremacy (which, by his religion, he could not do), was capable of acquiring land either by inheritance or by purchase (his land went to the Protestant next of kin); and (c) no Roman Catholic could send his children abroad to be educated.

(iii) The **Revenue-officers** of the country were able, by their votes, to control seventy elections; and, as a matter of course, their votes were given in favour of those who had appointed them.

(iv) The **Coalition Ministry** was formed by Lord North and Charles James Fox.

**27. The Work of Parliament** (iii).—The **Sixth Parliament** met in 1784, and gave much time to the affairs of India. **William Pitt** (the younger) was Prime Minister; and this was his first ministry. He was fortunate enough to pass his **India Bill**, the chief effect of which was to give the Government complete control over the administration of the East India Company, civil as well as military. In 1786 **Edmund Burke** moved the impeachment of **Warren Hastings** for various acts of maladministration in India. The trial did not begin till 1788; it lasted till 1795; and ended with the acquittal of Hastings. In this Parliament also there came up the question of the **Regency**, in consequence of the mental illness of the king. On this question Pitt and Fox took opposite sides. Pitt supported the view that in Parliament resides the complete right of settling the Regency; while Fox maintained that the Heir-Apparent possesses the inalienable right "to assume the reins of government."—The **Seventh Parliament** met in 1791. War was declared against France in 1793; and the Government had its hands full of war business. In this year an **Alien Act** was passed to prevent the immigration of Frenchmen of revolutionary principles and character. For a similar purpose the **Traitorous Correspondence**

**Bill** was passed. In 1795 **Edmund Burke**, the greatest political thinker that ever lived, retired finally from Parliament, and died two years after.—The **Eighth Parliament**, also under the leadership of William Pitt, met in 1796. It refused to pass Mr. Grey's motion for Parliamentary Reform ; but it passed the very important **Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland.**—The **Ninth Parliament** of George III., which was the **First Imperial Parliament** of the United Kingdom, met under the Prime Ministership of Pitt : it took up the important question of **Catholic Emancipation**, a bill to secure which Pitt had promised his Irish friends to pass ; the king was bitterly opposed to it ; Pitt resigned ; and Mr. Addington became Prime Minister.—The **Tenth Parliament** met in 1802. The Treaty of Amiens had been signed ; but war was again declared against France in 1803. Addington resigned in 1804 ; and Pitt formed a new administration—his second, which lasted till his death in 1806. Pitt wished to have Fox and Grenville in his Cabinet ; but the king had personal objections to Fox, and Grenville would not act without him. Pitt, moreover, was obliged to agree not to bring up the Catholic question. On the death of Pitt, Lord Grenville and Fox united their forces and formed the ministry of "All the Talents" ; but Fox died in the same year. The only important event that occurred in this Parliament was that Fox and Grenville carried a resolution in favour of the **Abolition of the Slave Trade** ; and the Act itself was passed in 1807.

(i) Pitt's **India Bill** appointed a **Board of Control**, which consisted of six members of the Privy Council, two of whom must always be the Chancellor of the Exchequer and a Secretary of State. This Board had supreme authority over the East India Company. It lasted till 1858—the year after the **Indian Mutiny.**

(ii) The **Alien Act** ordered all foreigners to reside outside of a radius of 50 miles from Cornhill, London, and over 10 miles from the sea-coast and the dockyards. The **Traitorous Correspondence Bill** was passed to prevent money or stores being sent to France.

(iii) The representation of the people of Great Britain was at this time in a very bad state. There were 357 seats in the House of Commons that were held by the nominees of 154 private patrons ; and, of the boroughs that returned members, 200 had fewer than 100 electors, most of whom could easily be, and were actually, bribed.

(iv) The **Act of Union** provided for (a) Free Trade between Great Britain and her Colonies and Ireland ; (b) one Imperial Parliament—Ireland to send 4 spiritual and 28 elected temporal peers, and 100 commoners ; (c) the Established Churches of England and Ireland to be united.

(a) There are now 103 Irish Members of Parliament in the House of Commons.

(b) Since the disestablishment of the Irish Church in 1868 the spiritual peers have ceased to sit in the House of Lords.

(v) George III.'s objection to Catholic Emancipation was that he considered himself bound by his **Coronation Oath** to show no favour of any kind to Roman Catholics. Unhappily, the majority of the nation sympathised with this view.

(vi) The **Slave Trade**—that is, the importation of slaves from Africa—was stopped in 1807, chiefly by the efforts of William Wilberforce, Thomas Clarkson, and Zachary Macaulay (the father of the historian). But **Slavery**—that is, the holding of slaves—was not abolished till 1834.

**28. The Work of Parliament** (iv).—The **Eleventh Parliament** of George III. met in 1806 and lasted only one session. It was the shortest of all the parliaments of this reign. But it brought in a very important and useful bill—the **Army and Navy Service Bill**; and it also passed Wilberforce's **Act for the Abolition of the Slave Trade**. The first of these two bills caused the fall of the ministry, as it was looked upon by the king as a personal affront; and the Duke of Portland became Prime Minister.—The **Twelfth Parliament**—"a Tory and anti-Catholic Parliament"—had both the Peninsular War and Ireland on its hands; and plenty of trouble with both of them. It met in 1807. In its first session it passed the **Irish Insurrection Act**. In 1809 the Duke of Portland resigned; and Mr. **Spencer Perceval** succeeded him. In the end of 1810 the king's insanity became permanent; and a **Regency Bill** was passed in 1811, by which the Prince of Wales became Regent. In 1812 Mr. Perceval was assassinated in the lobby of the House of Commons by a madman named Bellingham; and **Lord Liverpool** undertook to form an administration. —In 1812 the **Thirteenth Parliament** of this reign was summoned. It removed some of the disabilities of Nonconformists; and it passed an act for the **Relief of Insolvent Debtors**. Riots had occurred in many parts of the country; and it suspended the Habeas Corpus Act for a whole year.—The **Fourteenth** and last Parliament existed for only thirteen months. Its chief legislative work consisted in passing the **Six Acts**, which were intended as the reply to the riots raised and the Reform meetings held by the working-classes during the year 1819. In January of 1820 George III. died.

(i) The **Army and Navy Service Bill** was brought in to enable Roman Catholics and Nonconformists to enter these two services. But the king stubbornly declined to allow Catholics to serve on the staff; and he would not permit Protestant Dissenters to enter either service at all.

(ii) **The Irish Insurrection Act** provided that all persons out of their dwellings between sunset and sunrise should be arrested.

(iii) Imprisonment for debt in the beginning of this century often meant imprisonment for life. A vivid account of the state of our prisons is to be found in Dickens's description of the "Marshalsea Prison" in his *Little Dorrit*.

(iv) There had been riots from 1815—after the Battle of Waterloo—owing chiefly to the dearness of bread, the scarcity of work, and the imperfect representation of the people in Parliament. In August 1819 a Reform Meeting was held in St. Peter's Fields (now St. Peter's Square) in Manchester. A vast crowd was crammed within the space of three acres; the magistrates ordered the yeomanry to charge the crowd; they used their swords—edge as well as blade; and many were killed or wounded. This was afterwards known as the **Massacre of Peterloo.**

(v) The chief of the **Six Acts** were directed against: (a) training in arms; (b) the possession of arms; (c) holding seditious meetings; (d) publishing "seditious libels" or pamphlets.

**29. Social Facts.**—The advance in manufactures, commerce, and locomotion in the course of this long reign is one of the most remarkable phenomena in History. **Watt's** improvements on the steam-engine for the first time made steam the working-power of the world; **Hargreave's** spinning-jenny, **Arkwright's** spinning-machine, and **Crompton's** mule-jenny laid the foundations of the enormous cotton-manufactures of Lancashire. From about 1780 the Manchester trade advanced until it became one of the greatest factors in the commerce of the world. **Cort's** invention of the puddling-furnace gave an immense impetus to the hardware and cutlery manufactures of Birmingham and Sheffield. New arts began to spring up. Lithography made its appearance in 1811. Wedgwood introduced art into the manufacture of pottery. Sir Humphry Davy, in 1815, produced his safety-lamp, which made mining a much less dangerous process to human life.—The Bridgewater Canal, between Manchester and Liverpool, was opened in 1761; and this means of locomotion made it easy and cheap to carry the bales of cotton from the great Mersey port to the factories of Manchester and the towns near it. The appearance of **Henry Bell's** "Comet" steamer on the Clyde, in 1811, foreshadowed the enormous possibilities of steam in its application to sea-going vessels, and was the beginning of that series of improvements which has culminated in steamships that now cross the Atlantic in six days.

## CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE III.'s REIGN.

**1760.** **Accession of George III.**

**1763.** **The Peace of Paris.**
Wilkes arrested.

**1765.** **The Stamp Act.**

**1766.** **The Stamp Act repealed.**
Pitt (now Earl of Chatham) Lord Privy Seal.

**1767.** **American Imports** taxed.

1768. Wilkes Riots.

**1770.** **American Import Duties abolished** (except the tax on tea).

1771. House of Commons Debates published for the first time.

1773. Tea destroyed in Boston Harbour.

1774. Wilkes Lord Mayor.

**1775.** **Battle of Bunker's Hill.**

**1776.** **Capture of New York by the British.**
The Whigs absent themselves from Parliament.

**1777.** **The Surrender of Saratoga.**

**1778.** **Death of Chatham.**

**1780.** **The No Popery Riots.**

**1781.** **The Yorktown Surrender.**

**1782.** **The Independence of the United States acknowledged.**
The "Younger Pitt" Chancellor of the Exchequer.

**1783.** **William Pitt Prime Minister.**

**1786.** **Impeachment of Warren Hastings.**

**1788.** **Trial of Warren Hastings.**
George III. insane.

**1795.** **Acquittal of Warren Hastings.**

**1793.** **War with France.**
**The First Coalition**

**1795.** **Capture of the Cape of Good Hope** from the Dutch.

**1797.** (a) **Battle of Cape St. Vincent.**
(b) The Mutiny at the Nore.
(c) **Battle of Camperdown.**

**1798.** **Battle of the Nile.**

**1799.** (a) **Siege of Acre.**
(b) **The Second Coalition.**

**1800.** **Union of Great Britain and Ireland.**

**1801.** Destruction of the Danish Fleet at Copenhagen by Nelson.
(a) Pitt resigns.
(b) Addington Prime Minister.

**1802.** **Treaty of Amiens.**

**1803.** War with France again.

**1804.** **Pitt Prime Minister.**
Napoleon collects troops and a flotilla for the invasion of England.

**1805.** **The Third Coalition.**
**Battle of Trafalgar.**

**1806.** (a) **Death of Pitt.**
(b) Ministry of "All the Talents."
(a) Grenville Prime Minister.
(b) Fox Foreign Secretary.
(c) **Death of Fox.**

**1808.** **Peninsular War** begins.
(a) Battle of Vimiero.
(b) Convention of Cintra.

**1809.** (a) **Battle of Corunna.**
Death of Sir John Moore.
(b) **Battle of Talavera.**
(c) **The Walcheren Expedition.**

**1810.** **The Lines of Torres Vedras.**
George III. permanently insane.

**1811.** Prince of Wales (afterwards George IV.) Regent.

**1812.** (a) Storming of Ciudad Rodrigo.
(b) Storming of Badajos.
(c) Assassination of Mr. Perceval Prime Minister.
(d) The Battle of Salamanca.

**1813.** **The Battle of the Pyrenees.**

**1814.** (a) **Battle of Toulouse.**
(b) **First Peace of Paris.**

**1815.** **Congress of Vienna.**

**1815.** (a) **Escape of Napoleon from Elba** ("The Hundred Days") March 1.
(b) **Battle of Waterloo,** June 18.
(c) Napoleon sent to St. Helena.
(d) **Second Peace of Paris.**

**1817.** **Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act.**

**1819.** (a) Alexandrina Victoria (afterwards Queen Victoria) born, daughter of Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.
(b) Peterloo.
(c) "The Six Acts" carried.
(d) First appearance of "Radical Reformers."

**1820.** **Death of George III.**

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1762.** Accession of Catherine II. of Russia.

**1766.** French take Lorraine and make the Rhine their boundary.

**1768.** Captain Cook's first voyage to Australia.

Seizure of Corsica by France.

**1772.** **First Partition of Poland.**

**1773.** Tea riots at Boston.

**1774.** (a) **Warren Hastings Governor-General of India.**

(b) Accession of Louis XVI. to the Throne of France.

**1776.** **Declaration of Independence** by the United States ("Fourth of July").

**1784.** Departure of Warren Hastings from India.

**1786.** Death of Frederick the Great.

**1789.** (a) **George Washington** first President of the United States.

(b) **The Estates-General of France** meet at Versailles. Beginning of the French Revolution.

**1793.** (a) **Execution of Louis XVI.**

(b) Second Partition of Poland.

**1795.** Third Partition of Poland.

**1798.** (a) Rebellion in Ireland.
(Battle of Vinegar Hill).

(b) The French in Egypt.

**1799.** Napoleon First Consul.

**1800.** Battle of Marengo.
(Napoleon defeats the Austrians).

**1803.** **Battle of Assaye**
(gained over the Mahrattas by Sir A. Wellesley—Wellington).

**1804.** **Buonaparte Emperor of the French.**

**1805.** The Flotilla at Boulogne for the invasion of England.

**1806.** End of the Holy Roman Empire.

**1808.** Joseph Buonaparte king of Spain.

**1812.** The Expedition of Napoleon to Moscow.

**1813.** **Battle of Leipzig.**
(Napoleon utterly defeated).

**1814.** Abdication of Napoleon.

**1815.** **Waterloo.**

**1819.** Singapore seized by the British

**1820.** Revolution in Spain.

# GREAT BRITAIN IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

**1. Political.**—The reign of Queen Anne, from 1702 to 1714, is remarkable for the rise and first beginnings of government by party, and of the rule of the Cabinet as representing the power of the Crown. Party government has since grown and strengthened; and the Cabinet, though not known to the constitution, is the most vital and most controlling force in the country. In its earlier stages, the Cabinet was the organ and mouthpiece of the Sovereign; it gradually grew to be the organ and servant of the House of Commons. In the eighteenth century, it was the Sovereign who chose the members of his Cabinet; in the twentieth, it is practically the House of Commons and the nation who select them: it is the Sovereign who "sends" for them. In the beginning of this century, Queen Anne, and her successor George I., were practically in the hands of their own Ministers; but, towards the end, George III. made a determined and persevering attempt to increase the power of the Crown. He succeeded; but he succeeded only by using the House of Commons as his instrument. Thus, silently, and without observation, the power of Parliament—and especially the power of the Lower House—had been growing all through the century.

(i) In theory, the **Cabinet** is only an irregular committee of H.M.'s Privy Council.

(ii) William III. chose his Cabinet from both parties. But this was soon found to be hardly a working arrangement.

(iii) George I. could not understand a word of English, and therefore ceased to attend the meetings of his Cabinet. This threw more power into the hands of the Ministers who composed it.

(iv) George III. was in the habit of consulting an "interior Cabinet" of his own. He operated on the House of Commons by purchasing seats (he held 65 at one time, which he could fill with his own nominees), and by giving places and pensions to his followers. His reign has been called the epoch of the "Restoration of Authority."

> "Places and pensions had all along nominally been in the gift of the Crown. When it was once understood that George III. meant really to allot them himself, he soon found that he could dispose of votes in Parliament, which had hitherto been at the disposal of the Prime Minister."—GARDINER.

(v) There are three notes of a proper Cabinet: (a) **Political Agreement** on the most important political points; (b) **United Responsibility**—all its members to stand and fall together; (c) **United Action**—that is, in all important matters.

**2. Agriculture.**—During the progress of the eighteenth century, more and more of the land was brought under cultivation. The processes of agriculture were also greatly improved; and drill husbandry, among other plans, was introduced about the year 1732. The system

PLAN OF DATES

# EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

# THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

| 1700 | 1701 | 1702<br>Death of William.<br>ANNE. | 1703 | 1704<br>Battle of Blenheim.<br>Capture of Gibraltar. | 1705 | 1706<br>Battle of Ramillies | 1707<br>UNION WITH SCOTLAND. | 1708<br>Battle of Oudenarde. | 1709<br>Battle of Malplaquet. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1710<br>Dr. Sacheverell impeached. | | | 1720<br>The South Sea Bubble. | | | 1730 | | | |
| 1711<br>Duchess of Marlborough dismissed. | 1712 | 1713<br>Treaty of Utrecht. | 1721<br>Walpole Prime Minister. | 1722 | 1723<br>Banishment of Atterbury. | 1731 | 1732 | 1733 |
| 1714<br>Death of Queen Anne.<br>GEORGE I. | 1715<br>"The Fifteen."<br>Battle of Sheriffmuir. | 1716<br>The Septennial Act. | 1724 | 1725 | 1726 | 1734 | 1735 | 1736<br>Porteous Riots in Edinburgh. |
| 1717 | 1718 | 1719 | 1727<br>Death of George I.<br>GEORGE II. | 1728 | 1729 | 1737<br>Death of Queen Caroline. | 1738<br>"Jenkins's Ear." | 1739<br>War with Spain. |
| 1740 | | | 1750<br>The Three per Cents. ("Consols—Consolidated Stocks"). | | | 1760<br>Death of George II. GEORGE III. Canada seized by the British. | | |
| 1741 | 1742<br>Resignation of Walpole. | 1743<br>Battle of Dettingen. | 1751 | 1752 | 1753 | 1761 | 1762 | 1763<br>The Peace of Paris. |
| 1744 | 1745<br>"The Forty-Five."<br>Battle of Prestonpans. | 1746<br>Battle of Culloden. | 1754 | 1755 | 1756<br>Beginning of Seven Years' War. | 1764 | 1765<br>The Stamp Act. | 1766<br>The Stamp Act repealed. |
| 1747 | 1748<br>Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. | 1749 | 1757<br>Battle of Plassey. | 1758 | 1759<br>Capture of Quebec. | 1767<br>American Imports taxed. | 1768 | 1769 |
| 1770<br>American Import Duties abolished (except the tax on Tea.) | | | 1780<br>The "No-Popery Riots." | | | 1790 | | |
| 1771 | 1772 | 1773 | 1781<br>The Surrender at Yorktown. | 1782<br>Independence of the United States acknowledged. | 1783<br>William Pitt Prime Minister. | 1791 | 1792<br>Coal-gas first used for lighting. | 1793<br>War with France. |
| 1774 | 1775<br>Battle of Bunker's Hill. | 1776<br>Capture of New York. | 1784 | 1785 | 1786<br>Impeachment of Warren Hastings. | 1794 | 1795<br>Capture of the Cape of Good Hope.<br>Acquittal of Warren Hastings. | 1796 |
| 1777<br>Surrender of Saratoga. | 1778<br>Death of Chatham. | 1779 | 1787 | 1788<br>Trial of Warren Hastings.<br>George III. insane. | 1789 | 1797<br>Battle of Cape St. Vincent.<br>Battle of Camperdown. | 1798<br>Battle of the Nile. | 1799<br>Siege of Acre. |

of rotation of crops was also introduced; and this system did far more justice to the bearing power of the soil. In the latter half of the century, a large number of agricultural societies were founded; the breed of sheep, especially in Leicestershire, was greatly improved; and the annual produce of corn was enormously increased.

The wages of an agricultural labourer were 5d. a day with food; 10d. without. Carpenters and masons received 6d. and 1s.

**3. Manufactures.**—The manufacture of **woollens** and of **silk** took rapid strides in the early part of the eighteenth century. The **brass** manufacture began to be of importance in Birmingham about the middle of the century; and Sheffield "**plate**" made its first appearance about the same time. But what produced the greatest revolution in our British industries, was the substitution of **pit coal** for wood in the **smelting** of iron ore. This plan came into use about the year 1740. From this period Britain took the lead as a manufacturing nation—a lead which she has maintained ever since. A still greater impetus was given to manufactures by the alterations and improvements made in the **steam engine** by James Watt in 1759—improvements which elevated the steam-engine from a toy to one of the great creators and distributors of "power" in the manufacturing world. The invention of the **spinning-jenny** by Hargreaves, of the **spinning-frame** by Arkwright (in 1767), and of the **mule-jenny** by Crompton (in 1775), laid the firm foundations of the cotton manufacture, and of the wealth of Manchester and Lancashire. **Coal-gas** was first used for lighting in 1792; and this invention did more for the comfort and safety of large towns than any other ever made.

(i) The first **silk-mill** was erected at Derby, in 1719, by Thomas Lombe.

(ii) It was thought that the right way to encourage the manufacture of woollens and silks was to discourage cottons and calicoes. Those who wore cottons were fined £5; those who sold them, £20.

(iii) The first iron-works in Scotland were established at Carron, in Stirlingshire, in 1760. (The short guns cast there were called *carronades*.)

(iv) **Richard Arkwright** was a barber in Preston, with an attractive sign, which offered "a clean shave for a penny." He spent his last shilling in completing his spinning-frame; he exhibited it in Preston; both he and his machine were threatened with destruction; he hastily packed it up and fled to Nottingham.

(v) Steam was not used for cotton-spinning till the year 1785; water-power had been the force usually employed.

(vi) **James Watt** (who was in company with Matthew Boulton) had his works at Soho, Birmingham. Mr. Boulton said to James Boswell (the biographer of Dr. Johnson), when showing him round his works, "I sell here, sir, what all the world desires to have—POWER!"

**4. Commerce.**—The South Sea Company, which was founded in 1711, marks one of the most important beginnings of our foreign commerce. Its trade was sound and legitimate; and it does not deserve the discredit which attaches to the "South Sea Bubble," which was an overblown speculation on a genuine basis. Our colonies were not allowed to trade with any other than the mother-country; and, as they grew, the trade with them grew also. After the Union in 1707 Scotland was permitted to trade with the English colonies in North America, and with the West Indies; and this trade laid the

foundation of the wealth and enormous increase of Glasgow. Our trade with India also grew rapidly during the course of this century.

**5. Manners and Customs.**—People travelled by stage-coaches and by wagons. The former went at the rapid rate of four miles an hour; the latter took a fortnight to go from York to London. The stage-coaches were frequently stopped by highwaymen in masks, mounted on swift horses, who relieved the men of their money, and the ladies of their jewels. In the latter part of the century—in 1784—the first mail-coach appeared upon an English road; and both passengers and letters travelled with greater speed and safety. The coachman and the guard were armed to the teeth. The inns were extremely comfortable; because they were greatly frequented. The coffee-houses of London, from being "used" by different professions and different classes, gradually grew into exclusive clubs, where heavy gambling was the rage and the practice by day and night. The favourite amusement of fashionable ladies and gentlemen was to visit the tea-gardens in the suburbs—such as Ranelagh and Vauxhall—where the evening was spent in eating, drinking, and dancing. The three chief modes of conveyance in London were hackney-coaches, sedan-chairs, and wherries on the Thames.

(i) Travelling by wagon cost a shilling a day. The passenger got in at the back by a ladder.

(ii) The best-known highwayman in the neighbourhood of London was the "Flying Highwayman," who rode upon three different horses, "a grey, a sorrel, and a black one." One of the chief feats of this man was to take a turnpike in a flying leap.

(iii) Charles James Fox—the rival of the younger Pitt—was an inveterate gambler. At one sitting—a very long sitting—he lost £11,000, or £500 an hour. Pitt was also addicted to gambling; but he suddenly gave it up. "Consideration like an angel came, and whipped the offending Adam out of him."

**6. Dress.**—Fashion in dress has in all times had a tendency to run into exaggeration; but in no century has the exaggeration reached such extremes as in the eighteenth. In the beginning of the century, the ladies wore the hoop-petticoat—which made it a matter of great difficulty and strategy to enter a coach; towards the end, their dress took the most enormous dimensions by vast stuffings; in the last decade, they had come down to the minimum of clothing. The fan—as a weapon for flirtation; the patch—to call attention to a fine feature, or to indicate political partisanship; the head-dress sometimes more than a foot in height,—these were the marks of the "fine lady"—of the "woman of quality." The "Macaroni" was a still more astonishing figure. He wore an immense bunch, like a sack, of artificial hair behind, a very small cocked-hat, an enormous walking-stick with long tassels, a long coat cut very close, and a sword. The ordinary coat worn by a gentleman of rank in the eighteenth century may still be seen on the shoulders of the footmen and men-servants of the present day. It was of some bright silk—pink or blue—or rich-coloured velvet, bordered with gold or with silver lace; the waistcoat, of flowered silk, came to near the knee; and the shoes were of morocco, with diamond buckles. The snuff-box for the men took the place of

the lady's fan; and a part of the gentleman's social education included "the nice conduct of a clouded cane."

(i) A caricature of the period represents a coach with a moveable roof, and a frame and pulleys to drop the lady in from the top, so as to avoid the disarranging of her hoop.

(ii) The interior of the mass which composed the high head-dress was filled with wool, tow, or hemp; it was plastered over with pomatum, lard, etc.; and it was kept up so long that it sometimes smelt very offensively.

"He asked her how long it had been since her head had been opened or repaired. She answered 'not above nine weeks.' To which he replied that that was 'as long as a head could well go in summer.'"

"When he scents the mingled steam
Which your plastered heads are rich in,
Lard, and meal, and clouted cream,
Can he love a walking kitchen?"

(iii) In the reign of George II. dandies were called *beaux*, and *fribbles*; in George III.'s time, *macaronis*.

(iv) The present dress of men-servants is a survival of the eighteenth century. At first, this dress consisted of the cast-off clothes of the masters.

(v) The dinner-hour was about two; but, in very fashionable circles, it was as late as four. "In my own memory," writes Sir Richard Steele, "the dinner has crept by degrees from twelve o'clock to three; and where it will fix nobody knows." It is now at eight P.M.

**7. The Clergy.**—The clergyman of the eighteenth century, says Mr. Knight, "had his own peculiar business in life to perform, which was chiefly to make himself as comfortable as possible." He generally ate too much, and drank too much. Some of the clergy were "ordained sportsmen," with their thoughts in the stable and the dog-kennel rather than in the church; and they were "regarded by their parishioners not as parsons of the parish, but as squires in orders." They did not visit the sick; they were too busy to be present at the last rites of the dead; and the poet Crabbe describes one as

"A jovial youth who thinks his Sunday task
As much as God and man can fairly ask."

They had learned their habits at the Universities, where there was much joviality and little seriousness or study.

(i) Clergymen would sometimes come to church in a hunting-dress, leave their guns outside in a corner of the church, put on their cassock over their coat, read the service, and then go off for a day's shooting.

(ii) The following advertisement appeared in an English newspaper of the time: "Wanted a curacy in a good sporting country, where the duty is light and the neighbourhood convivial."

**8. The People.**—The chief characteristics of the English people in the eighteenth century were independence and roughness—roughness which often degenerated into coarseness and brutality. The severity of the criminal law, the weakness of the police, the frequency of public executions, the immense quantities of strong beer drunk, made the people, of London especially, "the most odious and brutal rabble in Europe." Monday morning was "hanging-day"; parties were made up to witness the executions; and sometimes twenty were hanged in one morning. The police of London—they were called

"watchmen"—were weakly old men, with "no arms but a lantern and a pole," who patrolled the streets, called out the hour and the state of the weather, but were quite unfit to keep order in the streets. The same brutality was manifested in the treatment of prisoners. Felons and debtors, the burglar and the bankrupt, were hand-cuffed together, and had the same treatment in jail. Boxing and fighting with broad-swords were common amusements. There were few or no civilising influences among the middle and lower classes of England in this century.

(i) In the Fleet Prison, the head-jailer could, and did, throw prisoners into dungeons, and load them with irons. The keeper of the Marshalsea "loaded with irons, tortured, and destroyed prisoners for debt under his care." Thumb-screws and iron skull-caps were the instruments of torture.

(ii) Fifty prisoners were sometimes locked up for the night in a room sixteen feet square; and, if they escaped the gaol-fever, they were cut off by famine.

(iii) "To behold two men cut at each other with broad-swords till one was disabled by severe wounds on the forehead and the leg, was a brutality that was at its height in the Augustan age."—KNIGHT.

(iv) It was the great philanthropist **John Howard** (1726-90) who first tried to reform the prisons of Gt. Britain and Europe. He died at Kherson (in Russia) of the plague, caught when visiting a prison.

**9. Literature** (i).—The contrast between the literature of the beginning and the literature of the close of the eighteenth century is very striking. In the early part of the century we have Defoe and Swift, Addison and Steele, Pope and Thomson; in the latter half we find Goldsmith and Sheridan, Gibbon and Burke, Burns and Cowper. Dr. Johnson forms the connecting link between the two periods; while, as heralding the dawn of a new day in thought, feeling, and literary expression, the great names of Wordsworth and Coleridge begin to appear two years before the close of the century.

(i) **James Thomson** (died 1748) was a Scotsman. He wrote "The Seasons"; but his finest poem is the "Castle of Indolence."

(ii) **Wordsworth** (1770-1850) published his "Lyrical Ballads" in 1798; and in that volume appeared Coleridge's wonderful poem, "The Ancient Mariner."

**10. Literature** (ii).—Both literature and science prospered greatly during the reign of Queen Anne, though she herself never exerted the smallest influence upon either. The "wits of Queen Anne's time" became a current phrase in the history of English Literature. English prose, more especially, rose to a height of perfection which it had never before attained. **Jonathan Swift** wrote a style in prose that was full of vigour and manly sense; **Joseph Addison's** style was marked by the greatest sweetness, beauty, and urbanity. Among minor prose-writers come, close to them, the names of **Daniel Defoe** and **Richard Steele**. In poetry, **Alexander Pope** stood easily pre-eminent for wit, for sparkling epigram, and for powerful invective. After him, though at a great distance, come the lesser names of **John Gay** and **Matthew Prior**. **Bishop Berkeley** was a philosopher, who wrote a most clear and beautiful style; while **Sir Isaac Newton** was one of the greatest mathematicians and physicists that have ever lived.

(i) **Swift's** (d. 1745) best-known work is his "Travels of Lemuel Gulliver." His most powerful work is the "Tale of a Tub."

(ii) **Addison** (d. 1719) is most famous for his Essays (in the *Spectator*, etc.).

(iii) **Defoe** (d. 1731) is best known for his "Robinson Crusoe." But he was a most fertile author, and wrote about two hundred and fifty books during his lifetime. He was also one of the Commissioners for the Union with Scotland.

(iv) **Steele** (d. 1729), commonly called "Dick Steele," wrote numerous Essays, and was a colleague of Addison in his weekly papers. He also founded the **Tatler** (1709), the **Tea-Table**, and other papers of that class.

(v) **Pope** (d. 1744) is famous for his "Rape of the Lock," his "Moral Essays," and his translation of the "Iliad." His most characteristic poem is his "Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot."

(vi) **Berkeley's** best-known work is his "Minute Philosopher" (d. 1753).

(vii) **Newton's** greatest work is his "Principia" (d. 1728).

**11. Literature** (iii).—**Oliver Goldsmith** was the most delicate essayist, and perhaps the most charming poet of the latter half of the century, while **Richard Sheridan** was the most brilliant writer of plays. **Edward Gibbon** is probably the greatest historian that ever wrote in the English language; **Edmund Burke** is perhaps our greatest political thinker, and certainly the noblest and most eloquent of all our writers on politics. **Robert Burns**, in Scotland, wrote some of the sweetest lyrics the world has ever heard; and the sensitive **William Cowper** led the way to a purer and clearer style in poetry than had prevailed during the century. In the very middle of the century appear its two truest poets (with the exception of Burns),—**Thomas Gray** and **William Collins**. Both elaborated and polished their work to the highest pitch; but both possessed the true poetic fire—the genius which sees into the life of man and of things.

(i) **Oliver Goldsmith** (1728-74) was a most diligent literary man. His best poem is "The Deserted Village"; his best play, "She Stoops to Conquer"; and his most delightful story "The Vicar of Wakefield."

(ii) **Richard Brinsley Sheridan** (1751-1816) was not only a play-writer, he was also a distinguished orator and member of parliament. He took a leading part in the famous trial of Warren Hastings. His cleverest play is "The Rivals."

(iii) **Edward Gibbon** (1737-94) was the son of a wealthy land-owner. He was educated at Oxford, was in the militia and in parliament, and is celebrated for his great history entitled "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire."

(iv) **Edmund Burke** (1729-97) was a member of the House of Commons for about thirty years. His most famous work is the "Reflections on the French Revolution." Macaulay says that "in richness of imagination he is superior to every orator, ancient and modern."

(v) **Robert Burns** (1759-96) is the greatest lyrical poet of Scotland. Most of his poems are written in the Lowland Scottish (= North English) dialect.

(vi) **William Cowper** (1731-1800) was one of the most perfect "didactic" poets. His best-known work is "The Task." He also translated the Iliad and Odyssey of Homer.

# CHAPTER IV.

# GEORGE THE FOURTH

**Born 1762. Succeeded (at the age of 57) in 1820. Died 1830.**

**Regent for 9 years. King for 10 years.**

GEORGE IV., the eldest son of George III. and Queen Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, was born at St. James's Palace on the 12th of August 1762. He was well and carefully educated; and the subjects of his instruction were classics, modern languages, drawing, and agriculture. When he came of age, he established himself at Carlton House, and took his seat in the House of Lords. Most of his life was spent in getting into debt, out of which Parliament had to drag him. He married, in 1795, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick. They had only one child, the Princess Charlotte, who was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (afterwards King of the Belgians), but who died in child-bed. He inherited much of his father's obstinacy, and some portion of his mental weakness: he used to maintain that he had led a division at the Battle of Waterloo. He died at Windsor on the 25th of June 1830.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS: Lord Liverpool; George Canning; Duke of Wellington.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| FRANCE. | PRUSSIA. | RUSSIA. |
|---|---|---|
| LOUIS XVIII. to 1824. | FREDERICK WILLIAM III. to 1840. | ALEXANDER I. to 1825. |
| CHARLES X. to 1830. | | NICHOLAS to 1855. |

**1. George IV., 1820-1830.**—George III. was succeeded upon the throne by his eldest son, George IV., who had been Prince Regent since 1811, during the mental and bodily illness—the blindness and insanity—of his father. The social and political troubles at the end of his father's reign took head, within a month of his own accession, in the form of a plot known as the **Cato Street Conspiracy**—a plot to murder all the Cabinet Ministers in a body. The Ministers had been invited to meet at a Cabinet dinner at the House of Lord Harrowby; and Thistlewood, the ring-leader, followed by the other conspirators, was to break into the

**The Cato Street Conspiracy 1820.**

house, put all the Ministers to death, set fire to the different barracks in London, open all the prisons, take possession of the Bank of England and the Tower, and form a Provisional Government. The plot was betrayed by one of the conspirators, who had all along been acting as a police-agent; the others were seized as they were arming themselves in a hay-loft in Cato Street (near the Edgeware Road); five of them were executed; and the rest transported for life.

(i) **Thistlewood** had his head full of the ideas of the French Revolution. He had lived in France during its early stages; and, on his return to England, had taken part in some street riots. On his trial for this, he was acquitted; but he was foolhardy enough to send a challenge to Lord Sidmouth, the Home Secretary. For this offence he was sentenced to a year's imprisonment. His period of confinement came to an end just about the time when the "Peterloo Massacre" occurred. This fired his brain, and combined with his private wrongs to induce him to form the plot. "I resolved," he said, at his trial, "that the lives of the instigators should be the requiem to the souls of the murdered innocents."

(ii) "Lord Castlereagh was for going to the dinner in the face of it all at the hour invited."

**2. The Queen.**—George IV. had, when prince, led a reckless and discreditable life; but, on Parliament's promising to pay his debts, he pretended to reform, and married Caroline of Brunswick in 1795. He was a frivolous and selfish man; she was a coarse-minded and not very sensible woman, and the marriage was never happy. They were separated. On his accession to the throne, he went so far as to give orders that her name should be omitted from the public prayers of the Liturgy; and, stung by this insult, she left the Continent, where she had been living, returned to England, and resolved to assert her rights and to be crowned in Westminster Abbey as George's Queen. The House of Commons and the people in general took her side and looked upon her as a persecuted woman, while the king was so unpopular that he seldom dared to appear in public; and, when his carriage was observed, brickbats and stones were thrown freely at the windows. The king's Ministry brought into Parliament a *Bill of Pains and Penalties*, in which the queen was accused of various misdemeanours, and was declared to be not only not queen but not even the wife of George IV. But the bill had to be abandoned, so determined was the opposition—an opposition in which young Henry Brougham took a very prominent part. The whole country was overjoyed at the defeat of the bill, and London

was illuminated for three nights.—In July 1821 the king was crowned in Westminster Abbey. He had given orders that his wife was not to be admitted; she drove down to the Abbey, and presented herself at door after door, but at every door she found that entrance was denied. This humiliation weighed upon her spirits and broke her heart; she went home, and died nineteen days after the coronation.

