



KING JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CHARTA.

"He appointed a conference at Runnymede, a place between
Staines and Windsor, and there, after much discussion, he at
length yielded and signed."

ENGLAND AND ITS PEOPLE

OR A

FAMILIAR HISTORY FOR YOUNG PERSONS

THE COUNTRY, AND THE SOCIAL AND DOMESTIC
MANNERS OF ITS INHABITANTS

BY EMILY TAYLOR

FIFTH EDITION, ENLARGED AND IMPROVED.

LONDON
HOULSTON AND WRIGHT

65, PATERNOSTER ROW.

MDCCLX.

ENGLAND AND ITS PEOPLE.

You desire to go back to the early ages, to the time *past* of English life and manners; you naturally wish to know what were the beginnings of all that is good and great in your country's history. No doubt the way is long, dark, and sometimes difficult; but in all true history there is a deep interest; in all that is well ascertained we find tidings of men, of their thoughts, feelings, progress; in the faintest trace of what their course has been, there is something valuable; and this, and every history, shows the wonderful manner in which God governs the world, bringing good out of evil, and making even the wicked do his work.

We cannot begin at the beginning of British life—we cannot tell where it began, nor when! We know that in our neighbouring island, Ireland, there are traces of a very ancient and cultivated people; that these people worked coal mines, that they wore ornaments of gold, which are now found deeply buried in the soil: we know that they built structures, most likely after the pattern of Eastern nations; in short, that long before the time

of our Saviour there must have been civilized tribes of men living in the island—but we know no more. We know that our own country was called Britannia in early times, by the Greeks and Romans ; we know that the people who lived in it, when Julius Cæsar the Roman commander invaded it, were many of them of the same race, language, and religion as the Gauls, who lived in France, then called Gaul ; but, mingled with the Gaulish men, were some tribes probably from Germany, and the northern or Scotch portion of Great Britain may have been peopled by some more northerly races still.

All these tribes, however, may go under the general name of *Britons* : only we must not fall into the mistake of regarding them as our ancestors, who are more properly the Saxon, or else the mixed Saxon and Norman races, who drove out the British. The Britons themselves have been chiefly made known to us by their Roman conquerors. Different tribes were more or less savage, but all were warlike, brave, and sturdy, strong in their resistance to a foreign invader, and hardly half-conquered by all the skill and numbers which the best troops then known in the world could bring against them.

Like their neighbours, the Gauls, they had an order of men, called Druids, who conducted their religious worship, offered sacrifices, were the judges of the land, and instructed the youths in their sacred rites. It was a mighty influence they possessed ; judging and condemning, or pardoning all offenders ; their punishment sometimes being

BRITISH PERIOD—THE DRUIDS.



a sort of exile from all social intercourse. One whom the Druids had cursed, was one whom no man might bless. He might not come to the sacrifices, no man might give him food or shelter, and he wandered abroad without a friend.

Our old oak trees, the pride of our country, were sacred in those days to Druid worship: amid groves of these trees they built their altars, and there perhaps offered up *human* victims in sacrifice to the god they worshipped. Besides the oak, the misseltoe; when found growing upon it, was the object of their reverence. They regarded the oak as their god's own tree, and everything that grew thereon was thought to come from heaven.

These Druids, priests of a savage heathen race, were worshippers of the sun, of fire, and of the

serpent ; and, strange as were the multitude of Egyptian gods, the Druids had, in the *latter* days of their religion, more still. As for the common people, they were half naked, or clothed only in the skins of beasts ; their houses were comfortless huts, and most of their habits were barbarous. And yet among them were some who possessed noble properties. •

Caractacus, king of one of their tribes, was one of those who, having long and bravely defended his country from the Romans, was at length conquered and carried in chains to Rome. His friends and family begged humbly for mercy from the emperor, but he walked silently along in the procession of the captives, showing his chains, but disdainingly to ask that they might be taken off.



• Romans.