(i) **George IV.** was unpopular for many reasons, the most important of them being his treatment of his wife. The mob hung hissing on the back and wheels of his carriage; they stoned him; they even fired air-guns at him.

(ii) His own Cabinet maintained that the evidence for the misconduct of the queen was quite insufficient. "The Cabinet offer all but divorce. The king will have divorce or nothing."

3. **"The Holy Alliance."**—The three powers, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, fearing the spread of what were called liberal opinions through the countries of Europe, united themselves in a Holy Alliance, which was intended to uphold everywhere the cause of absolutism and legitimacy. They thus made themselves the opponents not only of revolution, but of all reform. But Britain, guided by **George Canning**, who was for a short time Secretary for Foreign Affairs, refused to give her assent to the principle that we or any state had any right whatever to interfere in the internal concerns of other states.—In 1820 there were risings in Naples, in Portugal, and in Piedmont. The Austrians crushed the Italians, and the French put down the Portuguese. But Greece had risen against Turkey; and Alexander of Russia could not carry out his principles in this case. The Greek insurrection broke out in March 1821; and the war had lasted for six years with great cruelties on both sides. The Turks called on Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, to give them assistance, and he sent them a fleet and army, the bulk of which occupied the Morea. His mode of warfare was disgusting: he threatened that he would lay waste the country, carry off all the inhabitants, and colonise it afresh with Negroes from Africa. This hideous proposal roused the anger of Europe; Mr. Canning, an ardent Greek scholar and a warm admirer of the Greek classics, showed the strongest sympathy; and Britain, France, and Russia sent a united fleet to prevent this terrible outrage being put into execution. They found the Turkish and Egyptian fleets drawn up in the Bay of Navarino in the form of a horse-shoe and ready for

**Battle of Navarino 1827.**

battle. Admiral Codrington still wished to parley, and went on parleying until his pilot was shot by his side; he then gave the order for action, and in four hours the enemy's fleet was swept from the face of the sea.

(i) The **Holy Alliance** was a convention between the Three Great Powers, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, declaring "their fixed resolution, both in the administration of their respective states and in their political relations with every other Government, to take for their sole guide the precepts of the holy religion of our Saviour, namely, the precepts of justice, Christian charity, and peace."

(ii) When the Duke of Wellington was asked to sign it, he drily remarked that the British Parliament "would require something more precise."

(iii) It was generally believed that these pious sentiments were only a cloak to hide the violation of their pledges to their own subjects, and the desire for territorial plunder at the expense of other States, on the part of the august signatories.

(iv) Of 120 men-of-war and transports in the two fleets, one-half were sunk, or burnt, or stranded.

**4. Joint-Stock Companies.**[1]—In 1824 money was very plentiful; trade had begun to revive; the opening of new markets in South America led men to hope for a short and speedy cut to vast wealth; and people rushed to put their money into the wildest and most absurd schemes for increasing it. Loans were granted to half the states in the world; hundreds of joint-stock companies were formed; cargoes of warming-pans and skates were shipped to the tropics; and a large number of Scotch milk-maids were sent out to Buenos Ayres, to make butter of the milk of wild cattle for natives who did not wish for butter, but much preferred at table to use fat or olive oil. Nothing, as before in the old South Sea times, was too wild for hope or too daring for enterprise. The natural result soon came. There was boundless hope and unlimited credit at first, and at last there was neither confidence nor credit nor money. A panic or commercial crisis broke out in 1825, when sixty-five banks stopped payment and closed their doors, while more than two hundred merchants became bankrupt.

**Money Panic 1825.**

(i) The chief causes of the panic of 1825 were: (a) the great cheapness of money and the ease with which it could be obtained for the purposes of new companies and of speculation; (b) the enormous amount of paper-money in the country; (c) the small amount of bullion; (d) the readiness of the Banks to discount bills at long dates.

[1] Companies, the capital of which is contributed by many different persons. The capital is the stock, and it is held *jointly*.

(ii) When the panic broke out, the Bank of England tried to stop it, and the Mint turned out 150,000 new sovereigns a day.

(iii) **Sir Walter Scott** was one of those who were struck hard by the panic. He failed for £117,000. The following is an entry in his Diary of December 18th, 1825:

> "Rich and poor four or five times, once on the verge of ruin, yet opened new sources of wealth almost overflowing. Now taken in my pitch of pride, and nearly winged, because London chooses to be in an uproar, and in the tumult of bulls and bears, a poor inoffensive lion like myself is pushed to the wall."
>
> "If God grant me life and strength for a few years longer, I have no doubt I shall redeem it all."

5. **Parliament.**—There were during this reign three great questions which were beginning to press themselves upon the attention of Parliament. The dissatisfaction with the state of representation had given rise to a desire for **Parliamentary Reform**; the depressed state of commerce, the suffering and misery of the lower classes, and the high price of corn, had brought about a demand for **Free Trade**; and the intense feeling of the Irish Roman Catholics at being shut out from all hope of place or of power made a burning question of the claim for **Catholic Emancipation.** The Reform of Parliament had to wait till the next reign; Free Trade had to wait till the reign of Queen Victoria; but Catholic Emancipation neither could nor would wait. Till the reign of George III. the Roman Catholics had been subject to penal laws of great severity; and they were still shut out by the oath of supremacy from both Houses of Parliament, and from all offices, civil and municipal.

(i) In 1822 **Lord John Russell** brought forward a motion "that the present state of representation requires serious consideration."

(ii) The policy of the Government—as of Pitt—was, generally, to take members from the small boroughs and villages, and give them to the counties; but the Advanced (Whig) Reformers desired to give them to the large centres of industry—such as Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, etc., which were quite unrepresented. The rise of the great manufacturing towns was destined to alter the political centre of gravity in England. Before 1760 England was mostly an agricultural country; after that date, it gradually grew to be a manufacturing and commercial country.

(iii) It was not until the reign of Queen Victoria that Sir Robert Peel was able to carry the **Repeal of the Corn Laws**, and Mr. Richard Cobden and Mr. John Bright introduced **Free Trade.**

6. **Catholic Emancipation.**—In 1823 a powerful association was formed in Ireland called the "Catholic Association"; and it very soon showed its power by carrying the election of **Daniel O'Connell** as member of Parliament. The manner in which he was elected was

even more remarkable than the election itself. Lord Palmerston said of it: "The population of a whole province rose like one man—not a drunken man among them—and by strictly legal means hurled from his seat one of the Cabinet Ministers of the king."—Pitt had tried to remove the disabilities of the Catholics on the occasion of the Union with Ireland in 1801; but it was not till 1829 that success was achieved. The Duke of Wellington was Prime Minister; and, though himself unfavourable to the measure, he passed it to avoid civil war. He spoke with the greatest frankness and firmness to the House of Lords, and even went so far as to say: "If I could avoid, by any sacrifice whatever, even one month of civil war in the country to which I am attached, I would sacrifice my life in order to do it." The Catholic Emancipation Bill received the royal assent on the 13th of April 1829.

**Catholic Relief Bill 1829.**

(i) When Pitt proposed the Parliamentary Union between Great Britain and Ireland, he distinctly promised **Catholic Emancipation** to the Irish; but George III. had scruples of conscience on the matter, and believed that such a measure would be inconsistent with his Coronation Oath. Even George IV. professed to have "conscientious scruples"—he who never had a conscience about anything; but the Duke of Wellington overruled him.

(ii) The Earl of Winchilsea published a letter in which he charged the Duke of Wellington with intending "to introduce Popery into every department of the State." The Duke demanded the withdrawal of the letter; the Earl declined; the Duke challenged him; they met in Battersea Fields; the Duke missed; the Earl fired in the air; and then handed to the Duke a written apology. All's well that ends well.

(iii) Catholics were still excluded from the offices of **Regent, Lord Chancellor,** and **Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.**

**7. Death of George IV.**—The king had passed the later years of his life in strict privacy, surrounded by unworthy favourites, and worrying his servants nearly to death by his selfish exactions and his fretful temper. Mr. Greville says that he would often ring for his servant forty times in the course of one night. He had visited Ireland in 1821, and it was remarked as the first peaceful visit that had ever been made by a British king; he had gone to Scotland in 1822, and had been received with rapturous loyalty. Sir Walter Scott seized the wine-glass out of which the king had drunk, and put it in his pocket, declaring he would never part from it but with his life; and, taking a chair soon after, he sat upon the glass and broke it into a thousand fragments. George was a man of good

natural abilities, fine musical taste, somewhat good-looking, and very dignified; and his admirers called him "the first gentleman in Europe." But he had no principle and no heart. He died on the 26th of June 1830, at the age of sixty-seven.

(i) Sir Erskine May says of George IV.: "With greater abilities than his father, and superior education, he was fond of ease and pleasure, and averse to business."

(ii) Mr. Greville, who knew him very well, says: "A more contemptible, cowardly, unfeeling, selfish dog does not exist than this king."

(iii) He has been called by Macaulay "a bad son, a bad husband, a bad father, a bad subject, a bad monarch, a bad friend"; and his latest biographer (in the *Dictionary of National Biography*) states that "his word was worthless and his courage doubtful."

(iv) The following are a few facts relating to his character in the different stages of his life:—

(a) Before he was twenty he had spent £10,000 on clothes in one year.

(b) Most of his early life was one round of routs, masquerades, balls, races, boxing matches, gambling-parties, and drinking-bouts. Before he was three-and-twenty, he was £160,000 in debt. "He lived in borrowed houses, travelled in borrowed chaises, and squandered borrowed guineas." "When he was sober enough to gamble, he lost thousands of pounds a night."—DICTIONARY OF NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

(c) His I.O.U.'S were handed about freely in London, and could generally be bought up cheap. He pawned his diamonds. He raised £30,000 on post-obits (=promises to pay on the death of his father). He raised a loan abroad; and, when the foreigners came over here to get their money, "they were expelled the kingdom under the Alien Act. He cheated at races and was warned on the subject."

(d) His relations with his father were of the bitterest kind. "On catching sight of his son"—when the Prince of Wales went down to Windsor to see George III.—"the unhappy father flew at him, clutched him by the collar, and threw him against the wall."

(e) He hoarded everything. He kept all the coats, waistcoats, trousers, and boots of fifty years; and he knew them all, and could call for any one at any moment. He had five hundred pocket-books—all of them with some money or notes in them. About £10,000 was found in these pocket-books.

**8. The Work of Parliament.**—The **First Parliament** of George IV. was merely a continuation of the last Parliament of George III.; and it was dissolved a month after the accession of the new king.—The **Second Parliament** of this reign had its hands very full of business; and it got through a great deal of work. Lord Liverpool was Prime Minister. It abolished **Capital Punishment** for minor offences; it brought in, but was unable to pass, the celebrated **Bill of Pains and Penalties.** It passed, in 1823, an important act for the relief of trade—Mr. Huskisson's **Reciprocity of Duties Bill,** which is indeed the first Free Trade measure passed in this country. It likewise passed an Act permitting **foreign corn** to be imported at a varying duty.—The **Third Parliament**—and it was the last—met under

the leadership of George Canning, who died in 1827; but it was continued under the administrations of Lord Goderich and the Duke of Wellington. It repealed, in 1828, the **Corporation and Test Acts**, and thus enabled Catholics and Nonconformists to sit in Parliament and to hold office. In 1829 it passed Peel's **Catholic Relief Act**, and thus restored the franchise to the numerous Catholics of Ireland. Mr. Peel (he was not Sir Robert till 1830) was likewise fortunate enough to pass a bill for establishing a **Police Force** in London, where it was very greatly needed.

(i) **Capital Punishment** had, up to the beginning of the nineteenth century, been attached to crimes of the slightest character. Picking pockets, stealing from a shop to the value of five shillings, from a private house to the value of forty shillings; stealing from a bleaching-ground articles of the smallest value—all these and many other petty offences were punished or punishable with death. **Sir Samuel Romilly** was the chief advocate for the abolition of these punishments.

> Many juvenile offenders were punished capitally, and even children of tender age. A little child under ten was lying in Newgate under sentence of death for petty pilfering, while Sir Samuel Romilly was speaking in the House.

(ii) The **Bill of Pains and Penalties** against the queen passed the House of Lords by the small majority of nine; but it was withdrawn in the Commons.

(iii) By the **Reciprocity of Duties Bill**, duties were to be remitted on merchandise of a foreign country, whether imported or exported in a British ship, if the foreign country acted in the same way towards merchandise from our country. The measure did away with much of the injury caused by the Navigation Acts of the seventeenth century, which prohibited the importation of goods except in English vessels.

(iv) Walpole's **Annual Indemnity Acts** had been passed year by year down to 1828. They relieved Dissenters from the duty of attending Church; but they still, in order to spare the pride of Churchmen, imposed the necessity of taking the sacrament upon office-holders. In 1828 the sacramental test disappeared. Instead of this test, a declaration "on the true faith of a Christian" was demanded: this excluded Jews.

(v) Before Peel's London Police (called "Peelers" from the name of their founder), the "peace" of this large town was kept by old and decrepit "watchmen," who generally did not watch, but went to sleep on their posts. The chief liberty enjoyed by the citizen of London was "the liberty of being robbed and knocked on the head at the discretion of their honours the thieves." The lighting of most of London was very bad.

**9. Great Men.**—The **Duke of Wellington** was by far the most distinguished personage of this reign; and he showed his high ability in politics and statesmanship, as he had before displayed it on the field of battle. In statesmanship alone, the two greatest names are

those of **George Canning** and **Robert Peel**; and the former combined with his lofty aims and noble efforts for freedom a literary ability which might have won for him a high position in the world of books. In Ireland, and Irish affairs, the colossal figure of **Daniel O'Connell** towers above most of his contemporaries.—In philanthropy, the names of **William Wilberforce** and **Fowell Buxton** are familiar to all of us in connection with their untiring efforts on behalf of the Negro slave.

**10. Social Facts.**—Commerce and manufactures, which had been greatly depressed just after the Battle of Waterloo, began to revive in this reign; and the only check on this revival was the money-panic of 1825. Commerce was fostered by Huskisson's Reciprocity of Duties Bill; and manufactures were greatly encouraged by the reduction of the duty on silk, and by giving greater freedom both to the importation and the exportation of wool. The Caledonian Canal, which connects the east and west of Scotland, and makes of the northern part of that country a large island, was completed in 1824. The Menai Suspension Bridge was finished in 1825. The **London Mechanics Institute** was opened in 1823; and the example of London was quickly imitated by most of the large towns in different parts of the country.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE IV.'s REIGN.

**1820.** **Accession of George IV.**
- (a) The Cato Street Conspiracy.
- (b) Bill of Pains and Penalties against the queen.

**1821.** Coronation of George IV.
The Queen shut out of Westminster Abbey.

**1822.** **Sir Robert Peel,** Home Secretary.
Suicide of Castlereagh.
**George Canning,** Foreign Secretary.

**1825.** Widespread failure of Banks and Companies.
Sir Walter Scott fails.

**1827.** (i) **Canning Prime Minister** (April).
(ii) **Death of Canning** (Aug.).
(iii) **Battle of Navarino.**

**1828.** **Duke of Wellington, Prime Minister.**
- (a) The Test and Corporation Acts repealed.
- (b) Sliding scale of Duties on foreign corn.

**1829.** **Catholic Emancipation Act.**

**1830.** **Death of George IV.**

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1821.** **Death of Napoleon.**

**1822.** (a) **Independence of Greece** acknowledged.
(b) **Brazil** separated from Portugal; Dom Pedro proclaimed **Emperor.**

**1823.** War between Greece and Turkey.
Lord Byron goes to aid the Greeks.

**1824.** (i) Death of Lord Byron.
(ii) Death of Louis XVIII. of France.
(iii) Accession of Charles X.

## CHAPTER V.

# WILLIAM THE FOURTH

Born 1765. Succeeded (at the age of 64) 1830. Died 1837.

Reigned 7 years.

WILLIAM IV. (Duke of Clarence) was the third son of George III. He was born at Buckingham Palace; brought up as a sailor; and, at fourteen, entered the Royal Navy as a midshipman. His hearty, bluff, sailor-like manners made him very popular in Society. He was an "Old Whig" in politics; but, when he came to the throne, he took neither side. He died of heart-disease on June 20th, 1837, "leaving behind him the memory of a genial, frank, warm-hearted man, but a blundering though well-intentioned prince."

**1. William IV., 1830-1837.**—George IV. was succeeded by his brother William Henry, Duke of Clarence. He was a sailor, and had passed most of his life in the Navy.—Soon after his accession, the spirit of revolution was abroad almost everywhere. In July 1830 the people of Paris had driven Charles X. from the French throne, to find a cold and dreary refuge in Holyrood Palace in Edinburgh; the people of Belgium had risen against the Dutch; and the Poles, whose country had long been divided among their powerful neighbours, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, believing they again saw a gleam of hope, rose to win back their lost fatherland and their abolished institutions. In this country, the Revolution in France met with universal sympathy and admiration; and a widespread agitation for Parliamentary Reform at once began. There was discontent among the working classes also; and, in the manufacturing districts, it took the form of breaking machines—power-looms and spinning-jennies; in the agricultural counties of the south, the poorer classes took to rick-burning. A few incendiaries were arrested and hanged; but for many a night no farmer could lay his head upon his pillow and feel certain that his corn and hay would not be in flames before the morning.

(i) The **French Revolution** of July 27th, 1830, was brought about chiefly by the general depression in trade and agriculture. Charles x. was a Bourbon, who pretended to be a constitutional king. The elections to the French Parliament went against the Government, and the king proposed to issue three ordinances: one against the liberty of the Press; the second dissolving the Chamber of Deputies; the third altering the constitution. The populace of Paris rose; barricades were thrown up; the Hotel de Ville was seized; the troops were deserting; the Revolutionists hoisted the tricolor and rang the tocsin. His advisers counselled Charles to make concessions; his orders were always to mass the troops. But the troops fraternised more and more with the people; and an *émeute* changed into a revolution. Charles abdicated; then fled; and the British Government gave him the dull and dingy residence called Holyrood Palace to live in.

(ii) The people of Brussels rose in the following month. This rising was put down. They rose again in September, and the Dutch troops were compelled to retreat before the armed insurgents. At the end of the year the Great Powers recognised the **Independence of Belgium.**

(iii) The effect of this French Revolution in Britain was to deter the middle classes from uniting with the too eager working-men. But Hunt and Cobbett set to work and preached social equality. Machines were regarded as substitutes for manual labour, and therefore as throwing so many hands out of work. The burning of corn-stacks destroyed food, and therefore raised the price of food; but at least they hurt the rich, who selfishly neglected the poor.

**2. Parliamentary Reform.**—And Parliamentary Reform was much needed. Many of the ancient but decayed boroughs—called "rotten boroughs"—contained only from one to seven electors. The borough of Old Sarum had neither electors nor inhabitants; and the gentleman who sat for it in Parliament represented only himself, a grassy mound, and a ruined wall. Large, wealthy, and hard-working towns like Birmingham and Manchester, Leeds and Sheffield, were totally unrepresented in the House of Commons; and most of the towns which possessed representatives were in the hands of small corporations, whose votes could be bought or sold like bread and beef, or houses and land. The two Pitts had long seen the necessity for reform, and the younger Pitt had three times brought forward plans in the House. In 1816 William Cobbett, by his vigorously written and cheap publications, had made Reform a popular cry; and clubs of persons, who called themselves Chartists, had sprung up to promote far more sweeping changes than were likely to be carried, such as universal suffrage, vote by ballot, and annual Parliaments.

(i) **The Reform Struggle** had very special features. It was not an ordinary parliamentary struggle. One hundred and forty-three members were asked to efface and

sacrifice themselves. When Lord John Russell read out the list of boroughs it was proposed to disfranchise, he was interrupted with shouts of laughter and ironical cries of "Hear! hear!" from the members who sat for them. Many of the members of the House of Peers held seats in the House of Commons as their "property," and were naturally most unwilling to give them up.

(ii) The corporations of towns and cities were deprived by the Reform Bill of the exclusive privilege which many possessed of returning M.P.s. Many of the members of these corporations could be, and were, bought.

3. **The Reform Bill** (i).—William IV.'s first Parliament contained a large proportion of Whig members; and most people expected that the king's speech would contain a promise that a bill upon the subject of Reform would be brought forward. But upon this head the king's speech was totally silent. So intense was the feeling in London, that the king was advised not to go in state to dinner at the Guildhall, as is usual at the beginning of a reign, lest he should be attacked in the streets; and, a few days after, the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel were compelled to resign. Earl Grey and Lord John Russell, the leaders of the Whig party,—Earl Grey as Premier, and Lord John as leader of the House of Commons,—were summoned by the king and commanded to prepare a Reform Bill. The Whig party had been out of office for twenty years.—The bill was defeated; and the Ministry dissolved Parliament. Through the length and breadth of the country no cry was heard except the cry of "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill;" and the new House of Commons, elected under this cry, passed the bill by a large majority. But it was defeated in the House of Lords by a majority of forty-one. The unenfranchised classes of the large towns broke into riot; incendiary fires reddened the night all over the country; the castle at Nottingham was burnt down; and Bristol was in the hands of a furious mob for two days. One hundred and fifty thousand men met at Newhall Hill in Birmingham, and with bared heads and raised hands took an oath: "With unbroken faith, through every peril and privation, we here devote ourselves and our children to our country's cause;" and it became plain to every one concerned that it would be dangerous, if not disastrous, to refuse compliance with the will of the country. The Birmingham Union had made arrangements to march to London two hundred thousand strong, and to encamp on Hampstead Heath. The Lords saw it

would be impossible to resist; and the Duke of Wellington, followed by about a hundred peers, left the House, and thus the bill was passed by a large majority.

(i) "Sir Robert Peel sat rigid as a statue, his face working with internal emotion, his brow furrowed by the wrinkles of age. Around him were many of his supporters, bursting again and again into uncontrollable laughter at what appeared to them the prelude to a certain and speedy downfall of the ministry."—KNIGHT.

(ii) The debate on the first reading lasted seven nights; and guests at dinner parties sat late to receive the different pieces of news from the House. Some of these produced bursts of merriment. The Duke of Wellington remarked of one: "It is no joke; you will find it no laughing matter."

(iii) Many persons threatened to stop paying taxes, if the Reform Bill did not pass.

(iv) **Macaulay**, in one of his greatest speeches, said:—

> "Reform, that you may preserve. Renew the youth of the State. Save property, divided against itself. Save the multitude, endangered by its own ungovernable passions. Save the aristocracy, endangered by its own unpopular power. Save the greatest, and fairest, and most highly civilised community that ever existed from calamities which may in a few days sweep away all the rich heritage of so many ages of wisdom and glory."

**4. The Reform Bill** (ii).—There were one hundred and forty-three seats to dispose of. Sixty-five of these were given to the counties, and the rest to the large towns. The franchise was given to all persons in boroughs who lived in houses of a rental of £10 a year and upwards; if in counties, their houses or land had to pay a rent of at least £50. "Thus was completed," says a modern historian, "after a delay of nearly a hundred and fifty years, the second act of the English Revolution." The first act was the expulsion of James II. in 1688, which gave the real power into the hands of Parliament; this second act placed political power in the hands of the enlightened middle classes. It was feared that a more violent revolution was about to take place; many of the richer classes sent their money to be invested in Denmark and in America; but the movement proved to be simply the quiet introduction of the middle classes to the duties of government.

**The Reform Bill 1832.**

(i) The **Reform Bill** disfranchised 56 nomination or pocket boroughs. These boroughs returned 111 members. Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds, each received two members.

(ii) The number of members for Scotland was raised from 45 to 53. (There are now 72.)

(iii) The number of members for Ireland was raised from 100 to 105. (There are now 103.)

(iv) It was during the struggle for Parliamentary Reform that the Tories first took the name of *Conservatives*, to indicate their feeling that they wished to preserve the old institutions of the country; while the Whigs and their friends chose to go by the name of *Liberals*, to show that they desired to see civil and religious liberty prevail all over the world. There were some also who called themselves *Radicals*, because they aimed at going further than the Liberals, and at reforming Parliament and the government of the country "*root* and branch."

From Latin *Radix (radic-s)*, a root.

**5. Slavery.**—The first reformed House of Commons met in the month of January 1833; and the first subject to which it turned its attention was the question of slavery in our British colonies. Ever since 1788 an agitation for the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade had been going on in the country; and in 1807 the slave-trade—that is, the exportation from Africa and importation into the West Indies of Negroes—had been abolished, on the motion of Mr. Fox. Smuggling in slaves had, however, still gone on, and the number of slaves in our colonies was rapidly increasing. Slaves coming to this country had always been free; for, as Cowper says,

> "Slaves cannot breathe in England; if their lungs
> Receive our air, that moment they are free;
> They touch our country, and their shackles fall."

The national conscience was now thoroughly aroused; and in August 1834 was passed the *Act for the Abolition of Slavery*. The country had to pay to the planters £20,000,000 sterling; and the slaves were to remain apprentices to their masters for five years longer. Before 1839 eight hundred thousand slaves had received their freedom.—William Wilberforce was the father of the movement; and he lived just long enough to see the desire of his heart fulfilled, and to thank God that the purpose of his life had been fully worked out. Sir Fowell Buxton was the leader of the abolitionists in the House of Commons.

**Slavery abolished 1834.**

(i) **Wilberforce** died only three days before the passing of the **Slavery Abolition Bill.** "Thank God," he said, "that I should have lived to witness the day in which England is willing to give twenty millions sterling for the abolition of Slavery."

(ii) It was expected that there would be risings on the 1st of August 1834. There were no riots; no insurrections: "the planters went to the chapels where their own people were assembled, greeted them, shook hands with them, and exchanged most hearty good wishes."

**6. The Poor Laws, etc.**—Among the other important events of this reign were the Acts for the reform of the poor laws and of the

municipal corporations.—The poor-rate had in 1833 risen, by gross mismanagement, to the sum of nearly £9,000,000 a year, when the population of England was only fourteen millions; but by the new Act it was reduced in three years to less than £6,000,000. Strong men and women were no longer allowed to live at ease upon the rates paid by hard-working labourers and careful and industrious tradesmen, but were compelled to work for their own living.—The corporations—or bodies existing to manage the business and the general interests of towns—had fallen into a very bad and corrupt condition; votes were bought and sold, the right of voting for councillors was in the hands of very few persons, and large sums of money were wasted on feasting, excursions, and riotous living. The Municipal Reform Bill cured all this; the number of voters in each borough was very largely increased; and all moneys spent had to be accounted for to the public.

(i) In 1783 the poor-rate for England and Wales amounted to a little over £2,000,000; and the population was then 8,000,000. In 1833—just half a century after—the poor-rate was nearly £9,000,000; while the population had only risen to 14,000,000. That is, the poor-rates had increased 300 per cent.; the population only 75 per cent.

> The demoralisation of the poor from the habit of begging and the weakness of the Poor-Laws was something frightful. "The sturdy beggar was a capitalist and an epicure; ate fowls and beefsteak for supper, and despised broken meat; had money in the funds, and left handsome legacies to his relatives." A blind beggar would write letters in the evening for his illiterate brethren; a widow sat for ten years in one corner with a pair of young children (she said they were twins) who never grew any bigger. In the workhouses the able-bodied men got as much as they could eat. "We never weigh anything," said a governor of one of these workhouses; "and there is no stint, so as they do not waste anything. Then they have good table-beer and good ale." "Imposture and crime were bountifully rewarded, while industry and frugality—refusing to enter the workhouse—met either with neglect or with persecution."—KNIGHT.

(ii) The poor-rate was in many cases equal to the rent of the land itself; and, in some cases, greater.

(iii) The new **Poor-Law** prohibited the giving of relief to the able-bodied. The rates had often been employed to supplement wages. It also united several parishes into one—called a **Union**; and the parish workhouses were replaced by the Union workhouse.

(iv) Many of the Town-Corporations had the power of **co-optation**—that is, of selecting for themselves persons of their own acquaintance to fill vacancies.

(v) The new **Municipal Reform Act** gave all rate-payers a vote for the Councillors; and these Councillors elected the Aldermen and the Mayor.

(vi) The only Corporation exempted from the operation of this Act was the **Corporation of London.**

**7. Death of William IV.**—The king died at Windsor Castle on the 20th of June 1837, at the age of seventy-two. His wife, Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, had had two daughters, but both died in infancy. He was therefore succeeded by **Alexandrina Victoria**, the only child of his brother, Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III. King William had always been a favourite; and, even after coming to the throne, he preserved the frank, hearty manner and the bluff kindliness of the old sailor. He walked in the freest and most open way about London—in an old hat and with an old umbrella, talked frankly with all his subjects; men of both political parties were invited to his table; and he thus showed that he perfectly understood the proper position of a constitutional king.[1]

(i) Mr. Greville says of William IV.: "The king's good-nature, simplicity, and affability to all about him are certainly very striking; and in his elevation he does not forget any of his old friends and companions. He was in no hurry to take upon himself the dignity of king, nor to throw off the habits and manners of a county gentleman. . . . Altogether he seems a kind-hearted, well-meaning (not stupid), burlesque, bustling old fellow; and if he doesn't go mad, may make a very decent king; but he exhibits oddities."

(ii) Lord Melbourne, who was Prime Minister for the last two years of his reign, speaks of William IV. as "most fair, most candid, most impartial, most willing to hear, to weigh, and to consider what was urged even in opposition to his most favourite opinions."

(iii) "Sir Robert Peel bore the same testimony to the king's utter forgetfulness of all amusement, and even of all private considerations, that could for a moment interfere with the most efficient discharge of his public duties."—KNIGHT.

(iv) When Victoria came to the throne, Hanover—which had been made a kingdom[2] in 1815—passed by virtue of the Salic Law,[3] to Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, the fifth son of George III., and thus became separated—much to the comfort and peace of mind of most people at home—from the Empire of Great Britain.

**8. Great Men.**—The most distinguished men of this reign were almost all statesmen or politicians. On the Liberal or reforming side of politics stood prominently out the figures of **Lord John Russell** and **Earl Grey**; on the Conservative side were **Wellington** and **Sir Robert Peel**. **Lord Brougham** was an energetic lawyer, member of Parliament, orator, and writer; but he soon forfeited the confidence of his own party, on the ground of his waywardness and high opinion of his

[1] A constitutional king is of no party, but is always on the side of the whole country.

[2] It is now part of the kingdom of Prussia. It was absorbed in 1866, when the king of Hanover declared war against Prussia, and fought on the side of Austria.

[3] The law which forbids a woman to reign.

own talents. The statesman whose judgment was most respected was **Lord Althorp**, though he could hardly put two sentences together. **Lord Palmerston** and **Stanley** (afterwards Lord Derby) were two of the most vigorous and rising young statesmen of the day.

**9. The Work of Parliament** (i).—The **First Parliament** of William IV.'s reign was merely a continuation of the last under George IV.; and it did nothing of any importance.—The **Second Parliament** met under the administration of **Earl Grey**, who, with **Lord John Russell**, was eager to carry a Bill for the reform of the House of Commons and the mode of electing members to it. Lord John brought in his **Reform Bill**; it was debated on the first reading for seven nights; it was carried on the second reading by a majority of only one; several important clauses were defeated in committee; the ministers felt that this was a very narrow majority; and they persuaded the king to dissolve Parliament, and to allow them to appeal to the country.—The **Third Parliament** contained a large majority of members pledged to drastic measures of reform. The second reading of the Reform Bill passed by a majority of 136; but in the House of Lords it was thrown out by a majority of 41. At the meeting of Parliament in December, the Reform Bill was again passed in the House of Commons—this time by a majority of 162. The Lords had by this time reflected and seen the danger of their position; many of them stayed away from the House; and the Bill finally passed the Peers by a majority of 106 to 22.

(i) **Lord Grey's** Reformed Ministry consisted of old Whigs and the milder Tories. **Lord Brougham** was his Lord Chancellor; **Lord Melbourne** his Home Secretary; **Lord Palmerston** his Foreign Secretary; and the Ministry also contained **Macaulay** and **Stanley** (afterwards Lord Derby).

(ii) The second Parliament also passed a **Regency Act**, by which the Duchess of Kent (the widowed mother of the Princess Victoria) was appointed Regent if the king should die before the Princess reached her majority.

(iii) William IV. employed his personal influence with the Peers to induce them to cease their opposition.

**10. The Work of Parliament** (ii).—The **Fourth Parliament**—it was the **First Reformed Parliament**—met in January of 1833. The Liberals held in this Parliament a majority of more than three hundred, and were able to do pretty much what they pleased. They

passed an **Irish Church Reform Act**; an act for the **Abolition of Slavery**; a **Factory Act**; and a much-needed **Poor Law Amendment Act.**—The **Fifth Parliament** met under the leadership of Sir Robert Peel. The Conservatives had made large gains; but the Liberals had still a majority of more than a hundred. Sir Robert had to resign; and Lord Melbourne took office. He was fortunate enough to pass the **Municipal Reform Act**—"the great measure of the Session"—an act which did for Town Councils what had been already done for the House of Commons—placed the representation of towns on a broad and permanent basis. This Parliament also, in the year 1836, ordered its Division Lists to be published: the people could thus see how their representatives voted, and the affairs and doings of Parliament became public to the fullest extent.

(i) The **First Reformed Parliament** contained 486 Liberals to 172 Conservatives.

(ii) This Parliament also passed an **Irish Coercion Act**, which empowered the Lord Lieutenant to break up dangerous assemblies, and to proclaim martial law in disturbed districts.

(iii) The Irish Church Reform Act—also called the **Church Temporalities (Ireland) Act** suppressed two archbishoprics and eight bishoprics and incorporated them with others. Many sinecures were also abolished.

(iv) The **Factory Act**, drawn up by Lord Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury) forbade altogether the employment of children under nine years of age, and the working of women and young persons under 18 for more than twelve hours a day.

**11. Social Facts.**—By far the most striking and most important event in this reign was the opening in September 1830 of the **Liverpool and Manchester Railway.** It was the first of an immense number of lines which now connect every town—and almost every village—of any size in Great Britain, and which have covered the face of this island with a network of railways more close than any that is to be found in any part of the world. It was the beginning, too, of rapid and cheap conveyance for the people of Great Britain; and in these two respects the Railways of this country still stand easily in front of all other nations. The **Overland Route** to India was opened in 1834; but, since the cutting of the Suez Canal, there has been an easy water-way to India from every part of Europe. The new **London Bridge** was finished in 1831; and the foundation-stone of the **National Gallery** was laid in 1837. The population of England and Wales

amounted in 1831 to nearly 14,000,000; of Scotland to less than 2,500,000; and of Ireland to nearly 8,000,000.

(i) **Mr. Huskisson** (who had been Chancellor of the Exchequer under the Duke of Wellington, and was member for Liverpool) was knocked down by the "Rocket"—George Stephenson's locomotive—had his leg broken, and died the same night.

> At Parkside many gentlemen got out of the train. Mr. Huskisson went up to speak with the Duke. A cry arose "Get in! get in!" Mr. Huskisson got confused, fell upon the rail, and the Rocket crushed his right leg.

(ii) The thickest networks of railways in Great Britain are to be found in South Lancashire; in and around Birmingham; in and around London; and in the coal-and-iron valley which lies between Edinburgh and Glasgow. The only parts of the Continent that can compare with these are to be found in Belgium and Saxony.

(iii) The London and North-Western Railway was also opened in this reign—in 1837.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM IV.'s REIGN.

**1830. Accession of William IV.**

(a) **Opening of Manchester and Liverpool Railway.**

(b) **Earl Grey Prime Minister.**

**1831.** (i) **Introduction of the Reform Bill.**

(ii) New Parliament with large majority of Reformers.

(iii) Reform Bill passes the Commons.

**Asiatic cholera appears.**

**1832. THE REFORM BILL** passes both Houses.

**1833. First Reformed Parliament.**

(i) Factory Act for children.

(ii) First Education Grant (£20,000).

**1834.** (a) **Poor Law Amendment Act.**

(b) **Abolition of Slavery in British Colonies.**

(c) **Peel Prime Minister.**

**1835. Melbourne Prime Minister.**
Municipal Reform Act.

**1836.** House of Commons publishes its Division Lists.

**1837. Death of William IV.** (His brother, the Duke of Cumberland, succeeds to the throne of Hanover.)

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1830.** (i) Revolution breaks out in Paris.

(ii) Charles X. flees to Scotland.

(iii) Revolution in Belgium.

(iv) Belgium separated from Holland.

Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (husband of the late Princess Charlotte) created **King of Belgium** (a new kingdom).

**1832.** Prince Otho (son of the king of Bavaria) created **King of Greece** (a new kingdom).

**1836.** (a) **South Australia** settled, with **Adelaide** as its capital.

(b) **Louis Napoleon** (nephew of Napoleon I.) makes an attempt at insurrection at Strasbourg.

(i) **Adelaide** received its name from Queen Adelaide, the wife of William IV.

(ii) **Louis Napoleon** made a second attempt at Boulogne in 1840, and again failed. He made a peaceful attempt in 1848 and succeeded, by an appeal to the universal suffrage of France, in being appointed President.

# CHAPTER VI.

# VICTORIA

Born 1819. Succeeded (at the age of 18) in 1837. Died 1901.

## PART I.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA was the only child of the Duke of Kent (fourth son of George III.) and Louisa Victoria of Saxe-Coburg (sister of Leopold I., king of Belgium, and widow of the Prince of Leiningen). Her father died in 1820; and the education of the young Princess Victoria was directed by her mother, the Duchess of Kent. In 1840 she married ALBERT of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who was created PRINCE CONSORT in 1857. He died in 1861. They had four sons and five daughters. The Queen celebrated the Jubilee of her reign in 1887, and died on 22nd January 1901.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS: Lord Melbourne; Sir R. Peel; Lord John Russell; Lord Derby; Lord Palmerston; Mr. Disraeli (also as Lord Beaconsfield); Mr. Gladstone; Lord Salisbury.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

| FRANCE: | PRUSSIA: | RUSSIA: |
|---|---|---|
| LOUIS PHILIPPE, 1830-48. | FREDERICK WILLIAM III., 1797-1840. | NICHOLAS, 1825-55. |
| LAMARTINE (President), 1848. | FREDERICK WILLIAM IV., 1840-61. | ALEXANDER II., 1855-81. |
| LOUIS NAPOLEON (President), 1848-52. | WILLIAM I., 1861-88. | ALEXANDER III. 1881-94. |
| NAPOLEON III. (Emperor), 1852-70. | (German Emperor), 1871. | NICHOLAS II. 1894. |
| THIERS (President), 1871-73. | FREDERICK III., 1888. | |
| MACMAHON (President), 1873-79. | WILLIAM II., 1888. | |
| GRÉVY (President), 1879-87. | | |
| CARNOT (President), 1887-94. | | |
| CASIMIR PERIER (President), 1894-95. | | |
| FAURE (President), 1895-99. | | |
| LOUBET (President), 1899. | | |

**1. Victoria, 1837.**—The young Queen was called to the throne at the age of eighteen. King William died early in the morning of the 20th of June 1837; and the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chamberlain left Windsor Castle soon after two o'clock, drove in all haste to Kensington Palace, reached it about five, and, ordering the

young Princess to be awakened, informed her that she was now QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN. She was received by her subjects with a feeling more akin to warm personal affection than to mere official loyalty; and every one seemed to feel a certain pride in the fair young girl who had been called to rule over the vast British Empire. On the 10th of February 1840, the Queen married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha,—a marriage which brought to her the greatest happiness, and which, when the nation came to know the Prince better, was generally acknowledged to have been of great benefit to the country. Prince Albert was a man of refined taste, large knowledge, benevolent aspirations, and just moderation of conduct. The rejoicings at the marriage throughout the kingdom were universal and enthusiastic.

(i) The young Queen met her Privy Council alone—without the supporting presence of her mother and relations; and she impressed every one with respect by her dignity and self-possession. She was young, inexperienced, ignorant of the world around her—for she had been brought up in the strictest privacy; but she went through the business of the Council in the coolest and most business-like way. Mr. Greville says: "As these two old men, her uncles (the Royal Dukes of Cumberland and Sussex), knelt before her, swearing allegiance and kissing her hand, I saw her blush up to the eyes, as if she felt the contrast between their civil and their natural relations; and this was the only sign of emotion which she evinced. Her manner to them was very graceful and engaging; she kissed them both, and rose from her chair and moved towards the Duke of Sussex, who was farthest from her and too infirm to reach her."

(ii) "She looked very well; and, though so small in stature, and without much pretension to beauty, the gracefulness of her manner and the good expression of her countenance give her on the whole a very agreeable appearance."—GREVILLE.

(iii) The Duke of Wellington said: "If she had been my own daughter, I could not have wished her to behave better."

(iv) In her first Speech, **Queen Victoria** said: "It will be my care to strengthen our institutions, civil and ecclesiastical, by discreet improvement wherever improvement is required, and to do all in my power to allay animosity and discord."

**2. The Corn Laws.**—The high price of corn had been for a long time severely felt by the labouring classes; and riots and agitation had broken out in many large towns. At length, in 1838, an **Anti-Corn-Law League** was formed in Manchester, with branches throughout the kingdom; and at the head of the movement were Richard Cobden and John Bright. They maintained that the daily bread of the people was the very last article upon which a tax should be laid,

and that free trade in every commodity whatever would conduce to the benefit of a great manufacturing and commercial nation like Britain. The party opposed to them, who were called **Protectionists**, argued that home agriculture and our own farmers ought to be encouraged and protected by keeping up the price of corn; and that it was highly inconvenient, especially in time of war, that this country should be dependent on any other for its supply of food. The orators of the League travelled up and down the country explaining their opinions; the land was covered with pamphlets and handbills urging and illustrating their views; and the cause of the League was making progress every month. It owed its triumph, however, to what appeared to be an accident. In the autumn of 1845 the potato crop had utterly failed in almost every county in Ireland; and as this was the chief food of the Irish people, a terrible famine threatened that country. At length, in 1846, the famine broke out, followed by a malignant fever; and the people died by thousands in their mud hovels, in the workhouses, and on the roadsides. Riots broke out in the towns. The sum of £10,000,000 was voted for the relief of Ireland; the corn laws were at once suspended; and Sir Robert Peel, the leader of the Conservatives, found himself obliged to bring in a Bill for the abolition of the duties on foreign corn, cattle, and other kinds of produce. This repeal was carried in 1846—a year which had been so wet that people everywhere said, "It rains repeal"; but the new law was not to come into operation until 1849. With this triumph came also the widespread diffusion of the doctrines of free trade—the chief of which is that every man should be free to buy in the cheapest market and to sell in the dearest, without any kind of restriction whatsoever. This it is believed is best for the buyer and best for the seller—best for the producer of goods, and best also for the consumer.

**Famine in Ireland 1846.**

**Free Trade in Corn 1849.**

(i) "In many places the wretched people were seated on the fences of their decaying gardens, wringing their hands, and wailing bitterly the destruction that had left them foodless."

(ii) An organisation was formed to feed the starving poor. "Neither ancient nor modern history," says Sir C. Trevelyan, "can furnish a parallel to the fact that upwards of three millions of persons were fed every day in the neighbourhood of their own homes, by administrative arrangements emanating from and controlled by one central office."

(iii) On January 31st, 1849, a Public Banquet was given in the Free Trade Hall in Manchester, to celebrate the triumph of the Anti-Corn-Law League. Sir R. Peel's Bill was to become active law on February 1st. At a few minutes to twelve the band struck up, "There's a good time coming, boys!" The chorus was sung by two thousand voices. Then, when the clock struck twelve, the Chairman rose, and, amid profound silence, said: "The good time has come!" Then the two thousand guests rose and filled the vast room with one mighty British cheer.

**3. The Chartists.**—The Corn Law agitation was for cheap bread; the agitation of the Chartists was for political power. There had for some time been distress in many of the trades by which large numbers of working men live; and many of these men, dissatisfied with the limited arrangements of the Reform Bill, believed they saw, in still greater changes in the constitution of Parliament, the hope and the means of amending their present wretched condition. They likewise thought that the Reform Bill of 1832, though a good Bill as far as it went, was only one step in the direction of thorough and radical Reform. They accordingly drew up a "People's Charter," which consisted of "six points." (1838). The demands of that Charter were :—

(1) Universal Suffrage—that every man of the age of twenty-one and upwards should have a vote.

(2) Vote by Ballot—that all voting should be known only to the voter himself and to no others; and that thus no intimidation—no undue or unfair influence—should be applied to the voter.

(3) Annual Parliaments—that a Parliament should last only one year, instead of seven, as they at present do, or may. This would make members more directly responsible to their constituents.

(4) The Payment of Members—that an M.P. should be paid for his services, thus allowing poor men to enter the House, if they could.

(5) The abolition of the Property Qualification—that every man, whether he owned property or not, should be eligible for a seat in the House of Commons.

(6) Equal Electoral Districts—that the number of members should depend on the number of the population to be represented in each district. This would make the value of each vote equal.

(i) Of these "points," the first, second, fifth, and sixth, have now been practically conceded.

(ii) There were two kinds of Chartists—**Physical Force Chartists** and **Moral Force Chartists.** The leader of the former was a violent Irishman, Fergus O'Connor, M.P.

(iii) In 1839, a Chartist riot, headed by Mr. Frost, a Justice of the Peace, took place at Newport, in Wales. The riot was put down, and Mr. Frost imprisoned for several years.

**4. The Year 1848.**—But in the year 1848, the hopes of the Chartists that they would carry *all* their points rose very high. It was a year of revolution all over the continent of Europe. Crowns were tottering or falling, kings flying from their capitals; and people thought that the age of the Universal Republic had at length arrived. Louis Philippe had escaped from Paris and crossed to Newhaven in Sussex, under the name of Mr. Smith; the Pope had fled from Rome in the disguise of a footman; the king of Prussia was compelled to take an oath to a new constitution; the Hungarians rose in arms to free themselves from Austria; and the emperor of Austria and the king of Naples had to fly from their capitals to escape from the fury of their subjects. The Chartists thought their day had come; and, mustering on Kennington Common (in the south of London) on the 10th of April 1848, they designed to march through London on the House of Commons, with a petition in their hands, containing five million signatures, and the determination in their heads to compel the House to yield to their demands. The Government called for a quarter of a million special constables, among whom Louis Napoleon, then a resident in London, enrolled himself; the Duke of Wellington posted soldiers and raised barricades at the most important points; guns were stationed at the bridges; and every precaution was adopted to make the threats of the Chartists unavailing. The leader called upon his hearers to rally round him, to cry, "Down with the Ministry!" "Dissolve the Parliament!" "The Charter!" and "No surrender!" But there was division in the Chartist councils; no one could lead; no one had made up his mind to fight; and the whole demonstration fell to the ground harmless and ineffective.

**The Year of Revolution 1848.**

(i) "You have left one point unprotected—one way by which they could escape," said a member of the cabinet of 1848 to the Duke of Wellington. "That was precisely what I intended to do," replied the Duke. He was too good-hearted and too sensible a man not to "build a golden bridge for a flying enemy"; and he shuddered at the very thought of having to kill his fellow-countrymen.

(ii) "The year 1848 will be memorable, not only for the Revolution of France, and its great example of extreme democratic opinions terminating, after a sanguinary struggle, in military despotism, but for the universal up-heaving of the continental kingdoms in an earthquake of which the tremblings have not yet subsided."—KNIGHT.

**5. The Afghan War.**—From 1839 to 1842 a war raged in

Afghanistan.[1] Great Britain had long felt a jealousy of Russia and the designs of Russia in the East; and who should rule the state of Afghanistan, which lies between India and Persia, was a matter of great importance to Britain, for Persia has generally been under the influence of St. Petersburg. Cabul, the Afghan capital, was taken; but the victors found the tables turned upon them, and that, though they had seized the city, they were themselves besieged and could not get out. A host of Afghans had surrounded them. Sir William Macnaughten, the British envoy, was invited with his officers to a conference, and there treacherously murdered by the Afghan leader himself; and the army left Cabul one cold winter morning—the snow a foot deep, and the thermometer below freezing-point—to march to Jellalabad, a distance of ninety miles. They had to march through the Khoord Cabul and the Khyber Passes, formidable defiles, five miles long, and shut in on either side by a line of lofty hills, "every point of which was alive with fierce and treacherous mountaineers." In this pass alone about three thousand lives were lost. Inch by inch, foot by foot, hour after hour, day after day, the British army fought against countless hordes until it had dwindled down to twenty muskets. At short intervals the Afghans made simultaneous rushes from the two sides and committed wholesale slaughter. One morning the officers on the ramparts of Jellalabad saw "a solitary mounted man come reeling, tottering on;" unable to sit up, he made his way clinging to the neck of his pony; and a party of cavalry sent out to succour him, brought him in wounded, exhausted, and half dead. This was Dr. Brydone, the sole survivor of an army of sixteen thousand men; he had come to tell the story of the massacre of a whole British army (1842).

(i) The Afghans, in 1838, received a Russian Envoy at Cabul; we sent a message to Dost Mohammed, the Amir of Afghanistan, requesting him to dismiss the Russian. He refused; British troops were sent into the country from India; and they seized Cabul, Candahar, and Ghazni—three towns that command the passes into India.

Afghanistan is a country about twice the size of Great Britain and Ireland, and lying along the North-West border of India. It consists of high, arid mountain-lands, with a few fertile valleys. The people are divided into tribes or clans, each with its own chief and its own government. "Nothing is finer than their physique, or worse than their morals."

(ii) It was Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed, who deceived the British by offering them a safe-conduct from Cabul to the Indian frontier.

*Stan* is an Eastern suffix which means *country*. Thus *Beloochistan* is *the country of the Beloochies*, etc.

"When the garrison of Jellalabad were busy on the works toiling with axe and shovel, with their arms piled and their accoutrements laid out close at hand, a sentry on the ramparts, looking out towards the Cabul road, saw a solitary white-faced horseman struggling on towards the fort. The word was passed; the tidings spread. Presently the ramparts were lined with officers, looking out with throbbing hearts, through unsteady telescopes, as with straining eyes tracing the road. Slowly and painfully, as though horse and rider were both in an extremity of mortal weakness, the solitary mounted man came reeling, tottering on. They saw that he was an Englishman. On a wretched weary pony, clinging as one sick or wounded to its neck, he sat, or rather leaned, forward; and there were those who, as they watched his progress, thought that he could never reach, unaided, the walls of Jellalabad. A shudder ran through the garrison. That solitary horseman looked like the messenger of death. Few doubted that he was the bearer of intelligence that would fill their souls with horror and dismay. Their worst forebodings seemed confirmed. There was the one man who was to tell the story of the massacre of a great army. A party of cavalry were sent out to succour him. They brought him in wounded, exhausted, half dead. The messenger was Dr. Brydone; and he now reported his belief that he was the sole survivor of an army of sixteen thousand men."—KAYE.

**6. War in Sind.**—In 1843 a war with the Amirs of Sind (round the mouth and lower courses of the river Indus) broke out. After several battles, in which the great Charles Napier broke the power of the chiefs, the country was annexed to the British Empire by the Governor-General of India. All the chiefs were taken prisoners, with the exception of one, who escaped only to die in exile. North-east of Sind, and higher up the Indus, lies the country of the Five Waters, generally known as the Punjab. The Sikhs, who inhabited this country, a nation of hardy Highlanders, made an unprovoked attack on a British force, and war broke out. The British army was commanded by Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge, and—by the three splendid victories of **Ferozeshah, Aliwal**, and **Sobraon**—the country was subdued, and a treaty of peace was signed at its capital of Lahore. The Second Sikh, or Punjab, War broke out in 1848; but the victory of **Goojerat**, won by Lord Gough in 1849, for ever broke the terrible power of the Sikhs, and annexed the vast territory of the Punjab to the British dominions.

**The Sind War 1843.**

**The Sikh Wars 1845-1849.**

(a) The five rivers are: the Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, and Sutlej.

(b) This word is a compound of two Hindu or Sanscrit words, *punj*, five, and *ab*, a river. The word *punj* we have in our *punch*, a liquor which contains five elements—*wine, brandy, lemon, sugar*, and *water*; and *ab* is the same as our name for a river, *Av-on*. There are fourteen Avons in Great Britain.

(i) **Major Outram**, with one hundred British soldiers, held out for some time against 8000 Sindh warriors, and ultimately withdrew his troops in safety.

(ii) **Sir Charles Napier**, one of the greatest generals Britain has ever produced, fought the battles of **Meeanee** and **Hyderabad**, and by these battles subdued the country of Sind, which is now part of British India.

(iii) The **Sikhs** were magnificent warriors, and were generally in the proportion of three to one. The Battle of Sobraon was, as an exploit, one of the most daring ever

achieved, by which, in open day, a triple line of breastworks, flanked by formidable redoubts, bristling with artillery, manned by thirty-two regular regiments of infantry, was assaulted and carried.

(iv) About a month before the **Battle of Goojerat**, there was fought, by Lord Gough, the **Battle of Chillianwallah**, in which there was a most terrible slaughter, and both sides claimed the victory.

(v) The month after, March 1849, the Punjab was annexed; and the **Maharajah Dhuleep Singh** was handsomely pensioned and sent over to England.

*Rajah=rex* (reg-s); and *maha=mag-nus* (great). Hence Maharajah means Great King (or Emperor).

**7. The Great Exhibition.**—It occurred to the thoughtful and benevolent mind of Prince Albert that an Exhibition of the Works of All Nations would have the result of making known to us the points in which the manufactures and commerce of Great Britain were strongest, and those in which they were weakest; and that such a meeting would probably do something to promote the desire for peace and industry throughout the civilised world, while the people of Britain would learn a new love for art and science, and for the triumphs of labour. Mr. Paxton, the head gardener at Chatsworth, the seat of the Duke of Devonshire, sent in a design for a palace of glass and iron, which was erected in Hyde Park. It was nearly two thousand feet long, covered a space of more than eighteen acres, and overarched several large elm-trees; one hundred thousand persons visited it in a single day, and more than half a million pounds sterling was paid by the public for admission. Contributions of manufactures, or of produce, came from every land on the face of the globe; and visitors of every known nation came from the ends of the earth to see this new thing. This Exhibition of 1851 undoubtedly gave a great impulse to the improvement of every kind of manufacture and all the mechanical arts; and it induced other nations to follow the bright example. Exhibitions, very much larger and more extensive than the first, have been since held in Paris, Dublin, and Vienna; and the largest of all took place at Paris in 1889, to commemorate the hundredth anniversary of the French Revolution.

(i) Enthusiastic persons thought that the **Great Exhibition** was to mark the opening of a millennium of peace; and that the nations would give up making war on each other, and try to rival each other in peaceful arts and industries. In December of the same year—1851—Louis Napoleon carried out his *coup d'état*; made himself Emperor in 1852, and declared war against Austria in 1859. Since the year 1851, the so-called "Year of Peace," there have been more terrible wars in Europe and

America than ever took place before; and of these the bloodiest were the American Civil War of 1861-65, the Franco-German War of 1870-71, and the Russo-Japanese War of 1904.

(ii) The glass-and-iron building of the Great Exhibition now stands, very much enlarged and improved, —the "Crystal Palace"—on Sydenham Hill, near Norwood.

**8. The Crimean War.**—The Turks and Russians had had for many years a standing quarrel about the Holy Places in Jerusalem—a quarrel which Russia had always kept open, for the purpose of furthering her own ends. Suddenly, without any formal declaration of war, the Russian army crossed the Pruth into Moldavia, and the sword was drawn. Britain and France—Napoleon III. was then Emperor—both took the side of Turkey, and assisted her with their fleets and their armies. Fleets were sent both to the Black and the Baltic Seas, and armies to the Danube and the Crimea. The operations in the Baltic were little better than a blockade; the Russians would not come out in the summer, and could not come out in the winter. Soon after the successful defence of Silistria by the Turks, the Crimea—a beautiful peninsula in the north-east of the Black Sea—became the chief theatre of war. The united French and British armies, which amounted to fifty-one thousand men, met an army of fifty thousand Russians occupying a strong position on the steep slopes of the river Alma. Under showers of shot and shell, which "tore the river into foam" with its deadly hail, our men crossed the stream, swarmed up the heights, took the Russian guns; and in a few hours the Russians had fled, leaving eight thousand dead or wounded on the field of battle.

(i) **Nicholas**, the Czar of Russia—as the Head of the Greek Church—claimed the right of protecting all Christians, especially Greek Christians, in Turkey. This right, if admitted by the Sultan, would have given him the power of interfering in Turkish affairs whenever he chose.

(ii) **Sebastopol** was then, and is now, the arsenal of the Black Sea. It is to that sea what Malta is to the Mediterranean, and Portsmouth is to the English Channel.

(iii) The **Alma** is a river in the west of the Crimea, which the ALLIED ARMY had to cross before they could reach and besiege Sebastopol.

> "Lord Raglan gave orders for our whole line to advance. Up rose those serried masses; and passing through a fearful shower of round case-shot and shell, they dashed into the Alma, and floundered through the waters, which were literally torn into foam by the deadly hail. . . . 'Highlanders,' said Sir Colin Campbell, 'I am going to ask a favour of you: it is that you will act so as to justify me in asking permission of the Queen for you to wear a bonnet! Don't pull a trigger till you're within a yard of the Russians."—DR. RUSSELL.

**9. Balaklava.**—The Allies then marched to the south of the strong fortress of **Sebastopol**, and took up a position in front of the enemy's

walls, with **Balaklava**—a port about six miles off—as their base. The British lines at Balaklava, as held by the smallest number of men, were first attacked by the Russians. Their heavy masses broke through the weak lines with ease, when a single Highland regiment—the 93d—deployed in a "thin red line" only two men deep, and by the skilful use of their rifles stopped the advance of the enemy. It was in this battle, too, that "a blunder of some one" brought out a display of valour such as the world has seldom seen. An error in the pointing[1] of an order caused the Earl of Cardigan to charge a Russian battery with his Light Brigade. They swept across a plain, while the cannon-shot was playing terribly on their advancing lines; they took the battery and sabred the gunners; they beat off the Russian cavalry behind the battery; when, turning to retrace their course, they were met by fresh bodies of cavalry, infantry, and artillery, and had to cut their way through dense masses of armed men. Of six hundred troopers, only about two hundred came back.[2] "At the distance of twelve hundred yards," says Dr. Russell, "the whole line of the enemy belched forth, from thirty iron mouths, a flood of smoke and flame, through which hissed the deadly balls."

"Stormed at with shot and shell,
While horse and hero fell
They that had fought so well
Came through the jaws of Death,
Back from the mouth of Hell,
All that was left of them,
Left of six hundred."

(i) **Balaklava** was the port into which all provisions and ammunition came for the allies; and it was of the highest importance for the Russians to get possession of it.

(ii) "The Russian gunners, when the storm of cavalry passed, returned to their guns. They saw their own cavalry mingled with the troopers who had just ridden over them; and, to the eternal disgrace of the Russian name, the miscreants poured a murderous volley of grape and canister on the mass of struggling men and horses, mingling friend and foe in one common ruin."—RUSSELL.

**10. Inkermann.**—The Battle of Inkermann was a battle which still more plainly showed the pith and the backbone of the British soldier. Early on a dark November morning in 1854, in a drizzling rain, heavy masses of Russian infantry, supported by ninety guns, as

[1] The punctuation. A comma had been put in the wrong place.
[2] The regiment numbered 607; 409 fell and only 198 escaped.

well as by those on the works of Sebastopol and on the Russian ships in the harbour, fell upon the British lines, and took from us several strong redoubts and a number of guns. Eight thousand British troops, helped by six thousand French, retook the heights and the guns, and for a whole day held them against a Russian force more than three times their own number. Plan there was none on the side of the British; all that was done was done by sheer physical force and unyielding valour; and the Battle of Inkermann is known in history as the "Soldiers' Battle."

(i) The **Battle of Inkermann** was in many places a hand-to-hand fight. The Russians are said to have lost, in killed and wounded, 8000 out of 50,000 men who were engaged.

(ii) During the severe winter of the Crimea, our troops—who had arrived without proper preparation—suffered terribly from the want of proper food and shelter. The Czar Nicholas had before trusted much to his own generals; but he believed now in the power of "Generals January and February." All our soldiers could wish for was only six miles off, in the ships lying in the harbour of Balaklava; but the intervening six miles had been for some time only a sea of mud. At length rails and a locomotive engine were sent out; a railway was made, provisions and huts were brought rapidly up, and the troops were well fed and comfortably housed. But the sufferings of our troops overthrew the Government of Lord Aberdeen, who was replaced by Lord Palmerston.'

**11. The Capture of Sebastopol.**—On the 2d of March 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died of an illness brought on by grief and disappointment; and his son, Alexander II., succeeded to his troubles, dangers, and difficulties. After long and difficult siege operations, the Russians were obliged to evacuate Sebastopol. On the 8th of September 1855, they sank all their line-of-battle ships in the harbour, blew up their magazines, set fire to the whole town, and left for their enemies nothing but piles of blood-stained ruins. The siege had lasted three hundred and forty-nine days; and, with the taking of Sebastopol,[1] the war came practically to an end. Peace was not, however, made till next year, when the Treaty of Paris was signed. The Crimean War cost Britain alone £33,000,000.

(i) "A series of tremendous explosions in the arsenals, and numerous fires, proclaimed about the same time that the enemy was preparing to leave the doomed city. Wandering fires gleamed through the streets and outskirts of the town—point after point became alight—the flames shone out of the windows of the houses—rows of mansions caught and were burnt up; and before daybreak the town of Sebastopol, that

[1] From the Greek *Sebastos*, august or reverend, and *polis*, city. The whole means the *City of the*

fine and stately mistress of the Euxine, on which we had so often turned a longing eye, was on fire from the sea to the Docks and Creek."—RUSSELL.

(ii) The approaches of the British and French, often cut through the rock by gunpowder, had an extent of fully 50 miles.

**12. The Indian Mutiny** (i).—The native princes of India had for some time been filled with the fear that the British intended to deprive them of all their dominions and all their power. Lord Dalhousie, who had been appointed Governor-General in 1848, carried out the policy of annexation with unsparing hand; and his last feat of this kind was the seizure of the kingdom of Oude. But the native soldiers or sepoys had been much encouraged; their letters were carried free; each private soldier had his servant; and a tie as strong as the tie of clanship existed between them and the colonels of their regiments. The native princes, however, had diligently instilled into the minds of these native soldiers of the East India Company's army, that the British Government had resolved to make all of them Christians by forcing them to lose their caste, and that certain cartridges, greased with cow fat and hog's lard, were to be the means of carrying out this criminal purpose. These cartridges were first distributed at Meerut, on the 10th of May 1857. The men to whom they were offered refused to touch them, and were carried off to prison. Their comrades broke into the prison and freed their friends; and, after setting fire to several houses and murdering some Europeans, they marched to Delhi, and proclaimed the native king of Delhi Emperor of Hindustan.

(i) There had also existed and been current in India a prophecy that the dominion of the English should last for only a hundred years. That dominion dated from the Battle of Plassey, which was fought in 1757.

(ii) The mixture of animal fats was intended, it was said, to degrade and discaste the two great religions of India—that of the Hindus, who reverenced the cow, and that of the Mohammedans, who loathed the pig.

(iii) The king of Delhi was a descendant of the Great Mogul; and, in setting him up as Emperor, the rebels thought that they were re-establishing the ancient empire of the Moguls.

The GREAT MOGUL was the name given to the Indian Prince who was descended from the great conqueror of India, TIMOUR THE TARTAR, "the firebrand of the universe." One of his successors made himself Emperor of India, with the seat of government at Delhi. In 1739 Nadir Shah attacked Delhi, sacked it, and shook the Mogul Empire to its foundations. In 1857, the Grand Mogul was seized and banished to Burma; and his two sons were shot, in the midst of a large crowd of followers, by Captain Hodson, of "Hodson's Horse," with his own hands.

**13. The Indian Mutiny** (ii).—Three weeks after, on the 31st of May, the native troops at Lucknow also mutinied; and the two

capitals, Lucknow and Delhi, became the centres of the insurrection. The massacre through treachery of British troops by a Mahratta chief called Nana Sahib, at Cawnpore, the fearful butchery of women and children, whose mutilated bodies were thrown down a well, and the danger in which small numbers of Europeans were placed in lonely stations, stirred the heart of this country with grief and fear for those who were dear to them. The British garrison at Lucknow was surrounded, and Sir Henry Lawrence had received his death-wound when Sir Henry Havelock and Sir James Outram marched to its relief. These two generals made their way into the Residency, but, with the burden of women and children, could not cut their way out again. Sir Colin Campbell, who had started from London at half-an-hour's notice, took command of all the British troops he could muster, and, forcing his way into Lucknow, brought off the garrison, together with the sick and wounded, the women and children, in perfect safety.—Delhi was taken, and the last act of the rebellion closed with the fall of Bareilly on the 7th of May 1858. For his great services in quelling the Indian Mutiny, Sir Colin Campbell was created Lord Clyde, and afterwards raised to the rank of Field-Marshal; and, on the 2d of August of the same year, the Government of India was transferred by Act of Parliament from the East India Company to the British Sovereign who, about twenty years after, in 1876, was created EMPRESS OF INDIA.

(i) **Cawnpore** is a large city of the North-West Provinces, on the right bank of the Ganges. At the outbreak of the mutiny it contained about 1000 Europeans, of whom 560 were women and children.

(a) "At the time of the mutiny, Nana Sahib was about thirty-six years of age. His complexion was sallow, his features strongly marked, and not unpleasing. Like all Mahrattas, both head and face were shaven clean. He was fat, with that unhealthy corpulence which marks the Eastern voluptuary."—TREVELYAN.

(b) "Not urn, nor monolith, nor broken column is so fit a monument for brave men as the crumbling breastwork and the battered wall. And, in like manner, the dire agony of Cawnpore needs not to be figured in marble, or cut into granite, or cast of bronze. There is no fear lest we should forget the story of our people. The whole place is their tomb; and the name thereof is their epitaph. Where the traveller from Allahabad, rousing himself to learn at what stage of his journey he may have arrived, is aware of a voice proclaiming through the darkness the city of melancholy fame,—then those accents, heard for the first time on the very spot itself which they designate, recall more vividly than written or engraven eloquence the memory of fruitless valour and unutterable woe."—TREVELYAN, *Cawnpore*.

(ii) **Lucknow**, the capital of Oude, stands on the Goomtee, a tributary of the Ganges. The relief of Lucknow was one of the most brilliant operations in a war that was filled with actions of the noblest and most daring character.

(iii) **Sir Colin Campbell**, asked by the War Minister of the day, at what time he could

be ready to start for India, quietly replied that, if they could give him half-an-hour to pack up his things, he thought he could be ready then.

(iv) **Delhi** was taken chiefly by the bravery and untiring exertions of the Sikh troops, who had been conquered by us only a few years before (in 1849).

(v) **Bareilly**, on the Ramganga, east of Delhi, was the last place to hold out. It was taken in May 1858.

(vi) **Queen Victoria** was proclaimed EMPRESS OF INDIA (Kaiser-i-Hind), on January 1, 1877, at Delhi—the centre of the rebellion.

The name Kaiser-i-Hind contains three elements: (a) a Latin *Kaiser* (=Caesar); (b) a Persian *i* (=of); and (c) an Aryan *Hind* (=India). The Aryan settlers, coming from the plateau of Iran, called the first river they met *Sindhu* (=the goer), now *Indus*; and the country beyond, Sindya, now Sind.

**14. Our Relations with France.**—Napoleon III. was on the throne of France from the year 1852 to 1870. His relations with Britain were always friendly; but in 1858 an event occurred which was nearly bringing about a rupture. Napoleon had incurred the hostility and the vengeance of a band of Italian conspirators, called the Carbonari. They had tried him in secret, found him guilty of treason to their society (of which he had been sworn a member), and deputed three men to go to Paris and put him to death. Of these three Orsini was chief. The plot failed. The bombshells had been made and prepared in London; the conspirators had lived in London for some time; and the French soldiers looked upon London as a centre of conspiracies. A number of French colonels sent an address to the Emperor, asking that they might be allowed to invade England, and "rout out this nest of treasons." Napoleon was so ill-advised as to publish this fiery address in the *Moniteur*—the official organ of his Government. Across the Channel, on the other hand, Lord Palmerston was so ill-advised as to bring into Parliament his **Conspiracy to Murder Bill.** But both the nation and Parliament were too much disgusted by the threatening language of the French officers; the Bill was thrown out; and the reply to the threats of the French was the starting up of the **British Volunteers.** Their motto was and is "Defence not Defiance." The very next year, however, in 1860, a Treaty of Commerce, which had been negotiated by an able statesman, **Richard Cobden,** was signed between France and Great Britain.

Volunteer Rifles 1859.

(i) Three bombs were thrown at the carriage of the Emperor and Empress. Neither of these personages was hurt; but about twenty bystanders were wounded.

(ii) Mr. Cobden's French Treaty had the effect of removing heavy duties on French

silks and French wine; and it is from this date that cheap French wines began to come into this country.

(iii) In the end of 1861, the **Prince Consort** (Prince Albert) died, to the intense grief and sorrow of the Queen, and to the great regret of her subjects. Since their marriage in 1840 he had been the chief confidential adviser of the Queen.

**15. The Work of Parliament** (i).—The **First Parliament** of Queen Victoria was a continuation of the last Parliament of William IV., under the administration of Lord Melbourne. It was dissolved two months after the accession of the Queen, and did nothing worthy of any remark.—The **Second Parliament** was summoned for the end of the year. It occupied itself with the much-needed amelioration of the criminal code; and it passed two **Regency Acts.** It also approved of Rowland Hill's new **Postage Scheme** (1839), and allowed it to appear as part of the Budget. This year of 1839 also saw the beginning of **National Education**, as it placed the management of the Education Grant under the control of a Committee of the Privy Council, and compelled those schools that were aided by the State to submit to the inspection of the State.—The **Third Parliament** of this reign contained a large majority of Conservatives; and Sir Robert Peel was called upon to form a Ministry. The time of this Parliament was almost wholly taken up with financial questions. In the year 1842 Peel was able to carry his **Corn-Law Act**, by which a duty, according to a "sliding scale," was put upon corn, the lower the price of wheat, the higher the duty; and contrariwise. He also imposed, for the first time, an **Income-Tax** on all incomes, from whatever source derived, that rose above £150 a year. In 1846 he was successful enough, aided by the earnest and "unadorned eloquence" of Richard Cobden, and also by the powerful speeches of John Bright, to carry his great measure for the **Repeal of the Corn-Laws**; and he thus established in this country Free Trade in corn.

(i) Transportation was substituted for capital punishment in cases of forgery and the lighter offences (where life was not endangered).

(ii) The **First Regency Act** empowered the **Lord Justices** to administer the affairs of the realm, until the arrival of the then heir, Prince Ernest of Hanover. The **Second Regency Act**, of 1840 (the Queen married in 1840), named **Prince Albert** as Regent in the event of the death of the Queen.

(iii) The **First Education Grant** (1833) was £20,000; and it was paid by the Treasury to the National Society (Established Church), and to the British and Foreign School Society (Nonconformist). In 1839 it was increased to £30,000. (It is now more than three hundred times this.)

(iv) In five Lancashire towns, with a population of nearly a million, only 27,000 children went to school.

(v) The duty on corn, according to the **Sliding Scale**, was never to be more than 20s., or less than 1s. a quarter. It was to be 20s. when wheat fell to 51s. a quarter; and only 1s. when it rose to 73s. The purpose was manifestly to keep the price to consumers somewhere about 71s. or 74s.