The Romans under Julius Cæsar invaded Great Britain about fifty-five years before Christ, and for four hundred years retained it under their dominion. During this time, they left many traces of themselves in England, Scotland, and Ireland. They made roads, they built castles, raised walls, aqueducts, and bridges. Many remains of these works are still to be seen : these roads can be traced out, baths and beautiful tessellated pavements show where their dwellings were, and Roman coins and implements of war are, even now, sometimes turned up by the ploughshare of the English labourer.

A.D. 418.—But after the lapse of time, the islands of Great Britain underwent another change of masters. The Roman power declined, the Roman governors no longer came to England, and the British were left to themselves. During this period little or nothing is certainly known of their history. For nearly a century, they appear to have been subjected to attacks and incursions from the barbarous tribes of the north. The Caledonians or natives of Scotland, in particular, were constantly at war with them ; and when they ceased to have the strong aid of the Romans in their defence, the people called in the help of some of the German tribes, especially of the Saxons.

These tribes, however, paved the way for an incursion of other warlike invaders ; and the native British were swallowed up, no less by their defenders than by those from whom they desired to be defended. Their original language was lost, and the small remains of the people were driven into Wales.

Yet one settlement of descendants from the first inhabitants of Great Britain remains even to this day. Brittany, a part of France, situated between the rivers Seine and Loire, was peopled by a colony of British; and its inhabitants are even now, perhaps, the true descendants of the natives of our island, while *we*, who now possess its soil, are the children of the Saxon and Norman invaders.

Britain, while yet British only, did not remain wholly heathen. The Christian missionary had not neglected this island, remote as it was; and both in England and Ireland, as well as in the western islands of Scotland, there were places of Christian worship and schools for the young, where Druid influence had ceased long before the Romans departed.

But in these very dark and warlike times, the people could have but a faint gleam of light from the Gospel. It probably served to make them more hopeful of a life to come; but the path of duty was not clearly taught, and their faith was mixed up with the superstitious fancies of the age; and before the Saxons had become masters of England, even this faint light was well nigh extinguished, and only in some remote spots were there traces of the former faith of the British.

When, then, in A.D. 596, Pope Gregory sent over Augustine and some other Christian teachers to England, the work had nearly to be begun afresh. Yet, as soon as Christianity was embraced by some of the chief tribes and sovereigns of the island, the ancient British Christians started up, and told of the former faith of the people.

And from this time no country in Christendom, perhaps, more abounded in religious buildings and endowments. Churches, hospitals, monasteries, and schools, rose all over the land. Men and women devoted themselves to the service of God in the manner they deemed most entire and earnest.

The people themselves, of course, received their knowledge of religion from the teachings of the clergy; all that could be known of the life of our Saviour, and of his commands, was in the hands of churchmen. They alone could read; they alone had the written gospels; from them alone could light be obtained; and great was the debt of gratitude which the nation owed to the Church and her ministers. But, as a child when growing up learns more and more to desire the power of reading and thinking for himself, so, when a savage people passes from its infant state to maturity, it would fain go for itself to the fountain of knowledge at which its teachers have drunk, and receive the pure waters of the Gospel as they flow fresh from the source.

Nor did the Church's first teachers discourage the people. They founded schools; they taught them, as far as they could; and, if they erred in some of their teachings, it was, in many cases, because they had no means of knowing better. Another long time passed away, and among these dark people, Anglo-Saxons as we now call them, there rose up a king of great ability and much worth, whose name is very dear to the English.

It must have been about this time, that Alfred forgot his duty to his country for a space; that he grew tired of struggling against the Danes, and gave himself up to pleasure and indolence; so that his subjects lost their confidence in him, and deserted him, yielding tamely to their enemies.

But the king had a kind and faithful friend, who was as a father to him, and who rebuked and reasoned with him; and his words touched Alfred's heart to the very quick, and awoke his sleeping conscience.