(vi) By the Corn Act of 1846, the duty was to be completely abolished in three years. "Peel passed this last measure of his political life amid the reproaches and execrations of his own party."

**16. The Work of Parliament** (ii).—The **Fourth Parliament** of Victoria met in 1847, under the Prime Ministership of Lord John Russell. It took another step in the direction of complete Free Trade, and repealed the **Navigation Laws**; and it also passed the **Ecclesiastical Titles Act**, which was destined to remain a dead letter.—The **Fifth Parliament** met in 1852, under the Coalition Ministry of Lord Aberdeen. Its time was chiefly occupied with the management of the Crimean War, which began in 1854; and its only legislative achievement of any importance was the passing of the **Corrupt Practices Act**. The mismanagement of the war brought about the resignation of Lord Aberdeen;[1] neither Lord John Russell nor Lord Derby was able to form an administration; and Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister. In the midst of war, the agitations of war and the preoccupations of war, Parliament contrived to pass a small but very useful measure—the final repeal of the duty of one penny upon newspapers,—an act which had the effect of making cheap newspapers possible, and therefore of bringing political and social news into the cottage of the poorest labourer. It also passed a much higher vote for education in the Budget—a vote which reached £451,000.—The **Sixth Parliament** met in April 1857—just a few weeks before the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny. It met under Lord Palmerston; but this statesman was defeated on his Conspiracy to Murder Bill, and had to give place to Lord Derby. Its chief achievement was the passing of the **India Act**. Among its minor labours may be mentioned a Bill for the abolition of the "property qualification" in the case of members of parliament, and a small Bribery Act.

(i) The Pope had divided England into sees and ecclesiastical districts, and appointed archbishops and bishops with the titles of their sees. He was, however,

[1] A vote of censure on the Government was brought into the House by Mr. Roebuck, and passed by a majority of 157; and Lord Aberdeen resigned.

careful not to take any title that was actually in use by a bishop of the Church of England. The Bill imposed a fine of £100 on all persons who should adopt and use such titles; no one paid any attention; the titles were conferred and used; the fines were never exacted; and the Act itself was repealed in 1871.

(ii) The chief clauses of the **Corrupt Practices Act** compelled (a) all candidates to spend money only through their authorised agent; and (b) to publish after the election a full account of all they had spent.

(iii) Along with the increase in the Education Vote, the Government gave the charge of schools to the Vice-President of the Council, who in this way became a kind of Minister of Education.

(iv) The old "property qualification" for M.P.s was the possession of property to the annual amount of £600 for county, and £300 for borough-members. This was frequently evaded.

(v) The **Bribery Act** allowed a candidate for Parliament to pay the travelling expenses of a voter—but nothing more.

**17. Great Men.**—The most prominent men in politics and statesmanship during the first part of this reign were **Lord Melbourne, Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell** (afterwards Earl Russell), **Lord Stanley** (afterwards Earl of Derby), **Lord Palmerston, Richard Cobden, John Bright,** and **Daniel O'Connell.** Sir Robert Peel and Lord John Russell, the one on the Conservative, the other on the Liberal, side of politics, were statesmen who gave their time and thoughts to great constructive measures for the benefit, not of a class, but of the whole country; while Cobden and Bright spent the best part of their lives in procuring cheap food for the people, and in advocating free trade. Daniel O'Connell strove for the rights of the Irish People; but he advocated what the British Parliament never would think of granting—the Repeal of the Union between Great Britain and Ireland. The **Earl of Aberdeen,** a man of good abilities but of hesitative character, conducted—and misconducted—the Crimean War. Lord Palmerston was one of the greatest foreign ministers G. Britain has ever seen.

(i) **Lord Melbourne** was the statesman who trained Queen Victoria to her duties as a sovereign. He was no Reformer: his most frequent observation was, "Can't you let it alone?"

(ii) The **Earl of Derby** had as his chief supporter Mr. Benjamin Disraeli (afterwards Earl of Beaconsfield).

(iii) **Daniel O'Connell** held the same relation to the Irish People in the early part of this reign, that Mr. C. S. Parnell did between 1879 and 1890.

(iv) **Lord Palmerston** was an Irish Peer; but, as he did not present himself for election to the British House of Peers, he was eligible for the House of Commons. He sat for Tiverton.

# CHAPTER VII.

# VICTORIA

## PART II.

**1. The Cotton Famine.**—The great Civil War which broke out in the United States in 1861, and which lasted about five years, had an important influence upon the well-being of our country. The stoppage of all communication with the Southern States, in which alone cotton was grown, produced a cotton famine in the kingdom. This was of course most severely felt in Lancashire, where millions of people earn their livelihood by spinning and weaving cotton; and, at the period of its greatest severity, about half a million of persons in that large and wealthy county were entirely dependent on funds received from charity. The weekly loss of wages amounted to £160,000. Nearly three millions of money were raised to succour those who had been thrown out of work by no fault of their own, and who endured their privations and sufferings without a murmur.

(i) The Government at Washington (of the Northern States) ordered the blockade of the Confederate ports (of the Southern States); and this quite cut off our supply of cotton.

(ii) In Lancashire hundreds of thousands of persons were thrown out of work, and many were starving. The climax of distress was probably reached in December of 1862, when nearly 500,000 persons were dependent on charitable or on parochial funds.

(iii) The money raised as a Relief Fund amounted to £2,735,000, of which about a million and a half was raised in Lancashire alone.

(iv) The United States, during the greatest pressure of the famine, sent two ships laden with provisions for the relief of the Lancashire operatives.

**2. Reform and Ireland.**—Lord Palmerston had been Prime Minister from 1859 till his death in 1865. He had busied himself most with foreign affairs; he had managed the House of Commons with great skill and tact; and he had always quietly opposed any

great organic changes. But his death proved the signal for new demands for parliamentary reform; Mr. Gladstone was leader of the House in 1866, Earl Russell being Prime Minister; and the former insisted on bringing in a Reform Bill. It was thrown out; the Ministry resigned; Lord Derby became Prime Minister; and his new leader Mr. Disraeli, carried the Reform Bill of 1867 with a few changes on the original draught which had been introduced by Mr. Gladstone in 1866.—A more serious matter was now on the hands of the Government. The Fenians, a secret organisation in Ireland, began to show signs of great activity; and Mr. Gladstone, by way of reply, brought forward his proposals for the disestablishment of the Irish Church. These could not be carried during the administration of Mr. Disraeli, who was Prime Minister in 1868; Parliament was dissolved; and Mr. Gladstone took the chief place in the Government, with a majority of more than a hundred Liberals in the House of Commons. By the aid of this majority the **Irish Church Act** became law. The same Parliament passed an **Irish Land Act**, by which Irish tenants received the power of selling their tenant-right and their unexhausted improvements to another.

**Reform Bill of 1867.**

**Irish Church Act 1869.**

(i) The outrages which "called the attention" of Parliament to the condition of Ireland were: (a) the rescue of Fenian prisoners at Manchester by a band of Fenians armed with revolvers; (b) the blowing up of the wall of Clerkenwell prison to aid the escape of a Fenian who was taking exercise in the yard—the explosion killed twelve persons; and (c) the attempt to seize the stand of arms in Chester Castle.

(ii) The **Irish Church Act** disestablished the Church of England in Ireland. The Church thus became a Free Episcopal Church. The clergy were fully compensated for the loss of their life-interests; and the remaining part of the funds was allotted to the relief of unavoidable suffering.

(iii) By the **Irish Land Act** of 1870 (a) Ulster Tenant Right and other customs of long standing received a legal status and recognition; (b) the tenant could obtain compensation for disturbance; and (c) compensation was also given for unexhausted improvements.

(iv) The same Parliament (the Ninth of Victoria) also passed in 1870 the **Elementary Education Act** (England), which was brought in and carried by the earnest and thoughtful efforts of an able statesman, W. E. Forster. The chief object of this Bill was the creation of School Boards in all parts of England where they were needed. Most of the large towns and cities of England have now School Boards.

(v) The same Parliament also passed a **University Test Act** and a **Ballot Act.** The former allowed Nonconformists and Catholics to study at the two great Universities; the latter made all voting for a member of Parliament perfectly secret.

**3. Minor Wars in Africa** (i).—Great Britain, during the long reign of Queen Victoria, was—with the exception of the Crimean struggle against Russia—never engaged in war with any of the great powers. But she has always some little war on hand; and, as her Empire stretches over all parts of the globe, she has had to do more than her share of fighting for the purpose of restoring and keeping the peace in many distant places. In the early part of the reign, Britain had, in South Africa, to go through two Kaffir wars, the latter of which lasted from 1850 to 1853. Disputes on the Cape Coast, in 1874, between the king of Ashanti and some of our allies, obliged us to send an expedition against him. Sir Garnet Wolseley marched from the coast through a dense forest, took Coomassie, burnt it, and re-embarked his men at twelve o'clock of the very day on which he had promised to leave.—The Zulu war of 1879 was undertaken to drive back the hardy warriors of King Cetewayo. It began in disaster of the most terrible kind: it ended in the capture of the Zulu king, and the complete subjugation of his people.—Disputes with the Boers of South Africa also led to a war in 1880-81.—But by far the most important operations of war in Africa took place in Egypt in the year 1882. Britain, as the Guardian of the Water-ways of the World, has always felt it both her duty and her interest to keep the water high-way to India safe from all chance of injury. She accordingly, in 1875, purchased from the then Khedive of Egypt shares in the Suez Canal to the value of £4,000,000. The oppression of the Fellaheen from the grinding taxes they had to pay, to meet the interest on the loans raised in France and Britain, roused the indignation of many patriotic Egyptians, at the head of whom **Arabi**, an officer in the Egyptian army, placed himself. Arabi led an army into Alexandria, raised earthworks, and mounted powerful guns. Egypt was at this time under the joint protectorate of France and Britain; but France held aloof from interfering with Arabi. We, determined not to leave the property, and perhaps even the very existence, of the Suez Canal, to the tender mercies of an Egyptian rebel, sent out a fleet under Sir B. Seymour and an army under Sir Garnet Wolseley. Seymour bombarded Alexandria, and knocked Arabi's fortifications to pieces; Wolseley put the army of Arabi completely to rout at **Tel-el-Kebir.**

(i) The disaster of **Isandula** was the most memorable incident of the Zulu War. An

English regiment, under Colonel Durnford, was nearly annihilated by the Zulus, armed with assegais.

(ii) The gallant defence of **Rorke's Drift** was some compensation for the slaughter of Isandula. Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead, with only eighty men of the 24th regiment, fought all night an army of four thousand Zulus from behind a barricade hastily constructed of bags and biscuit-tins. The Zulus were armed with the rifles they had taken at Isandula.

(iii) **Prince Louis Napoleon**, the only child of the ex-Empress of the French, was killed in the Zulu War in 1879.

*Fellaheen* is the plural of *Fellah*, the Egyptian name for peasant.

**4. Minor Wars in Africa** (ii).—Meanwhile, another and a greater danger was approaching from the far South—from the Soudan. A Mohammedan religious leader or "Messiah," with the title of "The Mahdi," hoisted the green banner of the Prophet, proclaimed a religious war against the Egyptians, and attracted to his side thousands of fanatical Mohammedans. He annihilated an Egyptian army under General Hicks (Hicks Pasha); he laid siege to the towns held by Egyptian garrisons; he threatened Khartoum—a strong position at the meeting of the Blue and the White Nile. A great and enthusiastic soldier, General Gordon (commonly called "Chinese Gordon," from his having suppressed the dangerous Tae-Ping rebellion in China), was sent out to put down the Mahdi. Alone, or almost alone, he made his way through Africa and threw himself into Khartoum. The people hailed him as "Sultan and Saviour of Kordofan;" but his powers and his influence were gradually sapped by treachery, and, before aid could reach him from home, he was murdered (1885) in the city he had striven to save. At other points in the Soudan there was heavy fighting. The Hadendowas ("Fuzzy-Wuzzy") are among the most daring soldiers in the world; and their unhesitating belief in their Prophet Mohammed inspired them to throw themselves upon our squares, in spite of Martini rifles and the deadly hail of Gatling mitrailleuses; and they sometimes—as at **El-Teb**—succeeded in doubling up a British square. In the end the Soudan was abandoned for about ten years to the bloodstained tyranny of the Mahdi and his successor the Khalifa.

"Warrior of God, man's friend, not laid below,
But somewhere dead, far in the waste Soudan,
Thou livest in all hearts, for all men know
This earth has borne no simpler, nobler man."—TENNYSON.

**5. Turkey and Great Britain.**—Eastern affairs have for many generations occupied the time of Parliament and filled the thoughts of British statesmen. Russia has long had an eye on Constantinople, the most lovely site in Europe for a capital, and at one time the *entrepôt* of trade between the East and the West. The policy of Britain is to keep that site out of Russian hands, and to allow the maturing of political circumstances and the growth of young nations in the Balkan Peninsula to produce the result—peaceably, if possible—that it shall become the capital of the modern kingdom of Greece. In 1876 the Bulgarians had risen against the cruelty and oppression of their Turkish masters; the Bashi Bazouks (Turkish Irregulars) were sent into Bulgaria, where they slaughtered men, women, and children; these "Bulgarian atrocities" excited the indignation of civilised Europe, and the sympathy of the Russians; and a Russian army invaded Turkey in the spring of 1877. The Turks fought—especially at **Plevna**—with the most heroic daring and the most tenacious valour; but the greater numbers and superior military skill of the Russians at length bore down the Ottoman troops. The Russians marched to within a day's journey of Constantinople; but the action of Lord Beaconsfield compelled them to submit their claims on, and their arrangements with, Turkey to the arbitrament of the Great Powers of Europe. A Congress was held at Berlin; Lord Beaconsfield attended it in person; he assisted in cutting down Turkey-in-Europe to very narrow limits; and he secured for Britain the possession of Cyprus. This was done by the famous **Treaty of Berlin.**

**Berlin Treaty 1878.**




Turkey (white) in 1640.

(i) The **Bulgarian Atrocities** brought Mr. Gladstone out of the retirement into which he had betaken himself after his defeat in the General Election of 1874; and, from the date of 1876, he gave Mr. Disraeli's government no peace.

(ii) Turkey had, in the year 1640, held the whole of South-eastern Europe as far north as Pressburg, and had even threatened Vienna and the existence of Austria. But, since that date, she has been gradually pressed back, more and more to the south, until now she holds in Europe only a narrow strip of country between the Black Sea and the Adriatic. She has lost, in succession, Bessarabia, Roumania, Bosnia, Servia, Bulgaria, and Eastern Roumelia, Thessaly, etc.



Turkey (white) in 1878.

(iii) The ordinary world considered the cutting out of so many countries a process of amputation; Lord Beaconsfield, with grave humour, called it "a concentration of the powers" of Turkey.

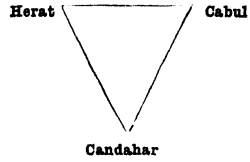
**6. The Afghan War.**—Russia, checked in her designs on Turkey by the Treaty of Berlin, now turned her attention to Afghanistan, and endeavoured to brew trouble for us on the borders of our Indian Empire. In 1878 she sent an envoy to Cabul; Lord Beaconsfield insisted that Shere Ali—the Ameer of Afghanistan—should receive an ambassador from us also. Sir Louis Cavagnari was sent; but, a month after his arrival, the British Residency was attacked; and he and the whole of his suite, rushing out, were slaughtered in the streets of Cabul by the people of the city, who were "seething with anger against the infidel foreigner." Sir Frederick Roberts marched upon Cabul and occupied it; Ayoob Khan, a son of Shere Ali, raised an army at Herat, and marched against Candahar, which was held by British troops. General Burrows was sent out to meet him, with a small army of two thousand men, of whom only five hundred were

British soldiers. The enemy had six times the number of men and three times the number of guns. They met at **Maiwand**; and the result was a terrible defeat and a fearful slaughter of the British troops. Ayoob Khan pressed on to Candahar, and laid siege to it; but General Roberts, after a march which is one of the most brilliant and famous in military history —a march of 320 miles—fell at once upon Ayoob Khan, routed his army with terrific slaughter, and captured the whole of his guns. Abdurrahman was made Ameer of the country; and he consented to receive a British Resident in Cabul, and to accept from our Government a yearly pension of £120,000.

**Battle of Maiwand 1880.**

**Battle of Candahar 1880.**

(i) The three towns, **Cabul**, **Herat**, and **Candahar**, are at once the largest towns in the country, and also the most important strategic points. They stand at the three angles of a triangle.




(ii) Sir Frederick Roberts's army consisted of British, Sikh, and Ghoorka troops. The last are renowned for their wiry and sinewy build, and their immense activity.

**7. Ireland.**—The affairs of Ireland continued to take up a large proportion of the time of Parliament during the reign of Queen Victoria, and more especially towards the latter part of the reign. In 1881 Parliament passed a second **Irish Land Act**, the purpose of which was to establish Land Courts to settle all differences arising between landlord and tenant. In 1885 a bill was passed for lowering the qualification for county voters and putting them on the same footing as voters in towns. This measure added over two millions of voters to the constituencies of the kingdom; and it gave a great deal more power to the Home Rule Party in Ireland. This party was led by Charles Stewart Parnell—an Irish Protestant of American descent. This party formed in Ireland a number of leagues—such as the Land League, the National League, and others. The league-members over and over again suffered imprisonment for the cause they had at heart; but no kind of treatment or punishment seemed able to turn them from their purpose. In 1886 Mr. Gladstone, who was converted

to the Irish opinions regarding the proper way of ruling Ireland, brought in a Bill for giving a Home Parliament to the Irish on College Green in Dublin; and, upon that Bill, he dissolved Parliament, and appealed to the country in a General Election. He sustained a severe defeat. The Liberal Party split up into two—the Gladstonian Liberals and the Liberal Unionists. The Tory Party, led by Lord Salisbury and Mr. W. H. Smith, found itself, at the meeting of the House of Commons, by the assistance of the Liberal Unionists, in a majority of 118; and Mr. Gladstone resigned office. From that time the era of Conservative supremacy commenced. With one short interval (1892 to 1895) Conservative Ministries controlled the destinies of the country from 1886 till the first years of the twentieth century.

(i) The House of Commons now numbers 670 members. Scotland received in the Bill of 1885 twelve additional seats, and her members now number 72.

(ii) Three-cornered constituencies were also abolished; and the country was divided into "parliamentary divisions"—each containing about 50,000 persons.

(iii) London has now more than 60 members.

**8. The Work of Parliament** (i).—The **Seventh Parliament** of this reign met in 1859, under the administration of Lord Derby; but, as the Liberals found themselves in a majority, Lord Derby was quickly replaced by Lord Palmerston, who appointed Mr. Gladstone his Chancellor of the Exchequer. Mr. Gladstone, in 1860, made a treaty of commerce—negotiated by Mr. Cobden—between France and Britain, which permitted the introduction of cheap wines at a low duty. In this year of 1860, also, the Commons finally asserted and vindicated their sole right of control over all moneys and money bills. The chief legislative achievement of this Parliament was the **Bankruptcy Act** of 1861, by which imprisonment for debt was abolished, and only fraudulent debt was regarded as a crime.—The **Eighth Parliament** met in 1866, with Earl Russell (formerly Lord John) as Prime Minister in the House of Lords, and Mr. Gladstone (who was Chancellor of the Exchequer) as Leader of the House of Commons. The Liberal Party had a large majority; and Mr. Gladstone introduced a new **Reform Bill**; but, owing to the secession of a number of prominent Liberals, the Government was overthrown, and Lord Derby came into power, with Mr. Disraeli (who was Chancellor of the Exchequer) as Leader of the House. This Conservative Government brought in a new **Reform Bill** of its own, which passed both Houses,

and became law in 1867. In the beginning of 1868, Lord Derby sent in his resignation to the Queen, and Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister. Mr. Gladstone introduced to this Parliament his famous **Irish Church Resolutions**, and carried these against the Government by a large majority. Mr. Disraeli thereupon resigned in April; but agreed to carry on the business of the realm till autumn, when he would dissolve Parliament, go to the country, and ask the opinion of the constituencies on the Irish Church Question. One of the most important Acts passed by this Parliament was an Act for the taking over by Government of all Electric Telegraph Lines from private companies. From 1868, therefore, Telegraphy became a department of the Post-Office. This **Eighth Parliament** of Queen Victoria was the last Parliament elected under the Reform Bill of 1832.

(i) In 1860 the Government brought in a Bill for the abolition of the duty on Paper. This Bill was thrown out by the Lords. But it was, though not in form, in reality a Money Bill; and the Commons contended that, by the British Constitution, the Lords had no power of any kind over the collection or the expenditure of the moneys of the nation. Lord Palmerston afterwards brought in Resolutions which secured to the Commons the exclusive power over all moneys and money questions.

(ii) The following are the chief points of difference between the Reform Bills of Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Disraeli:

| Liberal Reform Bill. | Conservative Reform Bill. |
|---|---|
| (a) Borough Franchise, £7 rental. | (a) Borough Franchise, £10 rental. |
| (b) County Franchise, £14 ,, | (b) County Franchise, £12 ,, |
| (c) Lodger's Franchise, £10 ,, | (c) Lodger's Franchise, £10 ,, |

The Conservatives also invented "three-cornered constituencies"—that is, boroughs which return three members, but in which each voter has only two votes. These were done away with in 1885.

(iii) The secession of Liberals was called by Mr. John Bright the "Cave of Adullam"; and the chief Adullamites were: Mr. Robert Lowe, Lord Elcho, Mr. Horsman, and Earl Grosvenor.

> "And every one that was in distress, and every one that was in debt, and every one that was discontented, gathered themselves unto him."—1 Sam. xxii. 2.

(iv) The chief purpose of the **Irish Church Resolutions** was to disestablish and disendow the Church in Ireland—mainly on the ground that five out of every six Irishmen were Roman Catholics, and that it was unjust to take the land of the Irish for an alien church, and thus, as it were, compel them to pay for their own conversion.

**9. The Work of Parliament** (ii).—The **Ninth Parliament** of the Queen met in the end of the year 1868. It was elected under the new and extended franchise; and it contained of Liberals a

majority of 132. It had a great deal of work to do; and it did much. In 1869 it passed the **Irish Church Act**, which had the effect of freeing the Episcopal Church in Ireland from all connection with the State. In 1870 it passed the **Irish Land Act**; and in the same year it carried into law the **Elementary Education Act.** It likewise passed a Bill to abolish **Purchase in the Army**; and it gave to the three kingdoms security in voting according to a man's own private opinions in the **Ballot Act.**

**10. Great Men.**—The two most distinguished politicians and statesmen in the latter half of the reign of Queen Victoria were beyond doubt **Mr. Benjamin Disraeli** (afterwards Earl of Beaconsfield) and **Mr. William Ewart Gladstone.** The former took the leadership of the Conservative Party when it had dwindled both in numbers and in influence, gave it heart and guidance, and led it back to power and office. Mr. Gladstone began his political life as a High Tory, was next a Peelite, then a Liberal; and was next the leader of the party called the Gladstonian Liberals. The **Duke of Devonshire** (formerly the Marquis of Hartington) is the most distinguished man among the Liberal Unionists; and second to him—if second—comes **Mr. Joseph Chamberlain.** Another distinguished Conservative statesman, who died in 1903, was the **Marquis of Salisbury. Mr. William Edward Forster** distinguished himself by his Education Act, and also as Chief Secretary for Ireland. **Mr. Charles Stewart Parnell** was the leader of the Irish Party; and **Lord Randolph Churchill** was the leader of the left or democratic wing of the compact Conservative Party.

(i) **Lord Hartington** was the eldest son of the Duke of Devonshire, and went to the House of Lords as Duke of Devonshire himself on the death of his father (1891).

(ii) The proper and legal name of Lord Randolph Churchill was the Hon. Randolph Churchill. He was a younger son of the late Duke of Marlborough. (Compare the Hon. John Russell—commonly called Lord John Russell.)

**11. The Queen's Jubilee.**—The year 1887 is memorable as the **Fiftieth Year**—or Jubilee Year—of the reign of Queen Victoria. Few British monarchs had reigned so long; no British monarch had ever seen so many and so remarkable changes. The people of Britain—and more especially of London—resolved to celebrate the 21st of June with all the emphasis in their power. The Queen went in state from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Abbey. Many

persons passed the night in the streets to see the procession; the houses and streets were decked with flags, banners, streamers, evergreens, festoons, and triumphal arches of every description; a special service was held in Westminster Abbey, which was crowded from floor to ceiling; and the Queen also held, on successive days, reviews of her troops and of her navy.

(i) At Portsmouth the Queen, on board the yacht *Victoria and Albert*, passed through a fleet of 135 ships of various descriptions, moored in three columns. Each ship fired twenty-one guns as the Queen passed. At night the whole fleet was illuminated by electricity.

(ii) Her Majesty wrote a letter to the Home Secretary, in which the following sentence occurred: "I am anxious to express to my people my warm thanks for the kind, and more than kind, reception I met with on going to and returning from Westminster Abbey with all my children and grandchildren. . . . It has shown me that the labour and anxiety of fifty long years, twenty-two of which I spent in unclouded happiness . . . have been appreciated by my people."

**12. The British Empire.**—Great Britain, by the aid of her stores of iron and coal, still more by the courage, thoughtfulness, and diligence of her people, has placed ships on every lake, river, sea, and ocean, and has helped almost every nation on the face of the globe to pierce its country with roads and with railways. Great Britain—an agricultural country till 1760—is now one vast workshop; and her ports send to and receive from every nation in the world immense quantities of exports and imports. And Great Britain is not only the hardest working country in the world: her people are the most daring and persevering explorers. The countries we explore we also hold; and hence the British Empire has grown to be the largest and most populous empire on the face of the globe.—A great past, a great present, a most hopeful future—these are the heritage of every man and woman born into the United Kingdom. And, among all our triumphs, the triumphs of the mind over error are the greatest, because all can share in them: all can share in the triumphs of our language and our literature; all can be inspired, stimulated, and uplifted by them. No country can show greater thinkers, greater writers, greater poets.

We must be free or die who speak the tongue
That Shakespeare spake; the faith and morals hold
That Milton held: in everything we are sprung
From Earth's first blood, have titles manifold.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF QUEEN VICTORIA'S REIGN DOWN TO 1890.

**1837.** **Accession of Alexandrina Victoria.**

Revolt in Lower Canada.

**1838.** The People's Charter."

**1839.** Rowland Hill's Postage Scheme.

**1840.** The Queen marries Prince Albert.

**1842.** Peel's Sliding Scale.

**1843.** The Free Church movement in Scotland.

**1844.** Trial of Daniel O'Connell.

**1845.** (a) The Queen's Colleges in Ireland.
(b) Failure of the Irish Potato Crop.

**1846.** **REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS.**
(a) Potato Famine in Ireland.
(b) Grant of £10,000,000 for relief of Irish Poor.

**1849.** Encumbered Estates Act (Ireland).

**1850.** (a) Death of Sir R. Peel.
(b) "Papal Aggression."

**1851.** **The Great Exhibition.**

**1852.** Death of the Duke of Wellington.

**1854.** **The Crimean War.**
(i) Battle of the Alma.
(ii) Battle of Balaklava.
(iii) Battle of Inkermann.

**1855.** Capture of Sebastopol.
Newspaper duty repealed.

**1856.** **Treaty of Peace.**

**1857.** **THE INDIAN MUTINY.**
(i) Massacre at Cawnpore.
(ii) Capture of Delhi.
(iii) Relief of Lucknow.

**1858.** The Conspiracy to Murder Bill.
Capture of Lucknow.
Government of India transferred to the Crown.

**1859.** The Volunteers established.

**1861.** **Death of the Prince Consort.**

**1862.** Lancashire Relief Committee.
Escape of the Alabama.

**1863.** Marriage of the Prince of Wales.

**1865.** Death of Lord Palmerston.

**1867.** **New Reform Bill.**
of Fenian prisoners at Man-

**1868.** **War in Abyssinia.**

**1869.** **Disestablishment of the Irish Church.**

**1870.** **The Irish Land Act.**
**The Elementary Education Act.**
Civil Service appointments now open to competition.

**1871.** **The Treaty of Washington.**
The purchase of Commissions in the army abolished by Royal Warrant.

**1872.** **The Ballot Act.**

**1873.** Death of Napoleon III. at Chislehurst.

**1874.** Sudden dissolution of Parliament by Mr. Gladstone.
Mr. Butt's motion on Home Rule rejected.

**1875.** The Government purchases £4,000,000 worth of shares in the Suez Canal.

**1876.** Mr. Disraeli goes to the House of Peers as **Earl Beaconsfield.**

**1878.** **The Congress of Berlin.**

**1879.** Irish Land League.

**1880.** Agitation in Ireland.

**1881.** **Irish Land Bill.**
**Death of Lord Beaconsfield.**
(i) Arrest of Mr. Parnell and his colleagues.
(ii) The Land League proclaimed as a 'Criminal Association."

**1882.** Release of Mr. Parnell and his friends.
**Murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish.**

**1883.** New Irish Coercion Act.
Hicks Pasha and his Army totally destroyed in the Soudan.

**1885.** **Murder of Gordon at Khartoum.**

**1886.** **Defeat of Mr. Gladstone on Home Rule.**

**1887.** **JUBILEE OF QUEEN VICTORIA.**
Irish Coercion Act.

**1889.** Death of Robert Browning.

**1890.** Great Britain cedes Heligoland to Germany.

## IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1839.** Candahar taken.
New Zealand colonised.

**1841.** Hong-kong ceded to Great Britain.
Insurrection at Cabul.

**1842.** Massacre in the Khyber Pass.

**1843.** Sind annexed.

**1845.** The First Sikh War.

**1848.** **Flight of Louis Philippe of France.**
(i) Insurrections in Prussia, Austria, Italy, etc.
(ii) Revolutions in Spain, Poland, Hungary, etc.
**Louis Napoleon** President of the French Republic.

**1849.** The Second Sikh War.
Annexation of the Punjab.

**1851.** **Coup-d'État in Paris by Louis Napoleon.**

**1852.** Louis Napoleon Prince-President for life (Jan.). Louis Napoleon declares himself Emperor with the title of **Napoleon III.** (Dec.).

**1854.** Turkey declares war against Russia.

**1855.** Britain, France, Sardinia, and Turkey attack Russia.
**Death of the Emperor Nicholas.**

**1856.** Annexation of Oude.

**1858.** **Queen Victoria proclaimed Sovereign of India.**

**1859.** France and Sardinia declare war against Austria.
(i) Battle of Magenta.
(ii) Battle of Solferino.

**1860.** Close of the Chinese War by the capture of Pekin.
Treaty with China.
**Victor Emmanuel king of Italy.**

**1861.** **William I., King of Prussia.**
**Bismarck** his Chancellor and chief counsellor.
**The Confederate States of North America** (10 in number) founded.
**American Civil War.**

**1865.** Surrender of General Lee to General Grant.
**Close of the American Civil War.**

**1866.** Austro-Prussian War.
(i) Battle of Sadowa.
(ii) Annexation of Hanover by Prussia.

**1867.** **The Dominion of Canada** established.

**1868.** War with Abyssinia.

**1869.** **Opening of the Suez Canal.**

**1870.** **The Franco-Prussian War.**
(i) Battle of Worth.
(ii) Siege of Metz.
(iii) Surrender of the Emperor Napoleon at Sedan.
(iv) The French overturn the Empire and proclaim a Republic.
(v) German troops surround and besiege Paris.

**1871.** William I. of Prussia, Commander-in-chief of the German Army, takes the title of **Deutscher Kaiser.**
(i) Paris taken by the Germans (Jan.).
(ii) Peace signed between France and Germany (Feb.).
(iii) Insurrection of the Parisian Communists.
(iv) Second Siege of Paris (by the French Army).

**1874.** Wolseley's Expedition to Coomassie (Ashanti).

**1876.** The Bulgarian atrocities.

**1877.** Queen Victoria proclaimed **EMPRESS OF INDIA** at Delhi.
(i) Russo-Turkish War.
(ii) Defence of Plevna.
(iii) Advance of the Russians on Constantinople.

**1878.** **Treaty of Berlin.**

**1879.** **Zulu War.**
(i) Slaughter of the British at Isandula.
(ii) Defeat of the Zulus at Ulundi.
**Murder of British Envoy at Cabul.**

**1881.** Boer War in South Africa.
Emperor Alexander assassinated.
President Garfield assassinated.

**1890.** (i) French protectorate over Madagascar acknowledged.
(ii) The Prince of Wales completes and opens the Forth Bridge.

# CHAPTER VIII.

## VICTORIA—PART III.

## AND

## EDWARD THE SEVENTH

**1. Salisbury as Premier, 1886-1892.**—The Marquess of Salisbury was the political heir of Lord Beaconsfield, and, on the death of that leader in 1881, succeeded to the leadership of the Conservative party. In 1886 he came to enjoy his first long term of power. At the very outset Lord Salisbury's ministry received a rude shock by the resignation of its Chancellor of Exchequer and Leader in the House of Commons, **Lord Randolph Churchill**, who contrived to quarrel with all his colleagues. But a Unionist, Mr. Goschen, was found to occupy his place in the Exchequer, and the leadership of the Lower House was placed in the very safe hands of Mr. W. H. Smith. Perhaps the most important, and certainly the most arduous, post for the time being was that held by **Arthur Balfour**, who was Irish Secretary. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill had just been rejected, and Ireland boiled with bitter feeling and open outrage. Suddenly the *Times* newspaper burst upon the world with a series of articles entitled **Parnellism and Crime**. These articles accused Parnell and his Irish colleagues in the House of Commons of intimidation and incitement to murder, and they further charged Parnell himself with having written a letter to express sympathy with the murders in Phœnix Park. The Government took the matter up, and for more than a year (1888-89) the Parnell Commission (composed of three eminent judges) investigated the charges. Parnell's letter was found to be a forgery, with which a cunning scoundrel had imposed upon the credulity of the *Times*; but for the main charges there was

enough evidence to justify the Commission pronouncing a severe censure on the Parnellian methods, which hinted at murder and were but too often followed by it. A very short time after the finding of the Commission, Parnell's moral character fell under a cloud. Mr. Gladstone cast him off; the Irish priesthood disowned him; and he was deserted by most of his parliamentary colleagues. But the Home Rule battle was yet to go on.

(i) **Robert Cecil**, Marquess of Salisbury, was born in the year 1830. He sat in the House of Commons, first as Lord Robert Cecil, then as Viscount Cranborne, and distinguished himself there by his excellent business habits, a remarkable grasp of detail, and by a tremendous power of sarcasm. Disraeli on one occasion called him "a great master of gibes and flouts and jeers." On his father's death in 1868, he was called to the House of Lords. Lord Salisbury had the credit of conducting the foreign affairs with great success, and, up to the time of his last administration (which began in 1900), he always acted as his own Foreign Secretary.

(ii) The **Phœnix Park Murders** were committed in Dublin in 1882. In that year **Lord Frederick Cavendish** (younger brother to the then Marquis of Hartington) was sent to Ireland as Irish Secretary. On the evening of the very day he landed, a number of "Irish Invincibles" stabbed him to death in Phœnix Park, and at the same time they murdered a Mr. Burke, an official of Dublin Castle, with whom Lord Frederick was walking.

**2. The Second Home Rule Bill.**—Immediately after the atrocious murders in Phœnix Park, a stringent Crimes Act for Ireland was passed by Gladstone's Government in 1882, and another still more stringent by the Conservative Ministry in 1887. Yet still the people of Ireland refused to be coerced, and still the obstructionist Irish members of the House of Commons rendered the transaction of business at Westminster almost impossible. Mr. Gladstone determined to make one more final attempt to end this political unrest and social disorder. He had come into power again, on the fall of Lord Salisbury's Government, in 1892, and in 1893 he produced his **Second Home Rule Bill**. After much fierce and prolonged debating —the Bill started with no fewer than 597 amendments—the measure at last passed the House of Commons, but it was thrown out in the Lords by the decisive majority of 419 to 41. With the rejection of his Bill, Mr. Gladstone's public life ended. He had fought the battle of Home Rule manfully and till he could fight no longer. Early in 1894 he laid down the burden of his last premiership, and **Lord Rosebery** took it up. The most notable feature in Lord Rosebery's

administration was the raising of the **Death Duties** by Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, his Chancellor of the Exchequer. In the year 1895 the Liberals were defeated over a small matter in Supply, and the Conservatives succeeded to their place.