And he had yet a better teacher: sorrow, heavy sorrow, came upon him. He found himself on a sudden deserted by his people, and saw the whole land conquered by the Danes; so that his only means of safety was in putting on the dress of a peasant, and hiding himself in a wild part of the country in the house of a herdsman.

He dared not make known his rank to this poor herdsman, lest he should be tempted to betray him; but offering to do any work that was required for his host, he remained living as a servant for some time in this obscure place.

On one occasion the herdsman's wife desired him to attend to some cakes which were baking at the fire, while she was absent from the cottage: but Alfred, whose thoughts were always busy about his country and his own sad fate, forgot her orders, and let the cakes burn.

When the good woman came in, she was very angry, and called him many hard names. But Alfred allowed he had deserved her rebuke, and took it all with a patient heart.

Probably, at this time it was that, reflecting on what had been amiss in his past conduct, he considered how he might make himself more fit to be the king of his people, if ever it pleased God to try him once more. And he *was* tried, and not found wanting. After a considerable time had passed, bands of his friends collected here and there, and attacked the Danes at different points.

They were able to do this with the more chance of success, because the Danes had disgusted the English beyond endurance by their cruelties, and because now, fancying themselves everywhere conquerors, they were become very careless.

Having succeeded in one or two small enterprises, Alfred's friends came to tell him of their hopes; and he, being fully prepared to deliver his people from their cruel foes, determined to take the risk upon himself of going into the very midst of the Danish camp, that he might see how it could best be attacked.

He put on the dress of a harper, and went with his harp near the camp, playing on his instrument in such a manner as greatly to delight the Danes, who were great lovers of music, and held the harper's art in high honour.

They invited Alfred into the camp, and men took him to the tent of their prince, Guthrum, with whom he remained some few days, making his remarks upon the camp, and the state of defence in which the Danes appeared to be.

A. D. 878.—When he had made himself master of their counsels, he returned to his people, and assembled as privately as possible an army of his

subjects; and coming very suddenly upon the Danes, who thought all the English subdued, they were completely routed, and Alfred was once again king.



Alfred as a Harper.

From this time all we know of Alfred is good. Henceforth he gave up all his time and thoughts to the advantage of his subjects. He spared no pains to make them good, and prosperous, and happy.

He wrote books for them; he founded schools; he made wise and just laws; he set them an example of industry, dividing his time into three portions: one for sleep and necessary refreshment, another for public business, and another for study and devotion.

He also set his friends and children a delightful example of patience and even cheerfulness under bodily suffering; for, during the space of many years, Alfred's life was only one "long disease."

and his fits of severe pain were very dreadful and frequent.

But no sooner did they abate, than he turned with a faithful heart to his great object, the good of his people; and when he lay upon his dying bed, and could do no more, he called his son to him, and gave him the best advice.

“I pray thee, my son,” said he, “be a father and friend to thy people. Be thou the children’s father, and the widow’s friend. Comfort thou the poor, and shelter the weak; and, with all thy might, right that which is wrong. And, son, govern thyself by law; then shall the Lord love thee, and God, above all things, be thy reward. Call thou upon Him to advise thee in all thy need, and so shall He help thee the better to compass that which thou wouldest.”

So good King Alfred spoke, and so he lived and died; not aged, but worn with suffering. The nation mourned for him as children mourn for a tender father: and Englishmen have long had cause to bless the name of Alfred.

He reigned nearly thirty years, coming to the throne when he was in his twenty-second year, and dying at the age of fifty-two. The year of his death was the year of our Lord 901.

We will pass over the reign of his son Edward, which occupied twenty-four years, and turn to that of his grandson.

ATHELSTAN. 925—941.



Saxon Youth.

THERE was one of Alfred's grandsons, whose name was Athelstan. He was but a little boy of eight years old when Alfred died; but Alfred was fonder of him than of any other of his grandchildren.