(i) **William Ewart Gladstone** was born in Liverpool in 1809. He died (1898) in his eighty-ninth year, at his country seat of Hawarden in Flintshire. Six times Chancellor of the Exchequer and four times Prime Minister, Mr. Gladstone was one of the grandest Parliamentary figures of his day. As a financier he was very eminent: as an initiator of practical and domestic legislation he has left behind a notable record; and as an orator and parliamentary debater he stands almost unrivalled. The nation accorded to the great political chief a public funeral in Westminster Abbey.

(ii) There were important differences between Gladstone's two **Home Rule Bills.** In the first (1886) Ireland was to have a Parliament of its own sitting at College Green in Dublin, but no Irish Member was for the future to have a seat at Westminster. According to the second (1893) Ireland was to have a Parliament of its own; but it was also to have the right of sending eighty members to Westminster. These members were to have a vote on all Imperial questions, but not on matters which concerned the exclusively local interests of Great Britain.

(iii) In 1894 the **Manchester Ship Canal** was opened by the Queen in person. By means of it large steamers can now unload their cargoes at the wharves of that great city, without having to stop at Liverpool or Birkenhead.

3. **The Jubilee of 1897.**—On the 20th of June 1837, Queen Victoria became Sovereign of the United Kingdom, and on the 22nd of June 1897, she celebrated the sixtieth anniversary of her long, happy and prosperous reign. On that day the Queen proceeded in state from Buckingham Palace to St. Paul's Cathedral, and there on the steps of the great church, in the presence of thousands of her people, she joined in a service of thanksgiving to God for His mercy and goodness towards her and her loyal subjects. That Diamond Jubilee procession was typical of the might and unity of the British Empire. To form her escort were gathered together troops from every quarter of the British dominions, and there followed in her train the Premiers of eleven self-governing Colonies—the stalwart children of a noble mother.

(i) To bring home the Jubilee rejoicings to all classes of the Queen's subjects, and to bring, too, a little pleasure into the lives of those who seldom taste it, the **Princess of Wales** arranged that a dinner should be given (June 24) to 300,000 of the London poor.

(ii) Two days afterwards the **Prince of Wales** (now our King Edward VII.) held a great naval review at Spithead. Never any naval spectacle before made so clear

our national pride and boast—that Britain is Mistress of the Seas. The fleet comprised 165 vessels of the Home Squadron alone, drawn up in four lines; it was manned by 38,000 men; and it extended over 25 miles of water.

**4. Lord Salisbury's Second Long Premiership.**—After 1895 the Liberal party found itself somewhat disorganised. Not all its members were agreed on the subject of Irish Home Rule, and in the general election of 1895 too many of them fought for their own hand, without regarding the unity of the party. It was therefore no surprise that in 1895 Lord Salisbury returned to power again with a very large majority at his back. Lord Salisbury's abilities have been said to lie in the direction of foreign diplomacy and politics; the years that succeeded his taking office were to afford these abilities plenty of scope. In 1895 this country became involved in a miserable dispute with the half-caste republic of Venezuela, about the frontiers of British Guiana. The United States interfered in favour of Venezuela, and at one time there was a threatening of war between the two great Anglo-Saxon communities of the world. On both sides threats were freely exchanged, particularly by unwise partisans in the public press. But all danger of war was happily averted by Lord Salisbury's reference of the question at issue to a court of arbitration. That court's final award (1899) in the main supported the British contention.

(i) The most prominent members of Lord Salisbury's Cabinet (1895-1900) were, himself at the Foreign Office, Sir **Michael Hicks-Beach** as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. **Joseph Chamberlain** as Colonial Secretary.

(ii) The United States intervened in the Venezuelan dispute in virtue of the "**Monroe Doctrine.**" This was an utterance of James Monroe, fifth President of the U.S.A., who declared (1823) that no European power was to interfere with any independent American State. In general terms the doctrine claimed for the United States a kind of guardianship over the whole of the New World.

**5. Turkey and Greece.**—From the year 1892 the eastern regions of Asia Minor had been for three years looking on at a scene of organised and widespread murder. At the instigation, or certainly with the connivance, of Sultan Abdul Hamid of Turkey, the warlike Kurdish highlanders had been let loose on the peaceful and industrious Armenians, to rob, to outrage, and to murder. Even in Constantinople itself—under the Sultan's very eyes—his Armenian subjects were cruelly beaten and assassinated. Though this country was

bound by treaty to protect the hapless Armenians, yet for the moment it seemed impossible, with Russia openly supporting the Sultan, to give them the help they so sorely needed. Then another source of difficulty arose. In 1895 the Cretans had sprung to arms to rid themselves of the Turkish domination, and their kinsmen, the Greeks, sent them aid (1897). Russia and Germany wished to take strong measures, and blockade the Greek ports at once, but by the mediation of Lord Salisbury a less pronounced step was taken. An international force was despatched to Crete, and a promise was made by the Great Powers that the island should receive its independence under the nominal suzerainty of the Sultan. This proposal did not satisfy Greek aspirations, which aimed at a union with Crete; and Greece, in the spring of 1897, rushed into a mad and disastrous war with Turkey, hoping by an empty dash to force the hand of the Powers and win for herself both Thessaly and Crete out of the hands of the Turks. Of this useless and ill-considered war nothing came, except that in 1898 Crete at last received its freedom, and was allowed to govern itself under a High Commissioner appointed by the Powers.

In 1878, during the negotiation of the famous **Berlin Treaty**, Britain entered into a secret compact with Turkey to defend her against Russian aggression. In return for this Turkey promised to protect her Armenian subjects against the lawless attacks of the Kurds. Thus Britain was constituted a sort of informal guardian of the Armenians.

**6. The Egyptian Soudan.**—After the fall of Khartoum in 1885, practically the whole of the Egyptian Soudan was abandoned to the fanatical and blood-stained tyranny of the Mahdi,[1] or to the equally savage rule of his successor, the Khalifa. Only the port of Suakim, on the Red Sea, was held by the Anglo-Egyptian troops, and over the rest of the Soudan region—up to the frontier of Egypt proper at Wadi Halfa—the savage riders of the Khalifa, in their patchwork coats of red and blue, ranged and plundered at will. Not till 1896 was any attempt made to push these dangerous neighbours farther back. In that year the Sirdar, Sir Herbert (now Lord) Kitchener, recovered the province of Dongola from the Khalifa's grip. Step by step the work of reconquest continued with machine-like precision, until the time came for delivering the final blow. On the 2nd of Sep-

[1] The **Mahdi** died in 1885—six months after **General Gordon's** death.

tember 1898, the Dervish forces made their last stand—fifty thousand strong—before their capital city of **Omdurman**. In the battle which followed General Kitchener gained a signal and complete victory, and two days later the British and Egyptian flags were flying on the walls of the ruined palace of Khartoum close to the spot where General Gordon had met his death thirteen years before. The Soudan had been restored to Egypt.—But the successful restoration was followed by an incident which came perilously near involving this country in war with France. A few days after the victory of Omdurman, General Kitchener steamed up the Nile to the river-station of **Fashoda**,[1] where he found that post in the occupation of the French. The Sirdar pointed out to the French commander, Major Marchand, that his presence in Fashoda was a direct violation of British and Egyptian rights in the upper basin of the Nile, and then withdrew, having hoisted the Egyptian flag beside the French. At home the British Foreign Office insisted on the unconditional evacuation of Fashoda. The French flag on the Upper Nile flew there in defiance of all treaty-rights, and was not to be tolerated. To the intense disgust of the extreme Jingo section of the French people, France gave way, and in 1899 admitted the justice of the British claim.

(i) The term **Dervish** means, properly speaking, a religious devotee among Mohammedan people. It was loosely applied to the military fanatics who followed the sacred green banner of the **Mahdi** and the Khalifa. After Omdurman the **Khalifa** fled into the interior. He was overtaken and slain by a force under Colonel Wingate at the end of 1899.

(ii) By a convention signed at Cairo in 1899 between the British and Egyptian Governments, it was agreed that the Soudan between the parallels of 22° and 10° (Wadi Halfa and Fashoda) should be subject to the joint dominion of Great Britain and Egypt. The territory south of Fashoda was declared an exclusively British sphere of influence. It merges indefinitely into the British Protectorates of Uganda and East Africa.

**7. The South African War.**—(i) **Causes.**—On the shoulders of Lord Salisbury's 1895-1900 Ministry was thrown the heaviest burden that any Government since the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign had been called upon to bear. Once more it was from Africa that the trouble proceeded. In 1877 Great Britain (Lord Beaconsfield being the Premier at the time) had annexed the struggling Boer

[1] **Fashoda** stands on the Nile almost exactly on lat. 10° N.

Republic of the Transvaal, and in 1879 had fought and conquered the Zulu nation, whose warlike propensities were a standing menace to the Boer State. In the year 1880 the Transvaal Boers began openly to demand that the British annexation should be rescinded, and at length took arms to support that demand by force. Their appeal to force was successful, and, after a final victory gained by the Boers over a small body of British troops at **Majuba Hill** (Feb. 27, 1881), Mr. Gladstone restored to the Transvaal its independence. The result on the Boers was not what might have been expected. Instead of recognising the magnanimity of the concession that had been made to them, they believed—and their leaders, though better informed than the rank and file, were careful to encourage them in the belief—that the concession was extorted from the cowardice of England, and that Englishmen in general were somewhat contemptible creatures. Immediately after the recovery of its independence, the Transvaal was little better off than before. The State was deeply in debt, and in 1885 practically bankrupt; its people refused to pay their taxes; and its leaders were quarrelling amongst themselves. Suddenly, in 1886, immensely rich gold-mines were discovered on the bleak and bare Witwatersrandt,[1] where the great town of Johannesburg now stands; and the Transvaal from being a struggling and poverty-stricken State, emerged into affluence and prosperity. A new era had begun.

The **Transvaal Boers** are the descendants of Dutch emigrants who moved out of the Cape Colony between the years 1835 and 1837. Some of the emigrants settled in what was afterwards known as the Orange Free State—now the Orange River Colony. Some went and colonised Natal, from which, on that country's being declared a British Colony in 1843, they again emigrated to found the Transvaal Republic.

**8. The South African War.**—(ii) **Causes.**—The opening of the gold-fields brought into the country a large number of miners and traders, whom the Transvaal Boers called **Uitlanders**,[2] and who were most of them British subjects. The Uitlanders were the making of the country: it was they who raised Johannesburg from a few tin-roofed shanties into a modern city; it was they who paid the bulk of the taxes, and many of them looked forward to making the Transvaal their permanent home. That being so, it was but natural they should begin, in course of time, to ask to be made citizens of the

[1] =White-water-ridge. [2] =Outlanders, or Foreigners.

country whose prosperity was due solely to their exertions. The Boers, at the prompting of their President, Krüger, offered them the franchise, but offered it under conditions which made the grant practically useless. Agitation among the Uitlanders increased, and feeling on both sides grew all the more embittered, when the Boer Government absolutely forbade the Uitlanders to meet and discuss their political grievances in public. The Boers, on their side, believed that the Uitlanders were scheming against the freedom of their country, and that, if these newcomers were given even a reasonably generous franchise, their own votes would very soon be swamped, and the government of their country would be taken out of their hands. In this state of feeling a most unfortunate thing happened. Dr. Jameson, the Administrator of Rhodesia, with a few hundred mounted police, made a dash at Johannesburg, giving out that he was coming to assist the cause of the Uitlanders. The Boers, knowing of Jameson's intention from the very first, surrounded his little force, and after some sharp fighting it surrendered (Jan. 1896). Jameson and his officers were sent to England, where they were sentenced to light terms of imprisonment; and thereafter a highly inconclusive parliamentary inquiry was held on the whole history of the Raid. The Raid was a criminal blunder on all accounts. It intensified racial feeling all over South Africa between the British and the Dutch, and by the Boers it was held as a convincing proof that Britain was bent on destroying the independence of their country, for they openly alleged that Dr. Jameson had acted at the express orders of the British Government.

The **Transvaal franchise-law**, as it stood in 1899, provided that Uitlanders could be admitted to the franchise after fourteen years' probation, and then only by a special resolution of the Volksraad (or Parliament) in each individual case!

**9. The South African War.—Outbreak.**—Even before the Jameson Raid the Transvaal Boers had been providing themselves with modern weapons of precision, and after the Raid their expenditure in this direction—an expenditure only made possible by the taxation of the gold industry of the Uitlanders—was largely increased. The Boers were not only inflamed to bitterness by the calamitous Raid, but they were also swollen by the pride of riches, and by the thought that their arms were invincible. Twice, they pictured to

themselves, had they gained a signal victory over a British force—once at Majuba, and now again at Krügersdorp.[1] Though the authority of Great Britain over them was of the slightest, they now began to think of throwing that authority off, and further, reckoning on the help of their kinsmen in the Cape Colony and the Orange Free State, they conceived a vague sort of an idea of putting an end to British domination throughout the whole of South Africa. This achieved, South Africa was to be turned into one vast Boer confederation. At this juncture a meeting was held at Bloemfontein, in the Orange Free State, between Sir Alfred (now Lord) Milner, the High Commissioner of South Africa, and Paul Krüger, the Transvaal President, to see if some arrangement could not be come to on the Uitlander franchise question. President Krüger was willing to make some concessions, but coupled with his proposals an assertion of the complete independence of his country (May and June 1899). That proposal could not be entertained, and the conference broke up without result. The situation was strained to breaking-point, and there was but one way out. The Free State threw in her lot with her northern brothers, and on the 11th of October 1899, the two Boer Republics started to carry out their threat of sweeping the British into the sea.

(i) The slender authority which Great Britain exerted over the Transvaal was (chiefly) that conferred by a treaty known as the **London Convention**, concluded in 1884. This Convention gave to Great Britain the right (among other things) to veto, if it chose, any treaty which the Transvaal might make with any foreign power. As long as this Convention held, the Transvaal could never be considered a "sovereign and international state," as it claimed to be.

(ii) On the 9th of October the Transvaal sent an insolent ultimatum to Great Britain. It required this country to withdraw all British troops from the Transvaal borders by 5 p.m. on October 11th. Failing that, Great Britain was to be understood to have declared war.

The following is part of a letter written by a Transvaal Commandant to a prominent Dutch Member of Parliament in Cape Colony, dated *two days after Dr. Jameson's surrender* (4th Jan. 1896).—"Our plan is, with God's help, to take all that is English in South Africa. So in case you true Afrikanders in Cape Colony wish to be released from the English yoke, now is your time to hoist the Vierkleur [=Four-colour—the Transvaal flag] in Capetown, and you can rely on us.

"We will push through from sea to sea, and wave one flag over the whole of South Africa under one Afrikander government."

**10. The South African War.—Progress.**—The Republican forces commenced operations by overrunning the northern half of Natal,

[1] A little town, 22 miles from Johannesburg, where Dr. Jameson surrendered.

and succeeded in shutting up the main body of our army in the unfortified town of **Ladysmith**. On that spot the British endured a heroic siege of 120 days, and were only relieved by General Buller on the 28th of February 1900. Meanwhile troops had been pouring into South Africa, not from Britain alone but from every corner of the British Empire where white men dwelt. With them Field-Marshal **Lord Roberts** began to sweep the open plains of the Free State. By his exertions the diamond-town of Kimberley was freed from its Boer besiegers on the 15th of February, and twelve days later—on February the 27th, the anniversary of the British reverse on Majuba Hill—the first signal piece of success was achieved. On that day at **Paardeberg**, the Boer General Cronje, with 4000 men, surrendered to Lord Roberts. Hitherto the fate of the British, as the dominant power in South Africa, had seemed for a while to hang in the balance. That danger was now averted, but much yet remained to be done. Marching northwards, Roberts occupied the Boer capitals of Bloemfontein and Pretoria in quick succession, and by two separate proclamations (May and September 1900) the South African Republic and the Orange Free State ceased to be. They became British Colonies under the titles of the **Transvaal** and **Orange River Colony**. Yet still the Boers continued to maintain a hopeless and useless guerilla war, not alone in their old territories (which, taken together, are nearly half as large again as the British Isles), but also by invading the Cape Colony for the second time in marauding bands, and by stirring up a dangerous rebellion there amongst the disaffected Dutch. The mountainous and baffling character of much of the country; the extent of the field of operations; the difficulty of providing supplies; and the general hostility of all the Dutch population, made the war an enormously long and an enormously costly one. But, by the final surrender of the Boers in May 1902, was at last decided the question—which of the two nationalities—British or Dutch—is (as a Boer general graphically phrased it) to be "the under-dog in South Africa." For twenty years that question has disturbed the peace of the country; it will disturb it no longer.

The extent of the communications to be held against the Boer troops amounted to the astonishing length of 1600 miles—that is, about as far as from London to Constantinople.

**11. China.**—After the war between China and Japan, which

ended in 1895 with the complete victory of the latter country, a "scramble" for China set in on the part of many European powers. Russia, France, Germany, and Great Britain each secured for themselves certain vantage-grounds on various parts of the Chinese territory; but on the whole it has been the policy of British statesmen to preserve the integrity of China, and to maintain the principle of the "open door"—that is, the right of every nation to trade freely in every quarter of the Chinese dominions. The Chinese have always been averse to intercourse with foreigners, and now these European encroachments roused the populace to fury. A fanatical sect, who called themselves Boxers, paraded the country, and gave out that they were going to rid their land of foreign domination (1900). European missionaries, wherever they were met with, were brutally murdered, and in these atrocities the Boxers received first the approval, and then the open assistance, of the Chinese government. In Peking the British and other European Embassies were attacked by the mob, and shut themselves up for safety within the walls of the British Legation (June 1900). At length a relief force composed of British, American, French, Japanese, and Russian troops fought its way from the coast up to the Chinese capital, and found the little European garrison still gallantly holding its own. The wealth of China, and the territorial greed of Europe, combine to form a problem that will be long and difficult of solving.

European encroachment on China has been conducted by means of "leases." **Germany** has leased for 99 years the port of Kiao-chau, with a block of territory behind it. **France** has hired part of the coast opposite the island of Hainan. In 1898 **Russia** was granted for a term of 25 years (which may be extended by agreement) the fortress-harbour of Port Arthur, and the port of Taliehwan or Dalny. These two places lie on the north side of the Gulf of Pe-chi-li. Opposite to them, on the south side, **Great Britain** is to hold the harbour of Wei-hai-wei for as long time as the Russians occupy Port Arthur. **Mantchuria**, on the north-east of China, is by reason of the Russian railway which traverses it, virtually a Russian province.[1]

**12. The Death of Queen Victoria.**—On Queen Victoria's last birthday, Lord Roberts's army first set foot on Transvaal soil Perhaps never before, throughout the whole of her great and womanly career, had Victoria the Good showed herself so courageous a prince, and so tender a woman, as in the fierce and embittered struggle against the Boers. A woman in her eighty-first year, she journeyed

[1] The Russo-Japanese war began in 1904, and, as a preliminary result of it, Port Arthur and Dalny were captured by the Japanese, and the Russians were driven out of Southern Mantchuria.

up specially from Windsor to London "to see her people," in the early spring of 1900. She constantly visited her wounded soldiers in hospital; she made a journey over to Ireland and held a review of her troops in Dublin; and in the autumn was issued her proclamation declaring the five colonies of Australia and Tasmania one country, under the title of the **Australian Commonwealth.** The Queen's courageous example and unwearied activity infused spirit into the breasts of all her subjects. But the strain was too severe: the great mind and brave heart were near their end. Towards the middle of January 1901, it began to be known that the Queen, who was then living in Osborne, was in a gravely weak condition. Slowly yet painlessly her strength ebbed away; and on the 22nd of January 1901, in the presence of three generations of her descendants, this woman—small of stature, but great in courage, in understanding, in heart—the woman on whom leaned the mightiest Empire of the world—passed into her rest. Queen Victoria was succeeded by her eldest son (Albert Edward, Prince of Wales), who now reigns with the title of EDWARD VII.

**13. The Work of Parliament.—1874-1886.**—The **Tenth**[1] **Parliament** of Queen Victoria's reign was Lord Beaconsfield's second administration (1874-80). Though much of the Ministry's time was occupied in foreign policy and in resisting the attacks of Parnell and the Irish Home Rulers, two useful Acts were passed (1875-76)—the **Artisans' Dwellings Act,** which allowed municipal authorities to build model lodging-houses for workmen, and the **Agricultural Holdings Act,** which gave an outgoing tenant compensation for unexhausted improvements.—The **Eleventh Parliament** (1880-85) saw Mr. Gladstone premier for the second time at the beginning, and Lord Salisbury for the first time at the end. The troubles in Egypt engaged the public attention, but Parliament passed the second **Irish Land Act** (1881); a stringent **Crimes Bill** after the Phœnix Park murders (1882); and Gladstone's **Reform Bill** of 1885, which gave a vote to two million agricultural labourers—the only class in the country that still lacked the franchise.—The **Twelfth Parliament** lasted from January to June 1886. After the Reform Bill of 1885,

[1] Reckoning William IV.'s last Parliament as Queen Victoria's first. See p. 311.

Ireland received a few extra seats, and the Irish Members were able to hold the balance between the Liberals and the Conservatives. They used their power first to turn out Gladstone, and then, after a general election at the end of 1885, Salisbury. Gladstone became premier for the third time, and introduced his **First Irish Home Rule Bill** (June 1886).

The **Reform Bill** of 1885 was passed by a very remarkable and public-spirited act of compromise. The Liberal Government agreed to communicate its plan and discuss and arrange final details with the Conservative leaders. For that purpose, accordingly, Lord Salisbury and his lieutenant, Sir Stafford Northcote, attended meetings of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet; and the bill was the result of their conference. The bill really belonged to two years, 1884-85, but it was not finally passed till the latter date.

**14. The Work of Parliament.—1886-1900.**—The **Thirteenth Parliament** was Lord Salisbury's first long administration, though his second premiership. It lasted from 1886 to 1892. Its two main achievements in domestic legislation were the passing of the **County Councils Act** (1888), which handed over to each county its own local administration, and Goschen's **Conversion of the Debt** (1888). This Government was strengthened by the accession of the **Liberal Unionists**, who had broken with Mr. Gladstone on the subject of Home Rule. Their leaders were the Marquis of Hartington (afterwards Duke of Devonshire) and Mr. Joseph Chamberlain.—The **Fourteenth Parliament** sat from 1892 to 1895. In the first half of it Gladstone was premier for the fourth and last time; in the second half Lord Rosebery. Though the battle over the **Second Home Rule Bill** (1893) engaged all the attention of the earlier part of this Parliament, yet subsequently some useful pieces of work were carried through. The Government set a wise example to employers of labour by ordaining that the daily work in Government factories and workshops should be limited to eight hours. Sir William Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, raised the **Death Duties** on real and personal property (1894). He also increased the income-tax a penny in the pound, with abatements at the lower end of the scale. —**The Fifteenth Parliament** lasted from 1895 to 1900. Lord Salisbury was Premier for the third time. Foreign and Colonial difficulties left

little time for domestic legislation. An **Irish Local Government Bill** was passed (1898), and a **London Government Bill** (1899) substituted subordinate municipalities for the existing vestries and district boards. Finally there was the **Australian Commonwealth Bill** (1900), which embodied a new constitution for the six federating Australasian Colonies.

**Conversion of the Debt** (1888).—Mr. Goschen, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, offered the holders of Government consols a choice: either the immediate repayment of their capital at par value; or else, if they chose to keep their money in consols, interest was to be reduced from 3 to 2¾ per cent., and from 1903 onwards to 2½ per cent. This arrangement saved the country over a million a year.

**15. Great Men.**—In 1901 **Lord Salisbury** was still the Conservative leader, but probably the largest figure on the political stage was that of Mr. **Joseph Chamberlain**, who was appointed Colonial Secretary in 1895. Prominent also on the Conservative side was **Mr. Arthur Balfour**, the leader of the House of Commons.—After the death of Gladstone in 1898, there were no Liberal Statesmen left to compare with that gigantic figure. Sir **William Harcourt** was a powerful debater, and had been twice Chancellor of the Exchequer. **Lord Rosebery** and Sir **Edward Grey** have proved themselves ardent Imperialists, and Mr. **H. H. Asquith** an enlightened exponent of the broad principles of Liberalism. Mr. **John Morley**, another of Gladstone's old political lieutenants, is also a distinguished man of letters.—As the closing years of the nineteenth century were but too full of war, the names of great soldiers naturally recur to our minds. **Lord Wolseley** laid down his office of Commander-in-chief in 1900, and **Lord Roberts**, fresh from his victories in South Africa, returned home to fill his place. **Lord Kitchener** was left behind in South Africa to put an end to the guerilla war. In the early part of the war Sir **Redvers Buller** was Commander-in-chief, and on him fell perhaps the most difficult burden of any, that of operating in the rugged and mountain-seamed country of Natal.—In the ranks of Colonial Governors and Statesmen three names stand out, Sir **George Grey**, incomparably the greatest of them, who died in 1899; **Cecil John Rhodes**, who was the organiser of Britain's young Colony, Rhodesia, and whose energy started the building of the railway that is to join

Capetown with Cairo; and **Lord Milner**, who steered South Africa through the troubled waters of rebellion and war.

**Sir George Grey**, though his death fell in the later years of the Queen's reign, did most of his work in the early part of the Victorian era. He was governor of South Australia and New Zealand 1841 (and 1846), and, in 1854, of the Cape Colony, and of New Zealand again in 1861. The industries of every Colony he governed, and the native inhabitants—Australian "black-boys," South African Kafirs, and the warlike Maoris of New Zealand—had reason to bless his wise, just, and firm administration. From being Governor, Grey became premier of New Zealand, and only retired from public life in 1895.

## SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF THE LAST YEARS OF VICTORIA'S REIGN.

**1890.** **Forth Bridge** opened (begun 1883).

**1893.** Imperial Institute opened.
Bering Sea Award in favour of Great Britain.
Second Home Rule Bill rejected.

**1894.** **Manchester** Ship-Canal opened.
GLADSTONE retires.
Gold discovered at COOLGARDIE.

**1895.** Threatened war with U.S.A. over Venezuela.

**1896.** **Jameson's Raid.**
The German Emperor wires congratulations to President Kruger, and a British Flying Squadron is commissioned.

**1897.** **Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria.**
Investigation into Jameson's Raid.
Railway from Capetown to Buluwayo opened.

**1898.** **Imperial Penny Postage.**
Kitchener's victory at Omdurman.
Death of Mr. Gladstone.
Great Britain "leases" Wei-hai-wei.
The Fashoda incident.

**1899.** Great **Boer War** breaks out.
Ladysmith beleaguered by the Boers.

**1900.** Continuance of Boer War.
Main events in war:—
(a) CRONJE'S surrender at **Paardeberg**, Feb. 27.
(b) Ladysmith relieved, Feb. 28.
(c) Prinsloo surrenders with 3000 **men.**
Orange Free State and South African Republic become British territory as the **Orange River Colony** and the **Transvaal.**
Proclamation of the **Australian Commonwealth.**

**1901.** **DEATH OF QUEEN VICTORIA.**
**Accession of Edward VII.**
The Duke and Duchess of CORNWALL and YORK (now **Prince** and **Princess of Wales**) make a royal progress round the British Empire.

**1902.** **Final Surrender of the Boers**; terms of peace arranged.

## CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.

**1890.** Bismarck resigns.

**1893.** Chicago World's Fair opened.

**1894.** Chino-Japanese war breaks out.

**1895.** Japanese naval and land victories.

**1896.** Severe defeat of Italy in Abyssinia.
Cuba rebels against Spain.
Madagascar declared a French colony.
Iron-Gates canal on the Danube opened.

**1897.** Disturbances in Crete.
War between Greece and Turkey.
Sandwich Islands annexed by U.S.A.

**1898.** Hispano-American war breaks out.
Philippines taken from Spain.
Empress of Austria assassinated.
Russia "leases" Port Arthur and Talienwan.
The Czar's "**Peace Circular**," urging a general peace and reduction of all armaments.

**1899.** **Peace Conference** at the Hague.
Captain DREYFUS re-tried, and again convicted of treachery to France.

**1900.** Boxer outbreak in China.
Indian Famine, 49 millions affected.

**1904.** Outbreak of war between Russia and Japan.

PLAN OF DATES

# NINETEENTH CENTURY

# GREAT BRITAIN IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

**1. Political.**—The power of the Crown has been growing weaker since the beginning of this century. The power of the House of Commons has been growing greater and greater. The House of Lords has lost all its control over the collection and the expenditure of money: and it is seldom able to impede for any long time the will of the Lower House. The three Reform Bills of 1832, 1867, and 1885 have gradually widened the basis of representation, and have given to the whole people what was once in the sole possession of a single and wealthy class. The first Reform Bill took the voting power out of the hands of the town-councils and wealthy magnates; the second took it from the upper middle-class and gave it to the middle and lower middle-classes; the third gave this power to the whole nation. These were three great, but perfectly peaceful, revolutions. Government by party, the core of which is the Cabinet, is now the firmly established method of government in Great Britain; because it secures the representation of all classes, all interests, and all opinions, and because it brings every question before the whole nation, and subjects it to the test of public discussion, in the press, on platforms, and in Parliament.

(i) The Reform Bill of 1885 extended the number of votes from two millions to five millions.

(ii) "Popular power, organised by intellect, influenced by morality, and devoted to high and noble aims, is the ideal form of the society which is now developing itself." —GARDINER.

**2. Social.**—The Nineteenth Century is remarkable for many things; but it is most remarkable for the immense and rapid advances made by science, and for the astonishing improvements that have been made in the methods of travelling, and in the transmission of all kinds of news—in one word, in the methods of communication. Science has added very greatly to the health, the comfort, and the length of human life; and an honest artisan enjoys sanitary advantages to-day which were not within the power of kings and princes a hundred years ago. Most of these great changes have taken place during the reign of Queen Victoria. The cost of living has decreased, the comforts of the working-classes have steadily increased, since the beginning of the nineteenth century. In its early years, the landowner and the farmer became rapidly rich; because wheat was sold as high as 180s. a quarter, and the four-pound loaf was at times as much as 1s. 10d. There was no free trade; and, when foreign grain was admitted into our ports, it had to pay an enormous duty. Foreign cattle were not admitted at all. Wages were very low. Taxation

# THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

| 1800 | 1801 | 1802 | 1803 | 1804 | 1805 | 1806 | 1807 | 1808 | 1809 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Union of Great Britain and Ireland.** | Nelson destroys the Danish Fleet. | **Treaty of Amiens.** | War with France. Battle of Assaye. | Pitt, Prime Minister. Buonaparte, Emperor. | **Battle of Trafalgar.** Boulogne flotilla for the invasion of England. | Death of Pitt. Death of Fox. | | **Beginning of Peninsular War.** Joseph Buonaparte, king of Spain. | Battle of Corunna. Death of Sir John Moore. |

| 1810 | | |
|---|---|---|
| **The Lines of Torres Vedras.** George III. permanently insane. | | |
| **1811** | **1812** | **1813** |
| Prince of Wales Regent. | Storming of Badajos. Assassination of Mr. Perceval, Prime Minister. | Battle of the Pyrenees. |
| **1814** | **1815** | **1816** |
| Battle of Toulouse. | "The Hundred Days." **Battle of Waterloo.** | |
| **1817** | **1818** | **1819** |
| Habeas Corpus Act suspended. | | Queen Victoria born. |

| 1820 | | |
|---|---|---|
| Death of George III. GEORGE IV. Cato Street Conspiracy. Bill of Pains and Penalties. | | |
| **1821** | **1822** | **1823** |
| Coronation of George IV. The Queen shut out of the Abbey. | George Canning Foreign Secretary. Sir Robert Peel Home Secretary. | |
| **1824** | **1825** | **1826** |
| | Money Panic and Failures. Ruin of Sir W. Scott. | |
| **1827** | **1828** | **1829** |
| **Canning Prime Minister.** Death of Canning. | **Duke of Wellington Prime Minister.** | **Catholic Emancipation Act.** |

| 1830 | | |
|---|---|---|
| Death of George IV. WILLIAM IV. Opening of Manchester and Liverpool Railway. | | |
| **1831** | **1832** | **1833** |
| | **The Reform Bill.** | |
| **1834** | **1835** | **1836** |
| **Abolition of Slavery. Peel Prime Minister.** | Melbourne Prime Minister. | The House of Commons publishes its own Division Lists. |
| **1837** | **1838** | **1839** |
| Death of William IV. VICTORIA. | | **The Penny Post.** |

| 1840 | | |
|---|---|---|
| The Queen marries Prince Albert. | | |
| **1841** | **1842** | **1843** |
| | | The Free Church movement in Scotland. |
| **1844** | **1845** | **1846** |
| | Failure of the Irish Potato Crop. | **REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS.** |
| **1847** | **1848** | **1849** |
| | | |

| 1850 | | |
|---|---|---|
| Death of Peel. | | |
| **1851** | **1852** | **1853** |
| **The Great Exhibition.** | Death of Wellington. | |
| **1854** | **1855** | **1856** |
| **The Crimean War.** | Capture of Sebastopol. Duty of Newspapers repealed. | **Peace with Russia.** |
| **1857** | **1858** | **1859** |
| **THE INDIAN MUTINY.** Massacre of Cawnpore. Capture of Delhi. | Government of India transferred from the Company to the Crown. | **The Volunteers.** |

| 1860 | | |
|---|---|---|
| **1861** | **1862** | **1863** |
| Death of the Prince Consort (Albert). American Civil War begins. | Lancashire Relief Committee. | Marriage of the Prince of Wales. |
| **1864** | **1865** | **1866** |
| | Death of Palmerston. End of American Civil War. | |
| **1867** | **1868** | **1869** |
| **New Reform Bill.** Rescue of Fenian Prisoners at Manchester. Dominion of Canada founded. | War with Abyssinia. | The Irish Church disestablished. Opening of the Suez Canal. |

| 1870 | | |
|---|---|---|
| **The Irish Land Act. The Elementary Education Act.** The Franco-Prussian War. | | |
| **1871** | **1872** | **1873** |
| Paris taken by the Germans. William I. of Prussia crowned German Emperor. | The Ballot Act. | |
| **1874** | **1875** | **1876** |
| Wolseley goes to Coomassie. | | Mr. Disraeli created Earl of Beaconsfield. The Bulgarian Atrocities. |
| **1877** | **1878** | **1879** |
| **The Queen Empress of India.** | **The Congress at Berlin.** Turkey much cut down. | Zulu War. Disaster of Isandula. |

| 1880 | | |
|---|---|---|
| **1881** | **1882** | **1883** |
| **Irish Land Bill. War in South Africa.** Czar Alexander assassinated. President Garfield assassinated. Death of Lord Beaconsfield. | Murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish in Phœnix Park. | Destruction of the Army of Hicks Pasha in the Soudan. |
| **1884** | **1885** | **1886** |
| | Murder of Gordon at Khartoum. Third Reform Bill. | Defeat of Mr. Gladstone on Home Rule. |
| **1887** | **1888** | **1889** |
| **JUBILEE OF QUEEN VICTORIA.** | **The Local Government Act.** | Death of Robert Browning. |

| 1890 | | |
|---|---|---|
| Lord Salisbury arrests the Advance of Portugal in Africa. The Prince of Wales completes and opens the Forth Bridge. | | |
| **1891** | **1892** | **1893** |
| | | Second Irish Home Rule Bill rejected. Imperial Institute opened. |
| **1894** | **1895** | **1896** |
| Manchester Ship Canal opened. | Japanese Victories over the Chinese. | Jameson's Raid on the Transvaal. |
| **1897** | **1898** | **1899** |
| Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria. | Imperial Penny Postage. Fashoda Incident. Czar's Peace Circular. | **Anglo-Boer War breaks out.** **Peace Conference at the Hague.** |

was very heavy; and, the year before the Battle of Waterloo, it had risen to £6 a head. In the present day it is only about £3 a head. There was a window-tax—that is to say, a tax on the sun's light and heat, two of the most necessary conditions of bodily health. Newspapers were, in 1815, taxed fourpence a copy. Salt paid a tax forty times as great as its original cost. A working-man had in many cases to pay nearly half of the whole of his annual income to the Government, in taxes direct or indirect.—Towns were dark, dirty, ill-paved, ill-drained, and ill-guarded. Small-pox was the prevalent disease in towns; and fevers from undrained fields in the country. In the year 1800, the death-rate of London was one in twenty-four; at the present time, the death-rate is only about one in sixty.

(i) Carpenters and masons received, in Scotland, from 17s. to 18s. a week; in England, from 22s. to 25s. Agricultural labourers earned from 6s. to 15s.

"While farmers were selling their corn at 112s., or even at 170s., the quarter—while it paid to take bits of open down land, get three crops off it without manuring, and then pass on to the next piece—the wretched labourers were told that prices were so high, that but little could be given them for their wages. Out-door relief was given in aid of wages."—FRANCK BRIGHT.

(ii) In the middle of last century, the newspaper tax was only one penny a copy; but, as newspapers grew in power and in influence over the electors, the tax rose to fourpence—which was of course a quite prohibitive price for the lower classes. In 1835 it was again reduced to a penny. The tax was not finally removed till 1855.

(iii) There was also a tax of 3s. 6d. on every advertisement in a newspaper.

"The schoolboy whips his taxed top; the beardless youth manages his taxed horse with a taxed bridle on a taxed road; and the dying Englishman, pouring his medicine which has paid seven per cent., into a spoon, which has paid fifteen per cent., flings himself back on his chintz bed, which has paid twenty-two per cent., and expires in the arms of an apothecary who has paid a licence of one hundred pounds for the privilege of putting him to death."—SYDNEY SMITH.

3. **Communications.**—At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the transmission of passengers, goods, letters, or news, was extremely difficult, slow, and expensive: roads were bad—it was not till 1815 that Macadam introduced his system; canals were slow; railways were non-existent. Poor people had to travel long distances on foot. Sailing-vessels might take six weeks to go from Leith to London; a voyage from Liverpool to New York might occupy from thirty to ninety days At the present time, the swift steamers of our new lines cross the Atlantic in five days. The journey from London to Edinburgh required three days and three nights on the swiftest mail-coaches; it is now done on the Great Northern in eight hours and a half. There were no telegraphs; and the news of the decisive and epoch-making Battle of Waterloo took three days to reach London. The postage of a letter from London to Scotland was over a shilling; it was not till 1840 that the uniform rate of one penny for the whole kingdom was introduced. Very few people had either the time or the money to travel; the railways of the United Kingdom now carry about 1,200,000,000 passengers a year, not counting those persons who hold season-tickets. In the early part of this century, about one person in every four wrote one letter per annum; the average number of letters written per head in England is now sixty-four, and in the United Kingdom it is about sixty. The number of telegrams sent every year is about 90 millions; and there are nearly twelve thousand telegraph offices scattered over the United Kingdom.

(i) The following are the chief dates of steam-navigation :—

(a) 1812, Henry Bell runs the *Comet* between Glasgow and Greenock.
(b) 1815, The *Margery*—the first Thames steamer—runs between London and Gravesend.
(c) 1819, The *Savannah* crosses from America to Liverpool.
(d) 1825, The *Enterprise* sails from Falmouth to Calcutta.
(e) 1838, The *Sirius* crosses from London to New York in 17 days.

(ii) A school-girl goes by sailing-vessel from Edinburgh to London in the early part of the century. At the end of about six weeks the ship puts into Hull under stress of weather; and the young lady writes to her parents that they are making excellent way.

(iii) "The ancient pack-horses carried their hundreds, and the stage-coaches their thousands; but the railways carry their millions—and more millions than ever stage-coaches carried thousands." "The number of passengers carried on the railways of the United Kingdom in the year 1876 was equal to four times the population of Europe, and to more than half the estimated population of the globe."—ENCYC. BRIT.

**4. Manners and Customs.**—The most striking change in the character of our people during the present century is to be seen in the growth of the feeling of **Humanity**. In the beginning of the century, prisoners under trial for felony were not allowed to have counsel, and had to defend themselves as best they could. Petty thefts were visited with capital punishment. Thieves and thief-takers (detectives) could be seen hobnobbing together in public-houses; the thieves were allowed to pilfer until they committed a "forty-pound crime," when the detective seized them, obtained his reward—and they, the gallows. The inmates of lunatic asylums were frequently flogged. Parties of ladies and gentlemen were made up to go and see an execution. Sometimes men were hanged in chains. The press-gang carried off industrious and respectable citizens from the streets, and forced them to serve in the navy till the war should be over. The most popular amusement was the Prize Ring. Drunkenness was the prevalent vice in all classes; and even the most respectable men considered it a duty to be intoxicated after dinner. Little children worked in factories and in mines more than twelve hours a day. Little boys had to climb chimneys to sweep them. A lawsuit would sometimes last half-a-century, and ruin every one connected with it. In the present time, capital punishment does not exist except for deliberate murder; justice can be had—sometimes at moderate cost; the pillory, with its inhuman practices, is gone; flogging in the army is gone; a strong feeling of sympathy with the poor and suffering reigns in all classes; people are eager to find ways and means of doing good; the working-classes have more leisure, more education, more amusements, better houses, better clothing, better food.

(i) In 1810, stealing from a shop goods to the value of 5s., from a dwelling-house or a vessel in a river to the value of 40s., was punished with death.

(ii) "In the beginning of the century the law recognised 223 capital offences. A man might be hanged for almost anything; if he appeared in disguise on a public road; if he cut down young trees; if he shot rabbits; if he poached at night; if he stole anything worth five shillings from a person or a shop; if he came back from transportation before his time; a gipsy, if he remained in the same place a year. In fact, the chief desire of the Government was to get rid of the criminal classes by hanging them."—BESANT, *Fifty Years Ago*.

(iii) Even George III. was flogged when he was insane.

(iv) "The number of visitors to fourteen great gin-shops in London was found to average 3000 each per diem; in Edinburgh there was a whisky-shop for every fifteen families; in one Irish town of 800 people there were eighty-eight gin-shops; in Glasgow there was one public-house to every ten dwelling-houses."—BESANT.

(v) "They took the child—boy or girl—at six years of age; they carried the little thing away from the light of heaven, and lowered it deep down into the black and gloomy pit; they placed it behind a door, and ordered it to pull this open to let the trucks come and go, and to keep it shut when they were not passing. The child was set at the door in the dark—at first they gave it a candle, which would burn an hour or two and then go out. They kept the little creature there for twelve interminable hours."—BESANT.

"A child of six years of age, with a girdle round his or her waist, to which was attached a chain passing under the legs, and fastened to a cart, had to drag a load on all-fours through avenues not so good as a common sewer. Children and women had to carry loads of coals on their backs up steep ascents equal in distance to the height of St. Paul's, fourteen times a day."—KNIGHT.

(vi) The little climbing chimney-sweep tore his hands, elbows, and knees against the sharp bricks; sometimes he stuck in the chimney; sometimes his master lighted a fire beneath him to quicken his movements; sometimes he was choked to death. This went on till 1841.

(vii) "The working-classes have grown distinctly better off. They are better housed; they are better fed; they are more cheaply fed; they are better dressed; they have a thousand luxuries to which they were formerly strangers; their children are educated; in most great towns they have free libraries; they have their own clubs."—BESANT.

(viii) "Formerly, the lives of the working-classes were spent wholly in the place where they were born; they knew no other. Now the railways carry them cheaply everywhere. In one small town of Lancashire the factory hands alone spend £30,000 a year in excursions."—BESANT.

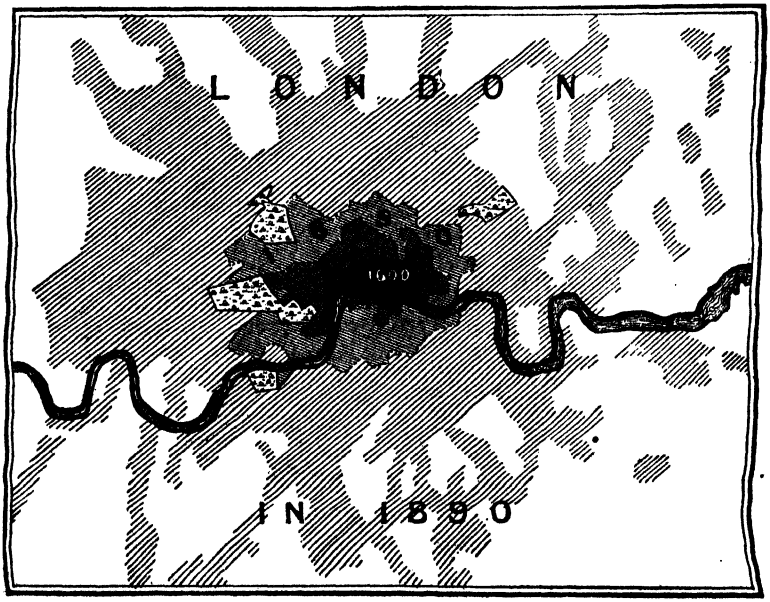
**5. Dress.**—In the beginning of the century, dress, under the patronage and through the example of the Prince Regent (afterwards George IV.), was of a very exaggerated and striking character. The head and neck were so muffled up that the faces, either of men or of women, could not be seen. Hence the dandies of the period were often called "Invisibles." Powdered hair, pigtails, and hessian boots were common in the streets. The waist was up right beneath the shoulders; and the coat-tails were very long and extremely narrow. Since the accession of Queen Victoria, the tendency has been more and more towards plainness, simplicity, and truth to the human figure.

The perpetual changes—the ebb and flow of taste—in the fashions are seen most strikingly in the head-dress of women. In the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign, bonnets were as large as coal-scuttles; they gradually dwindled till they were no larger than half-a-crown; in 1906 hats were of all sizes, shapes, and colours.

**6. London.**—London in the year 1801 had a population of less than a million; to-day it has more than six millions. At the beginning of her Majesty's reign, in 1837, the population of London was about two millions. The streets were dark—Pall Mall itself was *only lighted in 1807*, and gas was not in general use till 1816—except for a few oil-lamps here and there which, with a feeble and struggling light, contrived to make darkness visible. Turnpikes hemmed in London on all sides, and even blocked the main roads within its limits. There were only three bridges on the Thames—London Bridge, Westminster Bridge, and Southwark Bridge, the last not really open and available for traffic, as there was a toll upon it.

There were no penny steamers on the river, no underground railways, and very few omnibuses. London is now better supplied with means of locomotion than any other town in the world. It is the wealthiest, as well as the largest and most populous, city on the globe. At the beginning of the century, it may be described as the capital of England; when railways became general, it became the capital of Great Britain; when rapid steam-vessels connected its port with all our colonies, it became the capital of the British Empire; and, now that it has a large and growing trade with every port of any size upon the face of the globe, it may fairly be called the **Capital of the Commercial World.** "London," says a great writer, "sits enthroned at the gates of the sea, the mighty centre—commercial, financial, political, social, and intellectual—of a vast realm, where English laws, English institutions, the English tongue, and all the treasures of English literature reign and govern and enrich the lives and the minds of millions of men, generation after generation, all over the globe, with a sovereignty that seems imperishable and destined never to pass away."

(i) **London** contains many markets—of corn, cattle, and foreign produce; several large manufacturing towns; a great port; a great banking-city (it is, in fact, the money-market of the world); two ecclesiastical capitals (London and Westminster), and many other cities and towns.




(ii) All the railways of England converge upon it; and also all the water-ways of the globe.

(iii) The Port of London is the largest mart for Colonial Produce in the world.

(iv) A town as large as Brighton is added to it every year. The growth of London is the most wonderful thing in the history of civilisation. In 1801 the population was about 800,000; it is now over 6,000,000.

**7. Our Colonies and Dependencies.**—Few things show more strikingly the amazing contrast between the Britain of 1800 and the Britain of 1900 than the rapid growth and enormous expansion of the British Empire. Since the beginning of the century we have far more than doubled our Empire; and we now hold more than one-seventh of the surface of the globe, and about one-fourth of the total population. The area of the British Empire is more than a hundred times the extent of Great Britain itself. And most of these vast possessions have come into our hands since 1837—the year of the accession of Queen Victoria. A steady stream of emigration from the Three Kingdoms flows into these colonies, and thus relieves the congestion of the labour market. But, in the beginning of the century, for want of steam-ships and other cheap and easy means of locomotion, this stream was only a tiny rill of about two thousand persons a year. In the middle of the century (in 1852) it reached the number of about 370,000—or an average of nearly 7100 every week; in 1884 it reached its maximum[1] of over 320,000. The annual number of emigrants is still very large (close upon 250,000); but most of them, by correspondence or by visits, keep up the close ties which bound them to their old home.

(i) The grand total of square miles in the British Colonies and Dependencies is over 11 millions; and the total population is roughly estimated at 400 millions. By far the most populous Dependency is India, which contains more than 200 millions of people, directly under British rule; and, with the Feudatory States, more than 290 millions.

(ii) The total area of the British Colonies and Dependencies—excluding India—is nearly 9½ million square miles.

(iii) The two largest and most flourishing Colonies are the Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia.

**8. Inventions.**—The Nineteenth Century will be known in history as **The Century of Invention.** Not a week has gone by, during the last fifty years, that has not seen numerous thoughtful and persevering men taking out patents for the inventions they have made. Most of these have been for the comfort and health of human life, but many also for its destruction. The different modes of using gas; the various applications of photography; the enormous and rapid developments of electricity; the numerous devices for saving human labour—such as the steam-printing press, the steam-plough, the sewing machine,—all these and many more have been, and daily are, the subjects of almost innumerable patents.

**9. Manufactures.**—The manufactures of Great Britain have grown during the present century with a rapidity unparalleled in the history of the world. In 1801 we imported about 21 million pounds of cotton; in 1901 the annual import of that vegetable fibre had grown to over 1800 million pounds.—The woollen trade has also grown with the cheapness and speed of ocean-carriage, as well as with the improvements in machinery. We at present import about 700 million pounds of wool, about one half of which is retained for home consumption. Iron ore is extracted to the annual value of over £3,000,000; coal to the annual value of about £86,000,000;

[1] For British emigrants only. Up to 1852 no distinction was made between British and foreign emigrants.

and upon the solid foundation of these two products the greatness of our manufactures rests.

(i) "The English cotton-mills contain as many spindles and power-looms as those of all the rest of the world combined."

(ii) In the beginning of the century, the annual out-put of iron ore in Great Britain was about 150,000 tons; it is now about 15 millions—or one hundred times as much.

(iii) The coal raised annually in Great Britain amounts to about 200 million tons. Of this Scotland contributes about 80 million.

**10. Commerce.**—As Great Britain holds the first place for manufactures among all the nations of the world, so does she hold the first place for commerce. She has deep and spacious harbours; she has many navigable rivers; she has the advantage of higher tides than most other countries; and all these natural advantages she has been steadily improving, since the opening of the century, by every kind of mechanical and scientific appliance. The flag of Great Britain is now seen on every sea and ocean, in every considerable port on the face of the globe; and the British are the ocean-carriers of the world. The annual value of the imports we buy and the exports we sell amounts to about £870,000,000. Among our colonies and dependencies, with India alone we do an annual trade amounting to over £60,000,000; and with Australasia to about £55,000,000. But, with the United States, our annual trade has risen to the enormous sum of about £160,000,000; and with France it has risen to over £70,000,000. These are developments of commerce beyond even the wildest dreams of the most imaginative merchant of the year 1801.

(i) "Back to England," says the great geographer, Ritter, "as to a common fountain-head flows the might, the fulness, and the wealth of her thousandfold relations with the world."

(ii) The chief harbours of Great Britain go in pairs; these pairs are opposite each other; the land at these points contracts to the narrowness of an isthmus; and there is the best railway communication with every port. These pairs are: Glasgow and Leith; Newcastle and Carlisle; Hull and Liverpool; London and Bristol.

(iii) The shipping of the United Kingdom amounts to something under a half of the total shipping of the whole world.

(iv) The total tonnage of the United Kingdom amounts to about 15 million tons. This is about five times as much as is possessed by Germany; and about twenty-five times as much as belongs to Holland, our old rivals in the carrying trade of the world.

(v) Since 1872 there has been a steady increase of imports, and as steady a decrease, per head, of exports, in our trade.

**11. Education.**—In the time of George III. education was confined almost entirely to the wealthy and professional classes. Even in 1837 there were only fifty-eight persons in every hundred who could read and write; and, in the beginning of the century, these were much fewer. The educational condition of England was not much superior to that of Italy or of Austria. It is true that George III. said, "It is my royal will and pleasure that every child in my realm should have a

Bible, and should be able to read it;" but he took no means to have his royal will carried out. In Scotland things were very much better; and, thanks to the parish schools, the children, even of the poorest, had a fair education. In 1870 Mr. W. E. Forster, the Vice-President of the Council, passed an Act for Elementary Education. Since the passing of that Act there has been an increase of attendance in Primary Schools in Great Britain to the extent of about two and a half millions; and there are now in attendance on these Schools about five millions of children in England, and about half a million in Scotland. What may be called book-education is improving rapidly in all parts of Great Britain; and more and more ability of a very high kind is taking its place in the ranks of the teaching profession.

(i) The following advertisement appeared in a newspaper of 1800:—"Young ladies are boarded and taught the English and French languages, with grammatical purity and correctness, history and needleworks, for twenty-five guineas per annum."

(ii) "In 1837 the majority of country people could not read or write: the good old discipline of Father Stick and his children, Cat-o'-Nine-Tails, Rope's-end, Strap, Birch, Ferule, and Cane, was wholesomely maintained."—BESANT.

(iii) In 1818 there were only 644,000 children at School. This was at the rate of one scholar for every seventeen persons.

(iv) In 1839 the first grant in aid of Elementary Education was made. It amounted to £30,000. It is now over £11,000,000.

(v) Illiteracy, as indicated by the number of persons who sign the marriage register with a cross, has now fallen, in the case of men, to about two per cent. for the whole of England and Wales.

12. **Literature.**—This century has seen within its own limits two great periods of literature—each remarkable for poetry, imaginative fiction, and noble prose essays—the one in the first half, the other in the second half, of its existence. In the first half of the century there lived and wrote **Samuel Taylor Coleridge, William Wordsworth,** George Gordon, **Lord Byron, Percy Bysshe Shelley,** and **John Keats.** These five were poets of the first rank. **Sir Walter Scott** comes extremely near them. As prose-writers, chiefly in the form of essay and dialogue, the two names of **Charles Lamb** and **Walter Savage Landor** stand highest. In the imaginative fiction of the earlier part of the century, Sir Walter Scott stands above his contemporaries easily supreme. The three greatest writers of fiction of the latter half are **William Makepeace Thackeray, Charles Dickens,** and **George Eliot.** The two greatest historians are **Thomas Babington Macaulay** and **Thomas Carlyle.** In the latter half of the century the two greatest poets are **Alfred Tennyson** and **Robert Browning.** The two noblest prose-writers are **Matthew Arnold** and **John Ruskin,** the former of whom was also a true poet. Style and vigorous expression in the majority both of poets and of prose-writers have risen to a greater height in this latter half of the nineteenth century than they ever did before in the history of Great Britain.

(i) **S. T. Coleridge** (1772-1834) wrote both verse and prose. His two finest poems are "The Ancient Mariner" and "Christabel." His best prose work is the "Aids to Reflection."

(ii) **William Wordsworth** (1770-1850) is the poet who inspired and guided most

of the best minds of the early half of the century. His best poems are his "Ode on Intimations of Immortality," his shorter poems, and his sonnets.

Another well-known writer was ROBERT SOUTHEY, who wrote an enormous amount both in prose and in verse. Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Southey are often classed as "The Lake Poets." But this is only a vulgar error which survives from the early days of the *Edinburgh Review*. Their styles were different; their ways of looking on human life were different; and their subjects were different.

(iii) **Lord Byron** (1788-1824) was the most *brilliant* poet of the century. He also wrote very vigorous prose. His best-known poem is "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage."

(iv) **Walter Scott** (1771-1832) was both a poet and a novelist. His most popular poems, "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," and "The Lady of the Lake," appeared before 1810; the poems of Lord Byron began to eclipse the poetic efforts of Scott, who turned in 1814 to fiction. His most famous novels are "Old Mortality." "Ivanhoe," etc.

(v) **P. B. Shelley** (1792-1822) was perhaps the finest lyrical poet of the century. His best long poem is the "Adonaïs"—an elegy on the death of John Keats. His finest lyric is the "Ode to a Skylark."

(vi) **John Keats** (1795-1821) died too early for his work, but not for his fame. His greatest poem is "Hyperion"—a poem on the subjugation of the "Early Gods" by those of the second régime. His odes are among the noblest and finest in the language.

(vii) **Charles Lamb** (1775-1834) is the most subtle and delicate prose essayist in our language. His best prose work is to be found in the "Essays of Elia."

(viii) **W. S. Landor** (1775-1864) was a writer of vigorous, clear, and classical prose. His greatest work is his "Imaginary Conversations."

(ix) **W. M. Thackeray** (1811-63) is the most original of English novelists. His two greatest works are "Vanity Fair" and "The Newcomes."

(x) **Charles Dickens** (1812-70) was the most popular writer of the century. His best work is "David Copperfield"—a kind of autobiography. His best work was written in the first half of the century.

(xi) **George Eliot** (= Marian Evans—1819-80) wrote both prose and verse. Her greatest novels are "Adam Bede" and "Middlemarch."

(xii) **T. B. Macaulay** (afterwards Lord Macaulay, 1800-59) was a historian, poet, and orator. His greatest work is his "History of England," and his Essays; and his best-known poems are his "Lays of Ancient Rome." His Speeches are full of noble and vigorous eloquence.

(xiii) **T. Carlyle** (1795-1881) was a great essayist as well as historian. His best-known work is his "Heroes and Hero-Worship"; his most striking and brilliant book is the "French Revolution."

King" is perhaps the best known of his works.

(xv) **R. Browning** (1812-89) is the most daring and original poet of this century. His greatest work is "The Ring and the Book"; and his lyrical poems are also very fine.

(xvi) **Matthew Arnold** (1822-89) was a writer of beautiful prose as well as of exquisite poetry. His best poems are "Sohrab and Rustum," "Thyrsis"—an elegy on Arthur Clough, and "Empedocles on Etna."

(xvii) **John Ruskin** (1819-1900) was one of the greatest masters of English prose. His best-known work is his "Modern Painters."

GROWTH OF THE CONSTITUTION

SHORT LIVES OF EMINENT PERSONS

ETC.

# STEPS IN THE GROWTH OF THE CONSTITUTION.

## I. SAXON TIMES.

**1. The English Nation** had a KING and a SUPREME COUNCIL.

**Egbert** may be regarded as the first King of England. In 802 he became king of the West Saxons. In 827 he was king of the English south of the Thames, and—by conquest—Overlord of all the English from the Thames to the Forth.

*King* or *Cyning*=son of the race. *Cyn*=*Kin*; and *ing*=*son*.

**2. The King** was the lord of his people; the chief among his nobles, and the commander-in-chief of the national host (fyrd).

The King's sons and brothers were called **Æthelings**.

**3. The Supreme Council or Witenagemôt** (=Meeting of the Wise) was the Assembly of the Freemen of the Nation.

(i) The Witĕnagemôt was "democratic in ancient theory, aristocratic in ordinary practice."

(ii) The numbers in attendance seem to have been from 90 to 100; the largest number at any meeting was 106.

*Gemôt*=meeting. *Witena* (the genitive case)=of the Witan (wise).

**4.** The **Witenagemôt** had the following powers: (a) of electing the King; (b) of deposing the King; (c) of taking a direct share in every act of government.

(i) All the old English and Teutonic Kings were elective.

(ii) The Witan generally chose the ablest among the Royal Family

(iii) The eldest son, however, was generally chosen, unless he happened to be a minor.

(iv) The power of deposition passed, from the Saxon Witenagemôt, to the Norman and English Parliaments; and it was exercised in three cases—that of Edward II. in 1327, of Richard II. in 1399, and of James II. in 1688.

**5. The Witenagemôt,** along with the King, made laws; levied

taxes; made alliances and treaties; made grants of folkland; created and deposed bishops and other great officers of Church and State; and also acted as a Supreme Court of Justice.

## II. NORMAN TIMES.

**1. Duke William** of Normandy is elected and crowned **King of the English** by the Witan at Westminster on Christmas Day of 1066.

(i) The King is now sole and supreme landowner; and all the institutions of the country are assimilated to the feudal type.

At a Great Court held on Salisbury Plain he obliged all the landholders of England (60,000) to swear allegiance to him. Though only the "tenants-in-chief" held their land directly of the sovereign, yet all—both tenants and sub-tenants—were immediately responsible to him. They were "this man's men."

(ii) The **folkland** was changed into the **King's land** (Terra Regis).

(iii) All land granted to the Norman nobles was held on feudal tenure—that is, on the condition of military service when the King required it.

(iv) The Supreme Court of the kingdom was the **King's Court** (Curia Regis), which is both the Council of the King and the Witenagemôt of the nation.

(v) In the absence of the King, the **Justiciar** was **Regent.**

**2.** The **Great Council of the Realm** (Magnum Concilium) consisted of (i) Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, and Masters of Religious Orders; (ii) Earls and greater Barons; (iii) Lesser Barons and Knights holding land directly from the King.

The lesser barons and knights came in after William I.'s time.

## III. THE ANGEVIN (PLANTAGENET) PERIOD.

**1.** The **Monarchy**—feudal as well as national—is restored and reorganised by Henry II.

(i) The institution of **scutage** strengthens the power of the King as against the barons.

(ii) The **Grand Assize**, which introduced trial by jury, supersedes the old methods of trial by battle or by compurgation.

(iii) The **Assize of Arms** makes the King independent of the feudal barons by re-organising the **fyrd** or national militia.

**2. The State** is declared supreme in law over the Church.

**The Constitutions of Clarendon strengthen the power of the King as against the Church.**

**3.** John is compelled (1215) to sign the **Great Charter** (Magna Charta).

(i) "The Great Charter of Liberties was the outcome of a movement of all the freemen of the realm, led by their natural leaders the barons. It was not a 'piece of class legislation.' It was a treaty of peace between the King and his people in arms."—LANGMEAD.

(ii) "It is the key-stone of English liberty."—HALLAM.

(iii) The **Assembly at St. Albans** (1213), called to consider the first draught of the reforms mentioned in the Great Charter, is "the first Representative Assembly on record."—(Stubbs.)• Four men and the reeve were summoned from each township.

**4.** In 1254 (Henry III.) two **Knights of the Shire** are for the first time summoned to attend the National Council.

A meeting of the barons of England at London in 1246 was called a **Parliament**; and this is the first occasion on which the term was employed.

**5.** In 1265 (Henry III.) **representatives from cities and boroughs** are for the first time summoned to attend the National Council.

(i) The Battle of Lewes, in 1264, had placed the supreme power in the hands of Earl Simon de Montfort.

(ii) Earl Simon is the "founder of the House of Commons."

**6. PARLIAMENT** now consists of **Three Estates**:—**Convocation**; the **House of Lords**; and the **House of Commons.**

(i) The **Convocation** of the two Provinces of York and Canterbury consisted of an (a) **Upper House** (the Archbishops, Bishops, and Abbots); and (b) a **Lower House** (the Agents of the Inferior Clergy).

(ii) The **House of Lords** consisted of (a) **Spiritual Peers** (Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, etc.); and (b) **Temporal Peers** (Earls and Barons).

(iii) The **House of Commons** consisted of (a) **Knights of the Shire**, and (b) **Burgesses.** The freeholders were the electors in the counties. In the boroughs the freeholders, guild-brethren, and members of the corporation were the electors.

**7. PARLIAMENT** had the following functions: (a) to advise the King; (b) to consent or to refuse consent to laws brought forward by the King's ministers; (c) to vote taxes; (d) to act as a High Court of Appeal.

**8.** In 1295 (Edward I.) the FIRST COMPLETE AND MODEL PARLIAMENT of the Three Estates met at Westminister.

• (i) "Many things have changed; but in all main points the Parliament of England, as it exists at this day, is the same as that which gathered round the great Plantagenet."—GARDINER.

(ii) The votes in aid were discussed by the three bodies separately. "The barons and knights gave the King one-eleventh of their moveables; the burgesses one-seventh; the clergy only one-tenth."—LANGMEAD.

(iii) The attendance of the clergy in Parliament was "always reluctant and intermittent, and in the fourteenth century ceased altogether." They preferred to attend the Convocation at York or London, which was on a representative basis.

(iv) The clergy fixed the amount of self-taxation in their meetings of Convocations; and this power they retained till 1664.

(v) The **Confirmatio Chartarum** by Edward I. (1297), forbade the collection of any taxes without the consent of Parliament.

"PARLIAMENT is the concentration of all the constituents of the shire-motes in a central assembly."—(STUBBS.) "It is not only a concentration of machinery, but an assembly of estates."

9. In 1332 (Edward III.) the Knights of the Shire deliberate apart from the Prelates and Barons.

(i) In 1333 they sat with the representative citizens and burgesses. But they voted taxation on themselves (subsidies) always apart.

(ii) The salary of a Knight of the Shire was 4s. a day (=£2 of to-day); of a citizen or burgess, 2s.

(iii) During the reign of Edward III., three principles of the Constitution got firmly established: (a) the illegality of taking the subject's money without the subject's consent; (b) the right of **impeachment**—that is, of calling Ministers (or Advisers of the King) to account for their actions (thus Ministers were made responsible to Parliament); and (c) the right of the Commons to a share in **legislation**—on the ground that what concerns the whole realm must be discussed "by all"—that is, by a *complete* Parliament.

## IV. THE LANCASTRIAN AND YORKIST PERIOD.

1. In 1406 (Henry IV.) the Commons insist upon a proper **Audit** of the accounts of the moneys granted by them.

2. In 1407 (Henry IV.) the Commons succeed in gaining for themselves the sole right of **originating money grants.**

3. In 1414 (Henry V.) all Statutes are to be based upon petitions presented by the Commons to the King, without any alteration whatever in the wording.

"The practice of drawing up the statutes from the petitions and answers *after the Session of Parliament had closed*, led to the commission of frequent frauds on the part of the King's officers, who often entered Acts of Parliament on the rolls, differing materially from what the Commons had petitioned for, and the King granted."—LANGMEAD.

**4.** In 1430 (Henry VI.) voting for Knights of the shire is restricted to freeholders "to the value of forty shillings by the year" (= £20).

(i) This is "the first disfranchising Statute on record."

(ii) "The county franchise, which had reached its maximum by the time of Henry IV., was now reduced to its minimum."—LANGMEAD.

**5.** Under the Lancastrian Kings, Parliament had gained for itself several Privileges—among others: (a) Freedom of Speech; (b) Freedom from Arrest; (c) the Right to determine disputed elections.

## V. THE TUDOR PERIOD.

**1.** In 1523 (Henry VIII.) the House of Commons refuses to grant the whole of the sum demanded by Wolsey for the King.

**2.** In 1539 (Henry VIII.) Parliament gives to the King's Proclamations the validity of Acts of Parliament.

(i) In this way "Henry VIII. contrived to unite the exercise of practically absolute power with respect for constitutional forms—to play the despot by the co-operation of his Parliament."

(ii) In this transaction Parliament was untrue to itself, and made the royal prerogative practically unlimited.

**3.** In 1587 (Elizabeth), Peter Wentworth, M.P., raises questions regarding the liberties of the House of Commons, but is committed to the Tower.

It was getting to be the custom to spread a rumour through the House, "The Queen dislikes such a matter; beware what you say," etc.

## VI. THE STUART PERIOD.

### (STRUGGLE BETWEEN KING AND PARLIAMENT.)

**1.** In 1604 (James I.) the Commons vindicate their exclusive right to determine disputed elections.

King James had tried to refer them to his court of Chancery.

**2.** In 1610 (James I.) the Commons remonstrate against the **Impositions.**

(i) **Impositions** were customs duties put on goods over and above those granted by Parliament.

(ii) The Judges decided that "the King might regulate the customs." This would have made the King practically independent of Parliament; because, in that case, he did not need to come to them for money.

**3.** In 1621 (James I.) the Commons enter on their Journals a protest that "their liberties and privileges are the undoubted birthright of the subjects of England."

(i) King James's view was that he ruled by divine right; that, if the Parliament or other body had any power, it was because it had been granted or conceded by him—the source of all power.

(ii) The King sent for the Journals of the House of Commons, and tore the above protest out of them with his own royal hand.

**4.** In 1628 (Charles I.) the Commons draw up the **PETITION OF RIGHT.**

(i) The Lords wanted to insert the words "leaving entire the *sovereign power*."

(ii) The Commons objected to this that (a) they knew of no power but the power of the **laws**; (b) that they could not *leave* what they had not themselves got; and (c) that the phrase "weakened Magna Charta and all the statutes," and gave an opening to the King to raise loans, to imprison at pleasure, etc. etc.

**5.** In 1661 (Charles II.) Parliament restores to the King certain prerogatives, among others the command of all sea and land forces.

**6.** In 1689 (William and Mary) Parliament passes the **BILL OF RIGHTS.**

(i) Chatham called the Great Charter, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights "the Bible of the English Constitution."

(ii) "The King-at-arms who proclaimed William and Mary before Whitehall Gate announced that the ancient laws by which the prerogative was bounded would henceforth be held as sacred as the prerogative itself."—MACAULAY.

**7.** In 1694 (William and Mary) the **Triennial Act** is passed.

(i) No Parliament to last more than three years.

(ii) Three years not to pass without a Parliament.

**8.** In 1703 (Anne) the Commons stop an appeal to the House of Lords on an election question.

(i) This was the case of Ashby, a burgess of Aylesbury, who had been refused permission to vote at an election.

(ii) In 1868 the trial of disputed elections was handed over to the superior judges.

**9.** In 1707 (Anne) the Kingdoms of England and Scotland unite.

(i) The House of Commons receives forty-five Scottish members.

(ii) The House of Lords receives sixteen peers elected by all the peers of Scotland.

**10.** In 1708 (Anne) no holders of pensions or offices can sit in Parliament.

(i) Hence, if a member accepts office, he must vacate his seat, and present himself again to the electors.

(ii) A member of Parliament cannot, according to law, resign his seat. Hence he asks the Government for the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds (an office without salary or duties); does *not* present himself again to the electors; and his seat is vacant.

**11.** In 1711 (Anne) a Property Qualification Bill for members of the House of Commons, requiring them to possess property of a certain annual value, is passed.

(i) This annual value was £600 for county, and £300 for borough, members.

(ii) This act was modified in 1838, and rescinded in 1858.

## VII. THE HANOVERIAN PERIOD.

**1.** In 1716 (George I.) the **Septennial Act** is passed.

(i) This Bill was introduced in the House of Lords.

(ii) Thirty-one peers protested, on the ground that no Parliament had a right to lengthen its own existence.

(iii) In 1728 (George II.) the publication of the parliamentary debates is forbidden—as a breach of privilege. This prohibition was repeated in 1738 (George II.).

> Mr. Pulteney said: "To print or publish the speeches of gentlemen in this House looks very like making them accountable without doors for what they say within." So it was.

**2.** In 1762 (George III.) **Bribery** was made illegal.

(i) Bribery was of two kinds: (a) of M.P.'s; and (b) of Electors.

(ii) There were two ways in which an M.P. could purchase a seat: (a) by buying it direct from the proprietor or the corporation: (b) by corrupting individual electors.

**3.** In 1771 (George III.) the publication of parliamentary debates was tolerated.

(i) Reporting is still, technically, a "breach of privilege."

(ii) "The entire people are now present, as it were, and assist in the deliberations of Parliament."—ERSKINE MAY.

**4.** In 1832 (William IV.) the **REFORM BILL** passes.

(i) The King consented to create new peers, if that should be necessary to carry the new measure.

(ii) But the Duke of Wellington persuaded a number of peers to stay away; and the House of Lords passed the Bill by 106 to 22.

**5.** In 1836 (William IV.) the House of Commons publishes its own **Division Lists.**

**6.** In 1860 (Victoria) the power of the House of Lords to interfere with a Money Bill is finally denied.

**7.** In 1867, a **NEW REFORM BILL** is passed.

(i) In English boroughs household suffrage was granted; in counties, £12 rental was required.

(ii) In Ireland the borough franchise was reduced to £4 rental.

**8.** In 1885 a **REFORM BILL** (the third this century) was passed, adding two million new voters to the register, and dividing the three kingdoms into electoral divisions.

## THE CONSTITUTION AS AT PRESENT.

**1.** The Government of the United Kingdom (with its Colonies and Dependencies) is vested in the **Sovereign**, the **Lords**, and the **Commons.**

(i) The **Crown** is hereditary.

(ii) The **House of Lords** consists of 478 peers—283 of whom are English hereditary peers.—There are 26 Spiritual Peers.

(iii) The **House of Commons** contains 670 members: 495 English; 103 Irish; and 72 Scotch.

**2.** The power of the **Sovereign** is delegated to the **Ministry** (the **Cabinet**).

(i) "The Sovereign is only at the head of the dignified part of the Constitution. The Prime Minister (First Lord of the Treasury) is at the head of the efficient part. The Crown is, according to the saying, the 'fountain of honour'; but the Treasury is the spring of business."—BAGEHOT.

(ii) The Cabinet is "not known to the Constitution." In its origin, it was a kind of small committee of the Privy Council. It is now a meeting of the twelve or fifteen foremost statesmen, who command a following in the House and the Country.

It was under the two reigns of George I. and II. that the system of government by CABINET (or Inner Committee of Ministers) was finally established. The first could not speak English at all; the second imperfectly; and both looked on Great Britain as a mere appendage to their own beloved Kingdom of Hanover.

**3. The House of Lords** (Upper House of Parliament) is chiefly a revising and suspending House.

(i) "It is part of our duty to originate legislation; but it is also a most important part of our duty to check the inconsiderate, rash, hasty, and undigested legislation of the other House."—LORD LYNDHURST.

(ii) If the Peers make a lengthened resistance to the legislation of the Commons, the constitutional course is for the Sovereign to create more peers. William IV. gave a written permission to Earl Grey, in 1832, "to create such a number of peers as will be sufficient to ensure the passing of the Reform Bill."

(iii) The Chairman of the House of Lords is the **Lord High Chancellor**, who sits on the **Woolsack**.

WOOL was at one time the chief source of the wealth of England. Hence the appropriateness of the chief law-official sitting upon it.

**4.** The **House of Commons** (Lower House of Parliament) is a body which represents the counties, boroughs, and Universities of the Three Kingdoms. It has practically all power. It alone can originate money bills; and it can originate any bill. The **Leader of the House** is the Prime Minister, if he is not a peer.

(i) Its chief function is legislation—the making of laws.

(ii) Its second function is to vote "Supply"—that is, to vote sums of money for each department of government and defence.

(iii) The third function is to provide political education for the whole nation.

(iv) The House of Commons not only contains the larger part of the Ministry, it also contains "**Her Majesty's Opposition**," whose duty as well as whose function it is to criticise, amend, and improve all measures submitted to the House.

**5.** A bill has to go through three Readings in each House before it can become an **Act of Parliament**. (It receives the **Royal Assent** after passing both Houses.)

(i) The Bill is read for the **first time**; and there is generally no opposition to, and no debate on, the first reading. The Bill is then printed.

(ii) The debate takes place on the **second reading**.

(iii) If the Bill pass the second reading, the House **goes into Committee**. That is, the Speaker leaves the chair, the Chairman of Committee takes a lower chair; and the Bill is considered, discussed, and debated clause by clause—and changes made wherever they are shown to be necessary.

(iv) The House (it is still "the House," though in "Committee") may "divide" (that is, vote by going into different lobbies) on each word, phrase, or clause of the Bill.

(v) When the Bill has passed through Committee, it is **reported** to the House as having passed the Committee. It is then brought up for the **third reading**, which is very seldom either debated or opposed.

(vi) Then it is sent on to the House of Lords, where it goes through the same process of three readings.

(vii) If it is altered there, it goes back to the House of Commons. If the Commons agree with the Lords, well and good; if not, there is a conference between selected members of the two Houses.

(viii) When a Bill passes both Houses, it receives the Royal assent. The Clerk of the House rises and says, in Norman-French, "Le Roy le veult" (the King wills it).

(ix) The Sovereign possesses, by law and by the Constitution, the right of **Veto** (Latin = I forbid); but this right has not been exercised since 1707.

6. The head of the Cabinet (or Ministry) is the **Prime Minister** (Premier). He is the leader of the "party in power"; and it is the Country that puts the party in this position.

(i) The following members of the Government are always in the Cabinet: The First Lord of the Treasury (who is generally Premier); the Lord Chancellor (who is Chairman of the House of Lords); the Chancellor of the Exchequer (who must always have a seat in the House of Commons); the Home Secretary; the Foreign Secretary (who is sometimes Prime Minister); the Secretary for the Colonies; the Secretary for India (which is a "Crown Dependency"); the Secretary for War (who has the control of the Army); the President of the Council (= the Privy Council); the First Lord of the Admiralty (= Secretary of the Navy); the Lord Privy Seal.

(ii) The following may or may not have seats in the Cabinet: The President of the Board of Trade; the President of the Local Government Board; the Chief Secretary for Ireland (who is now almost always in the Cabinet); the Postmaster-General (who is seldom); the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster (a Duchy which is an appanage of the Crown); and the Vice-President of the Council (= the Minister of Education). —The presence of any of these in the Cabinet depends on his individual ability.

(iii) We now generally speak of the Government in power by the name of its premier, as Lord Rosebery's, Lord Salisbury's, Mr. Gladstone's, or Mr. Balfour's Government.

7. When the Ministry in power loses the confidence of the Commons, or has not a good "working majority," it recommends the Sovereign to dissolve Parliament, and "goes to the Country."

(i) When Parliament is dissolved, there is a **General Election.**

(ii) The Minister whose party has a **majority,** assumes "the reins of office."

8. Our Colonies have each a Parliament and Executive of their own; but the Sovereign is represented by a **Governor-General,** who is controlled in London by the Colonial Secretary.

(i) **India** is directly under the Secretary for India—that is, under the Crown. The **Indian Council,** the chairman of which is the Secretary for India, sits in London.

(ii) **Ceylon** is also a Crown Dependency, and is ruled from London, and not from **Madras** or **Calcutta.**

# SHORT LIVES OF EMINENT PERSONS.

**Albert, Prince** (1819-1861), was a son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He was married in 1840 to Queen Victoria, taking the rank and title, however, not of King, but of Prince Consort. He was respected and beloved by the nation; he encouraged literature, science, and art; and he originated the first International Exhibition of 1851.

**Bacon, Francis** (1561-1626), Baron Verulam, Viscount St. Albans, was the second son of Lord Keeper Bacon. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge; and at Gray's Inn, London. Queen Elizabeth admired the abilities of the boy, and used to call him her "Young Lord Keeper." He entered Parliament in 1584 as M.P. for Melcombe Regis. In 1586 he was Bencher of Gray's Inn. In 1613 he was appointed Attorney-General. In 1618 he became Lord High Chancellor, and was raised to the peerage as Baron Verulam. Three years after he became Viscount St. Albans. In the same year (1621) he was accused of bribery; was tried by the House of Lords; found guilty; and sentenced to pay a fine of £40,000, and to be imprisoned in the Tower during His Majesty's pleasure. Bacon remained only a few days in the Tower; and James remitted his fine. His best-known works are the "Essays" and the "Advancement of Learning."

**Blake, Robert** (1599-1657), became a Puritan, and, on the outbreak of the Civil War, joined the Republican troops. He received the thanks of Parliament for his defence of Taunton. Being made Admiral, he distinguished himself against Prince Rupert; but his most famous engagements were with the Dutch Admiral, Van Tromp.

**Bolingbroke, Henry St. John, Viscount** (1678-1751), negotiated with great skill the Peace of Utrecht. In 1714 he lost his office of Foreign Secretary, and, withdrawing to France, intrigued with the Pretender. He was impeached by Parliament of high treason, and also lost the Pretender's confidence. After some attempts to get himself reinstated at home, he retired altogether into private life.

**Brougham, Henry Peter** (1778-1868), Baron Brougham and Vaux, was the eldest son of Henry Brougham, a gentleman of Cumberland. He was born at the West Bow, Edinburgh. He was educated at the High School and University of Edinburgh. In 1802 he assisted in starting the *Edinburgh Review*. In 1805 he settled in London. In 1810 he entered Parliament as M.P. for Camelford. In 1830 he was M.P. for Yorkshire; in 1831 he was made Lord High Chancellor, and called to the House of Lords as Baron Brougham and Vaux. He was never offered office again. He died at his château at Cannes in 1868. He wrote a number of books, the best of which is perhaps his "Historical Sketches of Statesmen."

**Buckingham, George Villiers, Duke of** (1592-1628), was the favourite both of James I. and Charles I. His influence was so great that everything at court was managed according to his wishes. In 1624 he led the country into war with Spain, and he afterwards brought about a war with France. He commanded the expedition of 1627 which failed in the attempt to relieve La Rochelle; and he was on the point of setting out on another expedition when he was stabbed at Portsmouth.

His son, of the same name (1627-1688), was a member of the Cabal Ministry, and one of the most profligate of Charles II.'s favourites.

**Burke, Edmund** (1729-1797), was one of the finest British orators, and a great statesman and author. He took the part of the American colonists, led the impeachment of Warren Hastings, and, on the outbreak of the French Revolution, strongly opposed its principles. His best-known works are the "Inquiry into the Sublime and Beautiful" and the "Letters on a Regicide Peace."

**Burleigh, William Cecil, Lord** (1520-1598), a firm and sagacious statesman, was the trusted counsellor of Queen Elizabeth. In the reign of Edward VI. he had been Secretary of State. His Protestant opinions prevented his holding any public office under Mary, and he only escaped persecution by outwardly conforming to Catholicism. On Elizabeth's accession he again became Secretary of State, and in 1572 he was appointed Lord High Treasurer. He was the moving spirit in the state until his death.

**Canning, George** (1770-1827), was appointed by Pitt Under-Secretary of State, and afterwards Treasurer of the Navy. Under the Duke of Portland he became Foreign Secretary in 1807; and in 1814 he was sent as an ambassador to Portugal. In 1822 he was again Foreign Secretary; and in 1827, the year of his death, he became Prime Minister. He was a witty writer as well as an able statesman.

**Castlereagh, Robert Stewart, Viscount,** and afterwards Marquis of Londonderry (1769-1822), was born in Ireland, and educated at St. John's College, Cambridge. He entered the House as M.P. for County Down—a seat which cost him £30,000. In 1798 he was Chief Secretary for Ireland; and in that capacity a strong advocate for the Union. He was president of the Board of Control and Secretary at war in Pitt's administration. It was he who mismanaged the Walcheren Expedition. Canning insisted on his dismissal; Castlereagh challenged him, and in the duel Canning was badly wounded. In 1812 he became Foreign Minister, under Lord Liverpool, and remained in this office till his death. As Foreign Minister he was very unpopular both in England and on the Continent. In 1822, worn out with hard work, his mind gave way, and he committed suicide.

**Chatham, William Pitt, Earl of** (1708-1778). William Pitt (the elder) was one of the greatest British statesmen. He became Prime Minister at the age of forty-five, and his term of office was distinguished by brilliant victories over the French in America and elsewhere. In 1766 he was created Earl of Chatham, having previously won for himself the more notable title of the "Great Commoner." His last great speech was in opposition to the severe treatment of the American colonists, and a month after its delivery he died.

**Coverdale, Myles** (1488-1568), was brought up, like Martin Luther, as an Augustinian friar, but afterwards adopted the principles of the Reformation, and became a favourite of Thomas Cromwell. He made an English translation of the Bible, "out of Douche and Latyn," which he finished in 1535.

**…er, Thomas** (1489-1556), a great churchman, obtained the favour of Henry VIII. by his advice concerning the divorce of Catherine of Arragon. In 1533 he became Archbishop of Canterbury and powerfully helped the Reformation movement. This he continued to do in the reign of Edward VI., but under Mary he was tried for heresy. Through fear of death he recanted his principles, but he was, notwithstanding, burned at the stake. He met his doom at the last courageously, re-avowing the Protestant faith.

**Cromwell, Oliver** (1599-1658), entered Parliament in 1628, and ranged himself on the Puritan side. When the Civil War broke out, he took command of a troop, and so distinguished himself against the Royalists that he was appointed commander of the Parliamentary army. He subdued Ireland, overcame the Scots at Dunbar and Worcester, dismissed Parliament, and was made Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. He declined the title of King, but really held the royal power, which he used to the great advantage of the country at home and abroad.

**Cromwell, Thomas.** *Vide* Essex.

**Darnley, Henry Stuart, Lord,** was the husband of Mary Queen of Scots, and the father of James I. of England. In the year 1567, when he was recovering from an illness, he was blown up in the house of Kirk of Field, near Edinburgh. Of this crime the Earl of Bothwell, who shortly afterwards married the Queen, is supposed to have been the author.

**Drake, Sir Francis** (1545-1595), one of the most famous of the famous Elizabethan sailors, was born in Devonshire. Entering the navy and obtaining a command, he attacked the Spanish settlements in America and gained both plunder and glory. He made a voyage round the world, and was knighted by Queen Elizabeth. In the fleet which destroyed the Spanish Armada he was Vice-Admiral, and played a distinguished part.

**Dundee, Viscount** (d. 1689), John Graham of Claverhouse, was one of the Royalist Commanders in Scotland under Charles II., and assisted in the persecution of the Covenanters. He was created Viscount Dundee in 1688. Refusing to recognise William of Orange as king, he raised a revolt; and at the battle of Killiecrankie, in 1689, he defeated General Mackay but was himself slain.

**Effingham, Lord Howard of** (1536-1624), a great English seaman, was appointed Lord High Admiral in 1585; and in 1588 commanded the fleet that defeated the Spanish Armada. He was afterwards made Earl of Nottingham; and in 1599 held for a short time the sole command both of the army and of the navy.

**Essex, Robert Devereux, Earl of** (1567-1601), was a favourite of Queen Elizabeth. He served with distinction in the Netherlands, and was made Earl Marshal of England. Having displeased the Queen, he was sent, as an honourable banishment, to Ireland; but he disobeyed his instructions, and returned to England without leave. He was shortly after tried and beheaded.

**Essex Thomas Cromwell, Earl of** (1498-1540), was the confidential friend and servant of Cardinal Wolsey, after whose death he became a favourite of Henry VIII. He assisted the king in the suppression of the monasteries, and was created Earl of Essex; but, by his share in the marriage with Anne of Cleves, he lost the royal favour, was accused of high treason, and beheaded.

**Eugene, Prince of Savoy** (1663-1736), served Austria against the Turks and the French. He was associated with the Duke of Marlborough in his great Netherlands campaigns, and notably at the battle of Blenheim in 1704.

"Great praise the Duke of Marlborough won,
And our good Prince Eugene."

**Fawkes, Guy,** was one of the conspirators in the plot to blow up James I. and his Parliament. For this he was executed in 1605: and his effigy is still burnt on the 5th of November, the anniversary of the day on which the Gunpowder Plot was discovered.

**Fox, Charles James** (1749-1806), a great statesman, held various minor offices, and assisted in opposition, until in 1782 he became Foreign Secretary under the Marquis of Rockingham. Shortly afterwards he formed a coalition ministry with Lord North. He was the most eminent rival of the younger Pitt, and an enthusiastic supporter of the French Revolution.

**Gardiner, Stephen** (1483-1555), was Secretary to Cardinal Wolsey, and helped in Henry VIII.'s divorce from Catherine of Arragon. In 1531 he was made Bishop of Winchester. Under Edward VI. his opposition to the Reformation led to his imprisonment; but on Mary's accession he became Prime Minister. He took a vigorous part in the persecution of the Protestants.

**George, Prince of Denmark** (1653-1708), was son-in-law of James II., having married the Princess Anne. At the Revolution of 1688 he aided William of Orange; and when Anne became Queen he was appointed Lord High Admiral.

**Gordon, Lord George** (1750-1793), bitterly opposed the bill for the toleration of Catholics, and was the cause, in 1780, of the Gordon Riots. He was afterwards imprisoned for a libel on the Queen of France, and died in Newgate.

**Graham of Claverhouse.** *Vide* Dundee.

**Graham of Montrose.** *Vide* Montrose.

**Hampden, John** (1594-1643), a Buckinghamshire gentleman, made a noble resistance, in 1637, to Charles I.'s illegal tax of ship-money. In the Civil War he fought on the side of Parliament, and was mortally wounded at Chalgrove Field.

**Harley, Robert.** *Vide* Oxford.

**Hastings, Warren** (1783-1818), went out to India as a writer or clerk in the service of the East India Company. He rapidly rose in the service, and was at length made the first Governor-General of India. His measures were firm and successful, but he was accused of oppression and extortion. After a trial lasting seven years he was acquitted; but the costs of the trial brought him almost to beggary.

**Hawkins, Sir John** (1520-1595), was one of Elizabeth's admirals, and, like Drake, a Devonshire man. He took part in the defeat of the Spanish Armada, as Rear-Admiral of the English fleet. In 1573 he became Treasurer of the Navy. He founded the slave-trade in the West Indies.

**Howard, Henry.** *Vide* Surrey.

**Howard, Lord.** *Vide* Effingham.

**Howard, Thomas.** *Vide* Norfolk.

**Hyde, Edward** (1608-74), Earl of Clarendon, was born in Wiltshire, and educated at Oxford. He was a member of the Long Parliament, and on the side of the Parliamentary party. But, when civil war broke out, he took the King's side; and, in 1642, was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer. He went into exile with Prince Charles. In 1660—at the Restoration—he was made Lord High Chancellor, with the title of Baron Hyde; and he was afterwards created Viscount Cornbury and Earl of Clarendon. He was accused of high treason; was suspected of having sold Dunkirk to the French; and he left the country. He died in exile at Rouen. His daughter, Anne Hyde, became the wife of the Duke of York (James II.); and he was thus the grandfather of two queens of Great Britain. His great work—and it is an English classic—is the "History of the Rebellion," that is, of the Civil Wars in Charles I.'s reign.

**Jeffreys, Judge** (1640-1689), conducted the "Bloody Assize" in the West of England, at which the prisoners who had shared in Monmouth's rebellion were tried. His cruel severity was rewarded by his appointment as Lord Chancellor; but at the Revolution he was imprisoned, and died in the Tower.

**Junius** was the signature attached to a brilliant series of letters which appeared from January 1769 to January 1772, containing most trenchant criticism of the various public men to whom they were addressed. It has never been quite settled who was the author of the letters; but most probably it was Sir Philip Francis, a member of parliament and political pamphleteer.

**Knox, John** (1505-1572), was educated at St. Andrews. In 1542 he became a Protestant. In 1547 the French, in revenge for the murder of Cardinal Beaton, besieged St. Andrews; and Knox, among others, was taken prisoner and sent to the galleys. Some years afterwards he was ardently preaching the Reformation, first at St. Andrews and then in Edinburgh. He did more to spread the reformed doctrines in Scotland than any other man. He was not afraid to administer stern rebukes to Mary Queen of Scots for her attachment to Catholicism and her gay life.

**Latimer, Hugh** (1490-1555), one of the English martyrs to the cause of Protestantism, became Henry VIII.'s chaplain in 1530. In 1535 he obtained the Bishopric of Worcester, but his resistance to the Six Articles led to his imprisonment. Under Edward VI. his eloquent preaching made him widely popular. When Mary ascended the throne and began her career of persecution, Latimer, with his friend Ridley, was burned at Oxford.

**Laud, William** (1573-1645), the celebrated prelate of the reign of Charles I., was appointed Bishop of St. David's in 1621. After filling two other sees he was raised in 1633 to the Primacy. He attempted to force the English liturgy upon the people of Scotland, and was very harsh towards dissent in England. His support of the Earl of Strafford's measures caused him to be impeached along with that nobleman; and after an imprisonment of two and a half years he was tried and beheaded.

**Leicester, Robert Dudley, Earl of** (1532-1588), was the son of the Duke of Northumberland. He early became the favourite of Queen Elizabeth, and it was at one time thought that she might marry him. He himself, however, was three times secretly married—first to the unhappy Amy Robsart, in whose sudden death he

was suspected of having some share. In 1575 Elizabeth visited him at Kenilworth, and was entertained with great splendour. He was put in command of the expedition to Holland in 1585, but only succeeded in proving his incapacity. Throughout his life he was the rival and enemy of Burleigh.

**Leslie, Alexander, Earl of Leven**, became, in 1639, commander of the forces of the Scottish Covenanters. In the following year he invaded England, and captured Newcastle and Durham. He subsequently fought at Marston Moor, and took part in the siege of Newark. After Charles I. was beheaded Leslie opposed Cromwell, and intrigued in favour of Charles II. He died in 1661. His nephew, **David Leslie** (died 1682), was defeated by Cromwell at Dunbar.

**Luther, Martin** (1483-1546), was in early life an Augustinian monk and Professor of Philosophy in the University of Wittenberg. The sale of indulgences by Tetzel roused his indignation, and turned his attention to other abuses of the Church of Rome, from which, step by step, he severed himself. In 1520 he was excommunicated, and from that time forth he was the acknowledged leader of the Reformation.

**Marlborough, John Churchill, Duke of** (1650-1722), after serving with distinction on the Continent, assisted in crushing Monmouth's rebellion. At the Revolution he transferred his allegiance to William of Orange, and in 1689 he was sent to command the English troops in the Netherlands. In 1702 he became Commander-in-Chief of the allied forces. His wonderful victories—Blenheim, 1704; Ramillies, 1706; Oudenarde, 1708; Malplaquet, 1709—gained him a renown which has been eclipsed by that of no other British commander except Wellington. As a diplomatist, he was more remarkable for ability than for principle, and he more than once came under the suspicion of treason.

**Mary II.** (1662-1694) was the daughter of James II., and the wife of William III. She had been brought up a Protestant; and at the Revolution she forsook her father, and was crowned, along with her husband, in 1689. Her character was strong and amiable. During William's absence in Ireland, her prompt and wise action prevented a serious disaffection in the fleet commanded by Russell. She died of small-pox eight years before the death of her husband.

**Mary Queen of Scots** (1542-1587) was the daughter of James V. of Scotland, and the mother of James I. of England. She married, in 1558, the Dauphin of France, who survived the marriage scarcely more than two years. In 1561 Mary returned to her native country and was crowned Queen. Her Catholic opinions soon began to give offence to the Reformers. In 1565 she was married to Lord Darnley, her first cousin. Two years later he was murdered, and Mary married the Earl of Bothwell, who was strongly suspected of being her husband's murderer. The Scottish nobles now rose against her and forced her to abdicate. After an unsuccessful attempt to recover the crown she fled to England and threw herself upon Elizabeth's protection. The English Queen, however, finding her the centre of perpetual plots, and that her own life was not safe so long as Mary lived, caused her to be put to death. Beautiful, sinful, and unhappy, Mary Stuart is one of the most romantic figures in all history.

**Milton, John** (1608-1674), was one of the greatest English poets, and a prose writer of great force on the side of civil and religious freedom. He became Latin Secretary

to the Council of State, and subsequently Private Secretary to the Lord Protector Cromwell. He was the author of "Paradise Lost," "Samson Agonistes," "Comus," "Lycidas," etc.; and, in prose, of the "Areopagitica," "Iconoclastes," "A Defence of the People of England," etc. For many years he was quite blind.

**Monck, General** (1608-1670), served under Charles I. against the Scots in 1639, and helped to suppress the Irish Rebellion in 1641. After the king's execution he took service under Cromwell, became Commander in Scotland, and fought at the battle of Dunbar. When the Commonwealth was broken up by the death of Oliver and the incapacity of Richard Cromwell, Monck, with the army at his command, was mainly instrumental in the Restoration of the Stuarts. He was rewarded with the title of Duke of Albemarle. Along with Prince Rupert he won a great naval victory over the Dutch in 1666.

**Monmouth, James, Duke of** (1649-1685), was a natural son of Charles II. In 1685 he landed in England to dispute the right of James II. to the throne. The people of the West joined him with enthusiasm, and at Taunton he was proclaimed king. In the battle of Sedgemoor, however, he was utterly routed and his cause ruined. He was captured in a ditch, taken to London, and executed.

**Montrose, James Graham, Marquis of** (1613-1650), was a famous general on the side of Charles I. in Scotland. He defeated the Covenanters in 1644 at Tibbermuir, and in 1645 at Inverlochy and Kilsyth. In the latter year, however, he lost the battle of Philiphaugh, and fled the country. Five years later he landed in the Orkney Isles, but was captured and hanged in Edinburgh.

**Napier, Sir Charles James** (1782-1853), fought with distinction in the Peninsular War. In 1841 he was sent out to India, where he conquered the territory of Sind. In one battle, with only 1600 men, he defeated a force of 30,000. He was made governor of Sind, and ruled the territory most successfully.

*Note.*—Sir Charles James Napier is not to be confounded with his cousin, Sir Charles Napier, the Admiral (1786-1860).

**Napoleon Buonaparte** (1769-1821), the most famous of the rulers of France, was born in Corsica. During the Revolution he attracted notice by quelling a revolt against the Convention Government. In 1798 he attempted the conquest of Egypt and Syria, but in this he was unsuccessful. Returning home in 1799, he was declared First Consul. Next year, having marched across the Alps, he won the battle of Marengo, and conquered Italy. In 1804 he was crowned Emperor, and conceived the idea of invading England. Great preparations were made, but the design was never carried out. In 1805 he overthrew the Austrian army at Austerlitz. He was now almost master of Europe, and was able to fill several thrones with creatures of his own. In 1807 he gained a great victory over the Prussians at Jena, while in 1809 he routed an Austrian force at Wagram. The war in the Peninsula, his disastrous Russian expedition, and his defeat at the battle of Leipsic by the combined armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, broke his power. He was compelled in 1814 to abdicate and retire to the Isle of Elba. Escaping thence, he returned to France and easily collected an army. On the 18th of June 1815 he met the allied forces of Britain and Prussia at Waterloo. This memorable battle decided his fate. He was banished to the island of St. Helena, where he died.

**Nelson, Horatio, Viscount** (1758-1805), distinguished himself in several minor engagements, and was appointed, in 1796, Commodore in the Mediterranean fleet commanded by Jervis. He fought in the battle off Cape St. Vincent, and was promoted Rear-Admiral (1797). In 1798 he went in pursuit of the French fleet, attacked it in Aboukir Bay, and almost entirely destroyed it. In 1801 he bombarded Copenhagen. Four years later he gained one of the most famous naval triumphs in the history of the world, by defeating the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar. He fell, like Wolfe, in the moment of victory.

**Norfolk, Thomas Howard**, second **Duke** of (1443-1524), was, as Earl of Surrey, the English leader at Flodden in 1513. He was succeeded by his son, **Thomas**, third Duke (1473-1554). This duke was, during Henry VIII.'s reign, the leader of the old Catholic party, and the opponent of Wolsey and Thomas Cromwell. By his influence the Statute of the Six Articles was passed in 1539. In 1546 he was, through the intrigues of the Earl of Hertford, accused, along with his son the **Earl of Surrey** (q.v.), of high treason, and was only saved by the king's death. Two of his nieces (Anne Boleyn and Katharine Howard) were queens of Henry VIII. **Thomas Howard**, fourth Duke (1536-1572), son of the Earl of Surrey, was executed by Elizabeth.

**Northumberland, John Dudley, Duke of** (1502-1553), was son of the extortioner Dudley. In 1545 he was made Lord High Admiral, and in 1547 received the title of Earl of Warwick. He did not become Duke of Northumberland until four years later. In 1549 he succeeded Somerset as Protector of the kingdom, Edward VI. being still under age. On Edward's death he attempted to place his own daughter-in-law, Lady Jane Grey, on the throne; but the cause of Mary triumphed, and Northumberland was beheaded as a traitor.

**Oates, Titus** (1619-1705), pretended to have discovered a great Popish Plot to overturn the Protestant religion in England. Through his false accusations many innocent and upright men were put to death. In the reign of James II. he was publicly whipped and sentenced to imprisonment for life; but after the Revolution he was released and pensioned.

**O'Connell, Daniel** (1775-1847), a great Irish orator, opposed the Union of Ireland with Great Britain, and became the champion of the Catholic party. It was largely through his efforts that the Catholic Relief Bill of 1829 was passed; and he was known as the "Liberator." In 1841 he began to agitate for the repeal of the Union; but, being charged with holding illegal and seditious meetings, he was sentenced to be imprisoned and heavily fined. This decision, although it was overturned by the House of Lords, practically put an end to O'Connell's career and to the cause he represented.

**Orford, Edward Russell, Earl of** (1651-1727), naval commander and politician, was one of those who invited William of Orange to England. After the Revolution, becoming discontented, he corresponded with James; and in 1692 it was feared that the fleet under his command would refuse to fight the French. His loyalty was, however, roused by a timely letter from the Queen, and he gained the brilliant victory of La Hogue. He held three times the office of First Lord of the Admiralty.

**Orford, Robert Walpole, Earl of** (1676-1745). Sir Robert Walpole, an able financier and statesman, was appointed War Secretary in 1708. His political opponents accused him of appropriating the funds of this office to his own use, but his trial completely proved his innocence. For a short time he was Premier and Chancellor of the Exchequer, but in 1717 he resigned. Three years later he returned to office as Paymaster of the Forces, and in 1721, on the bursting of the South Sea Bubble, he resumed the Premiership. His firm and skilful measures restored the confidence of the nation. He held office till 1742, when he resigned and was created Earl of Orford.

**Overbury, Sir Thomas** (1581-1613), was a traveller and literary man. He had become intimate with Robert Carr (afterwards Earl of Somerset) the favourite of James I. When Carr, who was at that time Earl of Rochester, desired to marry the Countess of Essex, Overbury interfered; whereupon Rochester and the Countess had him committed to the Tower and there poisoned.

**Oxford, Robert Harley, Earl of** (1661-1724), was Speaker of the House of Commons in 1702, and Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1710. In 1711 he became Lord High Treasurer and received his earldom. In 1715 he was impeached of high treason; but after two years' imprisonment in the Tower he was acquitted.

**Peel, Sir Robert** (1788-1850), the son of a cotton-spinner, began life as a strong Conservative, and ended by repealing the Corn Laws. Previous to 1829 he had held the office of Chief Secretary for Ireland, and that of Home Secretary, and had passed many useful measures. In that year he carried the Catholic Relief Bill. Two or three times during the years that followed he was Prime Minister for brief periods; and in 1846 he accomplished in the Repeal of the Corn Laws the crowning work of his life.

**Pembroke, Thomas Herbert, Earl of** (1656-1733), helped to bring about the Revolution of 1688. Under William and Mary he was Chief Commissioner of the Admiralty, and afterwards Lord Privy Seal. In 1700 he became President of the Council. He concluded the Treaty of Ryswick, and conducted negotiations for the Union with Scotland. In 1707 he was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. He twice held the office of Lord High Admiral.

**Pembroke, William Herbert, Earl of,** lived in the reigns of Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. On Edward's death he supported the claims of Lady Jane Grey, but was pardoned by Mary and became her faithful servant. He assisted in crushing Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion in 1554. He enjoyed high favour with Queen Elizabeth until his share in a plot against Burleigh, and another in favour of Mary Stuart, led to his banishment from court. He died in 1570.

**Perceval, Spencer** (1762-1812), a supporter of the younger Pitt, became Attorney-General in 1802. During the administration of Fox he was in opposition; but on the death of Fox, in 1807, he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer. Two years later he was First Lord of the Treasury. In 1812 a man named Bellingham shot him in the lobby of the House of Commons.

**Philip II.** (1527-1598) was the son of the Emperor Charles V. He married Mary I. of England in 1554, much against the will of her subjects. In 1556 he became King of Spain, and his reign was distinguished, like that of his English wife, by pitiless

persecution of the Protestants. He dragged England into that war with France which resulted in the loss of Calais. After Mary's death he aspired to marry Elizabeth; and her refusal was one of the causes that led him in 1588 to fit out the Armada for the conquest of England.

**Pitt, William** (1759-1806). The younger Pitt is to be ranked with his father among the greatest British statesmen. At the age of twenty-three he became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and a year later Prime Minister. He passed an India Bill, and a measure for the reduction of the National Debt. On the outbreak of the French Revolution he joined the rest of Europe in opposing it. In 1801 he found the feeling of the country unfavourable to his policy; and after bringing about the Union with Ireland he was forced to resign. The schemes of Napoleon, which threatened to overwhelm all Europe, created so much alarm in England that Pitt was recalled to office in 1804 as the only man fit to cope with them. He succeeded in making an alliance with Russia and Austria against Napoleon. His health was by this time failing, and the news of the battle of Austerlitz, in 1805, was the finishing stroke. He died in the following year.

**Pitt, William** (the elder). *Vide* Chatham.

**Portland, William Bentinck, Earl of** (1648-1709), was a statesman of the reign of William III., and a great favourite with the king. He was employed in the preparations for William's invasion of England in 1688; and at the battle of the Boyne he held a command. In 1697 he negotiated the treaty of Ryswick, and in the following year he was sent as ambassador to Paris. The part he took in the First and Second Partition Treaties led to his impeachment; but the trial was not proceeded with, and Portland retired into private life.

**Pym, John** (1584-1643), was the foremost man in the Parliamentary party in the reign of Charles I. He was a Somersetshire squire: was educated at Pembroke College, Oxford; and entered Parliament as M.P. for Tavistock, in Devonshire. In 1626 he took a prominent part in the impeachment of Buckingham. In 1641, he was the leader in the impeachment and attainder of Strafford. His friends spoke of him as "King Pym." He was also one of the five members whom Charles I. tried to arrest. He died at Derby House, in London, soon after the first battle of Newbury.

**Raleigh, Sir Walter** (1552-1618), was sent to Ireland in 1580, and assisted in putting down the rebellion. Sailing to America, he founded the colony of Virginia. In 1588 he took part in the defeat of the Armada, and eight years later in the Cadiz expedition. When James ascended the throne Raleigh fell into disfavour. A charge of treason was trumped up against him, and he was confined twelve years in the Tower, where he wrote a "History of the World." In 1616, having promised to obtain great treasure from South America, he was released; but the expedition proved a failure. On his return he was put to death on the original charge of treason.

**Richelieu, Cardinal** (1585-1642), a great French statesman, became First Minister of Louis XIII. in 1624. "His history for the rest of his life is the history of France." He made the power of the king absolute, but he himself was the real king. In 1628 he took La Rochelle, the stronghold of the French Protestants, in spite of the

attempts of the English to relieve it. His foreign and his home policy were alike conspicuously successful; and he encouraged art and literature.

**Ridley, Nicholas** (1500-1555), the fellow-martyr of Latimer, was appointed to the see of Rochester in 1547, and in 1550 to that of London, from which Bonner had been deposed. He supported the claim of Lady Jane Grey, and was in consequence imprisoned. The prominent part he had taken in defying papal authority caused him to be burned at the stake.

**, Sir George** (1650-1709), fought in the naval engagements of Beachy Head and La Hogue. In 1702 he sunk the Spanish treasure fleet in Vigo Bay; but the feat with which his name is chiefly associated is the taking of Gibraltar in 1704.

**Rupert, Prince** (1619-1682), was the nephew of Charles I., and in the Civil War commanded the Royalist cavalry. His qualities were rather those of a brilliant soldier than of a great general. He lost the battle of Marston Moor in 1644, and in 1645 was dismissed by Charles for surrendering Bristol. Being made commander of the fleet, he was defeated by Blake in 1651. After the Restoration he was associated with Monck in his great naval victories over the Dutch.

**Russell, Edward.** *Vide* Orford.

**Russell, John** (1792-1878), Earl Russell was born in Hertford Street, Mayfair, London. He was the third son of the then Duke of Bedford, and was commonly called Lord John Russell. He was educated at Westminster School, and at the University of Edinburgh. In 1813 he entered Parliament as M.P. for Tavistock—the family borough, at the age of twenty-one. He moved the first reading of the Reform Bill in 1831. He filled many Cabinet offices; and in 1846 became Prime Minister. In 1861 he was called to the Upper House as Earl Russell. In 1865, on the death of Lord Palmerston, he again became Prime Minister. He died at Pembroke Lodge, Richmond Park, at the age of eighty-five.

**Russell, William, Lord** (1639-1683), a statesman of the time of Charles II., resisted the claims of the Duke of York (afterwards James II.) to the succession, and endeavoured to pass the Exclusion Bill. In 1683 he was accused (probably without foundation) of being concerned in the Rye-House Plot, was found guilty of high treason, and executed.

**Sacheverell, Henry** (1622-1724), was a clergyman of strong High Church and Tory principles in the reign of Anne. He published a sermon violently attacking the Dissenters and the Whigs, for which the Whig ministry caused him to be impeached. His sermon was ordered to be burnt by the common hangman, and he himself forbidden to preach for three years; but the chief effect of the sentence was to win him favour with the populace and promotion from the Queen.

**St. John, Henry.** *Vide* Bolingbroke.

**Sidney, Algernon** (1620-1683), was a member of the Court which tried Charles I., though his name does not appear on the King's death-warrant. After the Restoration he lived abroad for some years until he received a pardon. In 1683 he was charged with being an accomplice in the Rye-House Plot; and, along with Lord William Russell was condemned and executed, on the scantiest and most doubtful evidence. He was a Republican, and wrote a series of "Discourses on Government."

**Sidney, Sir Philip** (1554-1586), soldier, statesman, author, and chivalrous English gentleman, is one of the brightest ornaments of the Elizabethan age. In 1576 he was sent as an ambassador to Austria, and concluded a Protestant Alliance in opposition to Philip II. of Spain. In 1585 he might have been made King of Poland, but Elizabeth, unwilling to lose him, interfered and appointed him Governor of Flushing. He was killed at the battle of Zutphen. His principal work is the "Arcadia."

**Smith, Sir Sidney** (1765-1841), entered the navy before he was twelve years old. In the wars against Napoleon Buonaparte he took an active share, his principal achievement being the defence, in 1798, of Acre in Syria. In 1821 he was made an Admiral.

**Strafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of** (1593-1641), in the earlier part of his career opposed the arbitrary claims of the Stuarts; but in 1628 he went over to the Royalist party and became the most uncompromising servant of Charles I. In 1633 he was made Lord Deputy, and in 1639 Lord-Lieutenant in Ireland, where his famous "thorough" policy won him much hatred. In England, too, his tyrannical conduct as President of the Council of the North, and his furtherance of the King's attempts to override the constitution, made the nation anxious for his downfall. In 1640 he was impeached of high treason; and, despite the endeavour of Charles to save him, was beheaded in the following year.

**Stuart, Lady Arabella** (1577-1615), was niece to Lord Darnley, and first cousin to James I. She was also a direct descendant of Henry VII., and, early in the reign of James, the Main Plot was formed to place her on the throne. When, in 1610, she married Sir William Seymour, who had also some claim to the crown, she was considered so dangerous to the King's safety that she was imprisoned in the Tower, where she died.

**Surrey, Henry Howard, Earl of** (1516-1547), soldier and poet, was son to the third D. of Norfolk, under whom he saw service in Scotland and in France. Being a descendant of Edward the Confessor, he unwisely assumed his arms and was suspected of aiming at the crown. He was accused of high treason and executed.

**Surrey, Thomas Howard, Earl of.** *Vide* Norfolk.

**Tyndale, William** (1484-1536), who was the first to translate the Scriptures into English from the original Greek and Hebrew, was in early life a private tutor. In 1524 he left England and went to live on the Continent, where his New Testament, Pentateuch, etc., were printed, and whence from 1526 onward they were smuggled into England. He was betrayed at Antwerp into the hands of his enemies, and, after sixteen months' imprisonment in the Castle of Vilvorde, he was there burned as a heretic in October 1536.

**Villiers, George.** *Vide* Buckingham.

**Walpole, Sir Robert.** *Vide* Orford.

**Walsingham, Sir Francis** (1536-1590), was sent by Burleigh as Ambassador to France in 1570, and in 1573 was appointed a Secretary of State. He maintained a very complete secret service, by means of which he was able to discover and crush several important conspiracies—notably that of Babington. He was instrumental in the death of Mary Queen of Scots. His character appears to have been a

mixture of honesty and cunning, both which qualities made him a useful servant of Elizabeth.

**Washington, George** (1732-1799), the great commander of the American colonists in the War of Independence, and first President of the United States, was born in Virginia. In early life he fought under Braddock against the French and Indians. On the outbreak of war with the mother country, the colonists made him their Commander-in-Chief; and in 1776 he compelled the British to evacuate Boston. During the next few years he was several times defeated; but in 1781 Lord Cornwallis surrendered to him at Yorktown. Two years later peace was made. Washington twice filled the office of President; and his noble character, no less than his gifts as a commander and an administrator, made him the idol of the new nation.

**Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of** (1769-1852), was born in the same year as his great rival Napoleon. He served for some time in India, where in 1803 he won the battle of Assaye against the Mahrattas. But it was the Peninsular War which revealed him as the "foremost captain of his time," if not of all time. His splendid victories—Rolica and Vimeiro, 1808; the Douro and Talavera, 1809; Busaco, 1810; Fuentes d'Onoro, 1811; Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajos, and Salamanca, 1812; Vittoria, 1813; Orthez and Toulouse, 1814—cannot be paralleled in the history of any other commander; while his consummate skill and patience were displayed in his ten weeks' defence of the lines of Torres Vedras in 1810. In 1815, by the crowning victory of Waterloo, the ambitious hopes of Napoleon were annihilated and the peace of Europe secured. The "Great Duke" was also a considerable force as a statesman.

**Wentworth, Thomas.** *Vide* Strafford.

**Wolfe, James** (1726-1759), was sent out to Canada under General Amherst during the war with the French. In 1759 he attacked the fortress of Quebec; scaled the Heights of Abraham, which were believed to be inaccessible, and took the city. He received his death-wound in the engagement, living only long enough to learn that the victory was won.

**Wolsey, Thomas, Cardinal** (1471-1530), churchman and statesman, was sent by Henry VII. as Ambassador to Germany. Under Henry VIII., he was appointed Bishop of Lincoln, Bishop of Bath and Wells, Bishop of Durham, Bishop of Winchester, and finally Archbishop of York. He was high in favour with the King, who made him his Chancellor. He lived with the magnificence of a royal prince. But his ambition and arrogance made him many foes at Court; while his conduct in the matter of Henry's divorce lost him the favour of the King. He was deprived of all his offices, and summoned to London to answer a charge of high treason. He died on the journey.

**Wyatt, Sir Thomas** (1520-1554), was the son of Sir Thomas Wyatt, the poet. In 1554, indignant at the marriage of Queen Mary with Philip II. of Spain, he raised a rebellion in Kent, took Rochester Castle, and marched on London. Here he was defeated and taken prisoner. He was executed for high treason.

# TERMS EMPLOYED IN ENGLISH HISTORY

**Annates.**—When a bisnop or archbishop was presented to a see, it was customary for him to pay his first year's income to the Pope. This was known as the exaction of "annates" or "first fruits." The practice was begun about the time of Henry III., and was abolished by statute of Henry VIII. in the year 1532.

**Attainder, Bills of,** like other Parliamentary bills, might be introduced in either of the Houses of Parliament. After being passed both by the Lords and the Commons, they had to receive the royal sanction before they could take effect. Their purpose was to "attaint" of high treason political offenders, who might or might not be heard in their own defence. *See* Impeachment.

Sir John Fenwick (1697) was the last person condemned by Bill of Attainder. This procedure had to be resorted to, as his wife had conveyed out of the country one of the witnesses against him. A charge of high treason cannot be proved without two witnesses at least.

**Baronet** is a title first conferred by James I., who made it a mere matter of sale and purchase. Any one who paid into the Treasury a sum sufficient to support for three years one hundred soldiers of the army in Ulster was created a baronet. The title is hereditary, but does not confer upon its possessor any special privileges. It need hardly be said that baronetcies are no longer offered for sale.

**Benefit of Clergy.**—Persons in holy orders enjoyed the privilege of being tried by ecclesiastical instead of by secular courts. The privilege was greatly abused, being claimed at length by all who could read a verse of the Psalms "like a clerk." It was found, moreover, that ecclesiastical courts were far too lenient in dealing with ecclesiastical offenders. Henry VII. and Henry VIII. greatly limited the privilege; it was finally abolished under George IV.

**Benevolences,** or forced loans, were employed by many of the kings of England as a means of raising money without the necessity of an appeal to Parliament. They were nominally requests, but really commands, to the king's subjects to contribute to the royal needs. They were declared illegal by Richard III.'s Parliament, but they continued to be extorted as late as the reign of James I.

**Billeting** of soldiers and sailors upon civilians was one of the grievances complained of in the Petition of Right. An Act of Charles II. in 1681 provided that no person should be compelled to receive soldiers or sailors into his house against his will; but this law, so far as it concerns innkeepers, is annually suspended by the Mutiny Act.

**Bills** are legislative proposals introduced in either of the Houses of Parliament. They do not become law until they have been passed by both houses and have received the royal assent. After they have been so sanctioned they become Acts of Parliament or Statutes. They have to pass three "Readings" in each House. If the Bill passes, the Clerk of the House of Lords says, in Norman French: "Le Roy (or La Reyne) le veult."

**Black Mail** was levied by Border and Highland marauders from their more peaceable neighbours. A farmer, on payment of black mail to a plundering chieftain, received

a guarantee that his cattle should not be carried off nor his house pillaged.

**Boycotting** is the modern Irish method of "sending to Coventry" an unpopular landlord, his agent, any of his tenants who pay him rent, or any person who may occupy one of his farms from which the previous tenant has been evicted. The first landlord to be treated in this way was a Captain Boycott, in 1880.

**Bulls** are official letters or proclamations from the Pope. The word is derived from the leaden seal (*bulla*) attached to the parchment on which the letter is written.

**Cabinet** is a select committee or council of Ministers and Secretaries of State, chosen by the Premier. (It was at first a kind of Committee of the Privy Council). Although technically unknown to the Constitution, the Cabinet controls the entire Government, with the powers formerly exercised by the Crown. Its importance began after the Revolution. The number of members varies from twelve to eighteen, and the meetings are secret.

**Cavalier** was a name given to the supporters of Charles I. in his struggle with the Long Parliament. After the Restoration the Cavaliers became the "Church and King Party," or Tory Party. "The Courtiers having long hair and locks, and always wearing swords, at last were called Cavaliers."

**Census.**—All the inhabitants of the country are numbered every tenth year by a Census. The first Census was held in 1801. The last was in 1901. The first "Imperial Census" of the British Empire was taken in 1871, when the population was found to be about 235,000,000.

**Champion of England** is an officer who appears at the coronation of each sovereign, and challenges to combat any who dispute his right to the throne. Needless to say, the challenge is never responded to. From Richard II. to Victoria the office has been hereditary in the Dymoke family.

**Chancery.**—The Court of Chancery is the highest court of judicature in England. Its head is the Lord High Chancellor, who was always an ecclesiastic until Sir Thomas More was appointed. He was "the Keeper of the King's conscience." The Chancellors have since been laymen. At one time the Court of Chancery had most extensive powers, and came frequently into conflict with the House of Commons. Its power was gradually reduced, and it was remodelled under Victoria.

**Cinque Ports** were five Ports on the south-east coast—Hastings, Dover, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich. Winchelsea and Rye were afterwards added. They were allowed to have a parliament, courts, and laws of their own, and to be exempt from taxation. In return they were bound to furnish the king with a fleet.

**Clergy** is a general name applied to all ministers of religion. In the Middle Ages they were divided into "regular clergy," who lived together in some monastic order, and "secular clergy," who attended to the wants of the common people.

**Common Lands** are unenclosed lands belonging to no owner, but open to the people generally for pasturage and other uses. They are a survival of the old *folk-land*, which belonged to all; but most of them have been enclosed by neighbouring landlords. The Commons Act of 1876 has put a stop to this.

The rights to these lands included *pasturage*, *turbary* (cutting turf for fuel), and *estovers* (the liberty of taking wood for fuel or for making furniture).

**Commonwealth** (=Common weal-th), the general good or interest of a nation. This title was given to the form of republic set up in England after the execution of Charles I. in 1649, and before the establishment of Cromwell's Protectorate in 1653.

**Congé d'élire.**—When a See fell vacant, the Chapter of the Cathedral elected a new bishop; but before doing so they had to obtain the king's permission by

**Congé d'élire,** or "leave to elect." In 1534 an Act of Henry VIII. gave power to the king to send, along with the Congé d'élire, the name of the man he desired to see elected.

**Consols** is a shortened term for the Consolidated Government Stock. Different government stocks used to bear different rates of interest; but it was found convenient to equalise them. (*See* National Debt.)

**Consuls** are British officials placed in sea-ports and other important towns in foreign countries. Their duty is to protect the interests of British subjects who may be staying or trading there. They attend principally to commerce, and report to the Foreign Office on the prices of living in the countries they are placed in; but they have no diplomatic duties.

**Court of the North.**—This court was established by Elizabeth for the government of the northern counties. It met at York. When Strafford became President of the Court of the North its powers were used in an arbitrary way to support the authority of Charles I. In consequence it was abolished by the Long Parliament.

**Covenant** was originally an agreement for mutual support ("a bond to stand by one another to the death") among the Scottish Protestants against the Roman Cathólic Church. The **First Covenant**—signed by James VI.—was framed in 1581. In 1638 when the Scottish Presbyterians rebelled against Charles I. they signed the **National Covenant.** An alliance in 1643 between the Scots and the English Parliamentary Party was called the **Solemn League and Covenant.** After the Restoration, all Covenants were declared unlawful.

**Covenanters** were the popular Presbyterian party in Scotland, who carried on the civil war against Charles I. They were severely persecuted under Charles II.

**Coyne and Livery** was an ancient custom or privilege by which the Irish Chiefs quartered troops on their tenants. It was finally abolished in 1603.

**Crown Colonies.**— Colonies under the sole administration of the government at home are called Crown Colonies. They have no representative institutions. They are generally countries that have been annexed by force of arms—not colonised at first by British settlers. Ceylon is a Crown Colony.

**Crown Lands** are lands belonging not to private owners, but to the King as Sovereign of the country. The Folk-land became, in William I.'s time, the Terra Regis. They are now administered by public departments, and cannot be sold or alienated in any way.

**Customs** are taxes or "duties" levied on merchandise entering or leaving the country; though they are most usually laid on imports. They are intended to produce public revenue. When foreign goods are re-exported, the import duty paid on them is returned, by the "system of drawbacks." The goods on which import duty is due are stored in "bonded warehouses"; and the merchant can pay it when most convenient to himself.

**Custos Rotulorum** (=keeper of the Rotuli, or Little Rolls or Lists): an official who takes charge of the rolls or records for the sessions of a county. The office is generally combined with that of Lord Lieutenant.

**Defender of the Faith.**—When Henry VIII. was still on good terms with the Pope he published a book (*The Defence of the Seven Sacraments*) against the doctrines of Luther. The Pope was so pleased with it that he conferred on Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith." The title has been used ever since by the sovereigns of England.

**Dispensing Power.**—This was a power formerly claimed by the

King, of exempting people from the operation of a penal law. It was used by James II. to admit Catholics to offices from which they were legally excluded. After the Revolution the Dispensing Power was abolished. (Not to be confused with the "Suspending Power," which was a right claimed to suspend the operation of a statute. The Bill of Rights abolished both powers.)

**Divine Right** was a theory that the King derived his authority, not from the people, but directly from God, to whom alone he was responsible. To resist the King was therefore declared an act of impiety. The complement of the theory was **Passive Obedience**. This theory was taught by many members of the Church of England, under the Stuarts.

**Estates of the Realm** were the bodies of men in the State who possessed political power. There were three Estates: the Nobles, the Clergy, and the Commons. The modern Parliamentary form is that of Lords Spiritual, Lords Temporal, and Commons. The Commons is generally called "The Third Estate"; and, by a humorous convention, the Newspaper Press has the name of "The Fourth Estate."

**Exchequer.**—The Court of Exchequer was established after the Norman Conquest, to manage the finances of the Country. It was at first the financial committee of the Great Council. The members sat around a table covered with a chequered cloth ("chequers" are little squares—like those on a chessboard) used in counting money. The Chancellor of the Exchequer is now a member of the Cabinet.

**First Fruits.**—See *Annates.*

**Forfeiture.**—When any one was convicted of treason his lands were "forfeited," or taken from him into the possession of the King. Forfeiture lasted from the time of Alfred until it was abolished in 1870.

**General Warrants** were issued for the arrest of persons connected with a certain offence, but without mentioning the name of any one. Wilkes was arrested in 1763 under a general warrant against the publishers of the *North Briton.* He raised an action against the Under-Secretary of State, received £1000 damages; and, in 1765, general warrants were declared illegal. "General warrants are no warrants at all because they name no one."

**Habeas Corpus** is a Latin phrase, meaning, "You must produce the person." It is the name of a writ issued by a judge to the jailor who has charge of any prisoner, ordering him to produce him for trial. It is thus a protection against unjust or prolonged imprisonment before trial. By the Habeas Corpus Act, passed in 1679, no judge can refuse this writ when it is demanded. It rests on the 29th section of Magna Charta: "No freeman to be imprisoned, etc." *See* p. 124, Part I.

**Impeachment** is a form of trial used in cases of high treason and other public offences. The tribunal is the House of Lords; and the House of Commons is the accuser, and carries on the prosecution. After the evidence on both sides has been heard, a majority of the House of Lords finds the accused "Guilty" or "Not Guilty." Strafford, Laud, Warren Hastings, and others, were proceeded against by impeachment. *See* Attainder, Bills of.

Strafford's Impeachment was afterwards converted by Pym into an Attainder.

**Impressment** is the practice of carrying off men against their will to serve as sailors in the navy. The practice, which existed from the fourteenth century, was in use until the time of William IV. Sailors returning from a voyage, and even peaceable citizens on their daily avocations, might be, and were, seized on the streets by a press-gang, knocked down, wounded sometimes, bound, and carried on board a man-of-war, to serve for a term of years.

**Legates** (Papal) were ambassadors sent by or empowered to re-

present the Pope in any country. From the time of Langton, the Archbishops of Canterbury were recognised by the Popes as ordinary Legates. Wolsey was not only Archbishop of York, but also Papal Legate. Cardinal Pole was the last Legate sent by the Pope to England.

**Levellers** were a faction that arose in the time of the Commonwealth. John Lilburne was their chief leader. They were the Socialists of the time, demanding the abolition of titles and rank, and an equal division of possessions. They rebelled against Cromwell, who easily suppressed them.

**Monopolies.**—The practice of granting monopolies was used by several sovereigns as a means of making money. The man who bought the monopoly of a certain trade had the sole right to carry it on, and any one else entering on that trade could be punished. They were put down by Elizabeth in 1601, revived under James I., and finally declared illegal in 1624.

**Mortmain.**—Lands acquired by a religious institution or other corporate body as a perpetual possession, are said to be held in *mortmain*. The term, which means "dead hand," was used because the property—become inalienable—could never be transferred again, and so was said to be in a dead hand's clutch. Such land was free from the duty of military service, and was therefore practically useless to the State. The famous "Statute of Mortmain" was issued by Edward I. in 1279.

**National Debt.**—A state may borrow by issuing stock which is purchased by those who wish to invest their money, and on which interest is paid at a fixed rate. The British National Debt, which began under William III. in 1692, increased in the nineteenth century to enormous proportions. It increased by £12,000,000 in William III.'s reign. At the present time it is over £700,000,000. The largest increase (£323,000,000) was made during the French war of 1802-1815.

**Non-Jurors** were (Jacobite) prelates and other clergymen who gave up their sees and livings at the Revolution, rather than take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary. They were about four hundred in number, and included Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, and five others of the Seven Bishops. They were advocates of the doctrine of "Passive Obedience," or—as it was called in later days—"Non-resistance."

**Orangemen** are an organisation of Protestants in the north of Ireland, first created in 1796. Their object is to maintain opposition to the Roman Catholics and native Irish.

**Pale.**—The Pale was the part of Ireland subject to English law, which lay around Dublin, and was surrounded by a belt of marshes, beyond which lay the independent Celtic districts. It disappeared after the Tudors subjugated the whole island. The dwellers in the Pale were ground between the upper and the nether millstone, and were "the most wretched of all the wretched inhabitants of Ireland."

**Patent** was at first a royal document conferring a title of nobility. The term is applied to the process by which the property of an inventor in his invention is guaranteed, and his right of ownership protected. (*Patent* means *open*. The Rolls granting titles were called "Patent Rolls," because they were delivered open, with the Great Seal affixed, and were addressed to all the King's subjects.)

**Plantations** was the name given at first to the English Colonies in North America and the West Indies. Criminals and convicts were banished to the Plantations as slaves.

**Press-gang.**—A company of sailors capturing men for the navy. See *Impressment*.

**Pretender** (=Claimant, Fr. *prétendre*, to claim): one who claims that the crown is his by right (*de jure*). The Old Pretender (James

VIII.) and the Young Pretender (Prince Charles Edward) were the son and grandson of James II. They were excluded from the throne by the Act of Settlement (1701).

**Protector.**—This title was first conferred on the Governor, or Regent, who exercised the King's power during a minority. It was afterwards borne by Oliver Cromwell and his son Richard. The term imported "a personal duty of attendance to the actual defence of the land."

**Puritans** were a religious party who arose under Elizabeth and the Stuarts. They objected to the Episcopal form of church-government, more especially to the ritual, and desired greater *purity* and simplicity in worship. Some, for engaging in private worship in London, were sent to prison in 1567—"the first instance of actual punishment inflicted on Protestant Dissenters."

**Queen Anne's Bounty.**—The revenue from First Fruits, which Henry VIII. annexed to the crown, was granted by Queen Anne to raise the stipends of the poorer clergy. Hence it is called her Bounty. It was instituted in 1704.

**Regent.** — When a king is too young to exercise his power, or is incapable from any other cause, his place is taken by a Regent. The Regent's power lapses when the king comes of age. The right of selecting, and of determining the powers of, a regent, resides in Parliament.

**Regicide:** the murderer of a king. Those who sat on the trial, or were instrumental in the death of Charles I., were called the Regicides. At the Restoration ten of them were executed and the rest imprisoned.

**Roundheads** were the supporters of the Parliament in the great Civil War. They cropped their hair short, unlike the Cavaliers, who wore it in long locks, flowing down to their shoulders.

**Ship-money.**—Under the Plantagenet kings, the port-towns and the coast counties were compelled to provide ships for the navy. When Charles I. was in need of supplies he revived this custom in 1634, and demanded sums of money from the coast-towns. The tax was afterwards extended to the inland counties as well. Hampden resisted it in 1637. In 1641 Parliament declared it illegal.

**Sinking Fund** is a sum of money set apart for the purpose of paying off part of the National Debt. At present this debt is being reduced by the creation of terminable annuities.

**Speaker** is an officer appointed by the House of Commons to preside over the debates, keep order, and act as the representative of the House. The office is very old and highly honourable. Sir Peter de la Mare, the leader of the "Good Parliament," 1376, was the first person who discharged the functions of Speaker, but without the title. The first person who bore the title was Sir Thomas Hungerford, in 1376. Sir Peter de la Mare bore the title in 1377.

**Stannary Courts** are very ancient courts for the administration of justice among the tin-workers of Cornwall and Devon. There was no appeal from these Courts to Westminster; and the Stuarts made large use of them as the engines of an arbitrary prerogative. (Lat. *stannum*, tin.)

**Star-Chamber** was a court, so named, according to some, because it met in a room where the roof was painted with *stars*. It was founded by Henry VII. The members of the Star-Chamber were the Chancellor, Treasurer, and other members of the Great Council. It had power to punish any offence it thought fit: even juries could be punished for their verdicts. Under the Stuarts the Star-Chamber used its authority against the opponents of the government in an arbitrary and tyrannical way. It was abolished in 1641.

**Statute.**— When any proposed measure has been passed by Parliament and assented to by the Sovereign, it becomes binding as a law or Statute. Up to the time of Edward I. all our statutes are in Latin; from then to Henry VI., French is mostly used; from Henry VII. they are all written in English. (Lat. *statuo*, I fix.) *See* Bill.

**Supremacy.**—When Henry VIII. broke with the Pope, an "Act of Supremacy" was passed by which the King was declared "the only Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England." This supremacy is still one of the prerogatives of the English crown.

**Suspending Power** was the right claimed by the King of suspending the operation of or abrogating any law at his pleasure. "It arose from the necessity in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries of combining the favour of the Pope with the maintenance of the Acts of Provisors and Praemunire." (*See* Dispensing Power.)

**Tory** is an Erse or Irish word, meaning to pursue for the sake of plunder. It was first used as the name of those Irish who preferred to live as outlaws who roamed on their own lands to going to Connaught among the bogs. In 1679 it was applied to those who opposed the exclusion of the Duke of York from the throne on account of his Roman Catholic faith. From them it descended to all supporters of Church and King.

**Treason** is the crime of violence or treachery directed against the Sovereign or the State. Even to plan such a crime is treason. The penalty for treason is death, which used to be inflicted with horrible barbarity. Burning for treason was abolished in 1790; drawing, quartering, and beheading in 1870.

**Vicar-General** was a title conferred on Thomas Cromwell by Henry VIII. who was then acting as Supreme Head of the Church. The Vicar-General was to administer justice in ecclesiastical affairs. It was in his capacity as Vicar-General that Cromwell issued his Commission to inquire into the condition of religious houses.

**Wards, Court of.**—This court was established by Henry VIII. to attend to the affairs of the king's wards, viz., the heirs under age over whom he had the rights of a guardian. The Court saw that the king made a profit out of their estates.

**Whig** was a name that was first applied in derision to the Scottish Covenanters. In 1679 it was given to the supporters of the Exclusion Bill. It became the name of the popular party that opposed the Stuarts and brought about the Revolution of 1688. In modern times the Whigs have been transformed into the Liberal Party; just as the Tories have become the Conservative Party.

**Writ.**—When a Parliamentary constituency is without a member, owing to a dissolution or any other cause, a "writ" is issued to the sheriff of the county. It enjoins him to arrange an election at which a new member shall be chosen. The first instance of such a writ occurs in 1213.

# HISTORICAL TALES[1]

(IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER)

| | TITLE. | AUTHOR. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Household of Sir Thomas More, | MISS MANNING. |
| 2. | Windsor Castle (temp. Henry VIII.), | AINSWORTH. |
| 3. | Wolsey, | G. P. R. JAMES. |
| 4. | The Constable of the Tower (temp. Edward VI.), | AINSWORTH. |
| 5. | The Tower of London (Queen Jane), | AINSWORTH. |
| 6. | Three Hundred Years Ago (Mary), | W. H. G. KINGSTON. |
| 7. | Cardinal Pole, | AINSWORTH. |
| 8. | The Monastery (Mary Queen of Scots), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 9. | The Abbot (Mary Queen of Scots), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 10. | Kenilworth (Elizabeth), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 11. | The Queen's Maries (Mary Queen of Scots), | WHYTE MELVILLE. |
| 12. | The Royal Merchant (Sir T. Gresham), | W. H. G. KINGSTON. |
| 13. | Westward Ho! (Spanish Armada), | C. KINGSLEY. |
| 14. | Arabella Stuart (James I.), | G. P. R. JAMES. |
| 15. | The Fortunes of Nigel (James I.), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 16. | Guy Fawkes, | AINSWORTH. |
| 17. | Brambletye House (Charles I.), | HORACE SMITH. |
| 18. | The White Gauntlet (Charles I.), | MAYNE REID. |
| 19. | The Cavalier (The Civil War), | G. P. R. JAMES. |
| 20. | The Children of the New Forest (Civil War), | MARRYAT. |
| 21. | John Inglesant (Civil War), | J. H. SHORTHOUSE. |
| 22. | Holmby House (Civil War), | WHYTE MELVILLE. |
| 23. | Boscobel (Prince Charles), | AINSWORTH. |
| 24. | The Legend of Montrose (Scotch Covenanters), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 25. | The Diary of Mary Powell (Mrs. John Milton), | MISS MANNING. |
| 16. | Oliver Cromwell (The Commonwealth), | HORACE SMITH. |
| 27. | Woodstock (Battle of Worcester), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 28. | Henry Masterton (Commonwealth), | G. P. R. JAMES. |
| 29. | Talbot Harland (Charles II.), | AINSWORTH. |
| 30. | The Captain of the Guard (Charles II.), | GRANT. |
| 31. | Old St. Paul's (The Plague and Fire). | AINSWORTH. |
| 32. | Peveril of the Peak (1678), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 33. | Bothwell Bridge (Scotland 1679), | SIR WALTER SCOTT. |
| 34. | The Oak Staircase (Monmouth), | M. & C. LEE. |
| 35. | The Danvers Papers (Monmouth), | C. M. YONGE. |

[1] Extracted, by permission, from Mr. Courthope Bowen's "Descriptive Catalogue of Historical Novels and Tales" (E. Stanford).

36. Walter Colyton (1688), . . . . HORACE SMITH.
37. The Fate (1688), . . . . . G. P. R. JAMES.
38. The Last of the Cavaliers (1688), . . . C. M. YONGE.
39. Boyne Water (1690), . . . . . BANIM.
40. The King's Highway (William and Mary), . G. P. R. JAMES.
41. St. James's (Anne), . . . . . AINSWORTH.
42. Esmond (Anne), . . . . . THACKERAY.
43. Stella and Vanessa (Dean Swift), . . . LADY DUFF GORDON.
44. The South Sea Bubble, . . . . . AINSWORTH.
45. Castle Rack Rent, . . . . . MISS EDGEWORTH.
46. Devereux (Anne), . . . . . BULWER.
47. The Cornet of Horse (Marlborough), . . G. A. HENTY.
48. Lucy Arden (George I.), . . . . . GRANT.
49. Preston Fight (1715), . . . . . AINSWORTH.
50. Henry Smeaton (George I.), . . . . G. P. R. JAMES.
51. Rob Roy (Jacobite Plots), . . . . SIR WALTER SCOTT.
52. The Lord Mayor of London (George II.), . AINSWORTH.
53. Heart of Midlothian (Porteous Riots, 1736), . SIR WALTER SCOTT.
54. Treasure Trove (Fontenoy, 1745), . . . SAMUEL LOVER.
55. The White Cockade (Scotland, 1746), . . GRANT.
56. The Good Old Times (George II.), . . . AINSWORTH.
57. Waverley (The Forty-Five), . . . . SIR WALTER SCOTT.
58. The Virginians (Eve of the American War), . THACKERAY.
59. The Surgeon's Daughter (George III.), . . SIR. WALTER SCOTT.
60. Barnaby Rudge (The Gordon Riots), . DICKENS.
61. Evelina (George III.), . . . . . MISS BURNEY.
62. Hurricane Harry (American War), . . W. H. KINGSTON.
63. The Spy (American War), . . . FENIMORE COOPER.
64. Miss Angel (George III.), . . . . MISS THACKERAY.
65. The Croppy (1798), . . . . BANIM.
66. Ben Brace (Nelson), . . . . . CAPTAIN CHAMIER.
67. The Knight of Groyne (Ireland, 1801), . . C. LEVER.
68. The Fire Ships (Nelson), . . . . W. H. G. KINGSTON.
69. The Lords of Strogue (Ireland, 1803), . WINGFIELD.
70. The King's Own Borderers (Peninsular War), GRANT.
71. The Subaltern (American War of 1812), GLEIG.
72. The Romance of War (Peninsula), . GRANT.
73. The King's Own (Mutiny at the Nore), . MARRYAT.
74. The Black Prophet (Irish Famine of 1847), W. CARLETON.
75. Castle Richmond (Irish Famine of 1847), A. TROLLOPE.
76. Alton Locke (Chartist Movement), . C. KINGSLEY.
77. Sybil (Chartist Movement), . . . . DISRAELI.
78. Ravenshoe (Crimean War), . . . H. KINGSLEY.
79. The Interpreter (Crimean War), . . . WHYTE MELVILLE.
80. One of the Six Hundred (Balaklava), . . GRANT.

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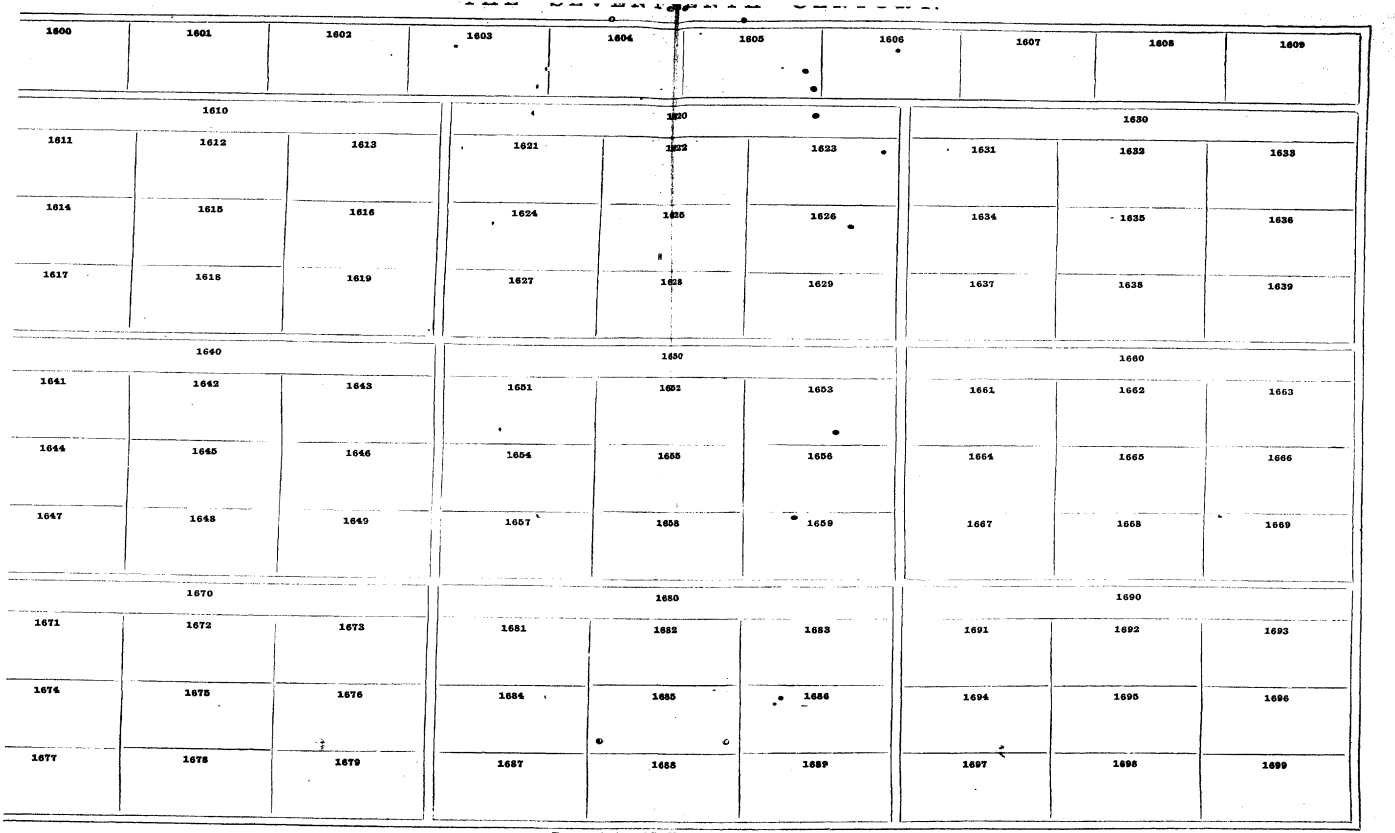
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