He was a fair, pleasant-looking child, with bright eyes, and golden hair; and when he was only six years old, his grandfather made him a knight: he had a purple robe put upon him; a sword in a golden sheath was hung at his side; and his belt was studded with jewels.

And little Athelstan was always at his grandfather's side: and when King Alfred was in pain, he it was who used to sit by him, and prattle to him, or wipe the cold sweat from his forehead.

And his aunt, Ethelfleda, who was Alfred's favourite daughter, and was reckoned "the wisest lady in England," used to share his watchings; and when King Alfred was gone, she taught Athelstan all she knew.

When the boy was old enough to travel, he went abroad to see other countries. One of his father's captains went out to make a voyage of discovery in the Northern Ocean; and either *then*, or at some other time, Athelstan visited King Harold of Norway. Though the sea kings who



Saxon Ladies.

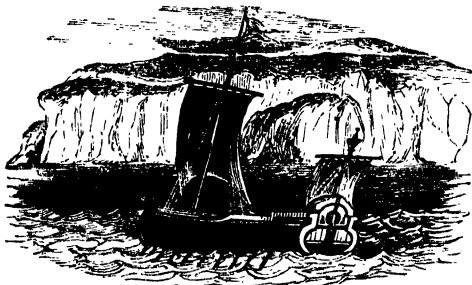
were sent from Norway and Denmark were a formidable race, living only by plunder and war, those remaining at home were less warlike; and King Harold was desirous that his own eldest son, who was to rule over Norway at his death, should learn some of the useful arts which were known in England, and which had not yet found their way into Norway.

King Harold, like the rest of his people, being a Heathen, had no wish that his son should be a Christian; but yet thought he might learn many useful things from the Saxons. They were skilful in working in metals, in building, and in music. Their laws were good. They could write and read; and King Harold had great respect for these wonderful and mystical arts.

When young Athelstan, then, arrived at Norway,

Harold paid him every possible attention: and made him promise, that whenever he should be king of England, he would receive Harold's little son, Haco, at his court, and would be like a father to him, and teach him every thing worth his learning.

A.D. 925.—In due time King Edward of England died; and Athelstan succeeded; and, as soon as he was fairly seated on the throne, messengers came from King Harold, reminding him of his promise, and bringing him, as a present, a beautiful ship, built in Norway, for the Northmen were skilled in ship-building.



A Norway Ship.

You may fancy these rude and savage-looking warriors delivering their message to King Athelstan, who, though a brave man himself, was also fond of study, and courteous and gentle in his manners.

He willingly promised to receive young Haco

whenever his father thought proper to send him, and bestowed upon Harold, in return for the ship, a fine sword, the handle of which was adorned with precious stones.

In due time young Haco came. He was a very amiable, affectionate youth, and had gained the name of "Haco the Good," in his own land. He was, of course, quite ignorant of Christianity. He had a high opinion of the courage and manliness of the Northmen; and it could not have been very pleasant for him to find how ill they were thought of in England: for all the people of England held them in abhorrence; and many wondered at king Athelstan receiving the son of a Northman at his palace.

But Athelstan did not regard this. He was a kind-hearted man and a good king; and at this very time had under his care two other young princes, whom he instructed and guided as far as he could in the right way.

Athelstan and all his court were Christians. Their faith, indeed, was mixed with many superstitious notions and practices. But large portions of the Bible had been translated into the Saxon tongue, and the king and the learned people of the land could also read the Scriptures in Latin. They knew the character of our blessed Lord: how holy, how meek, how pure He was; and far as they were from copying Him faithfully, all this light had not been given them in vain.

When Haco came to England, there was, of course, a great deal to excite his wonder. He was greatly astonished when he first arrived, at

the sight of so many men and women in singular habits, dwelling by themselves in large buildings, and spending their time in attending to the sick, feeding the hungry, singing psalms, saying prayers, and occasionally writing crooked characters on large skins of parchment or vellum.



A Saxon Abbot and Archbishop.

By degrees he learned what they were, and what they taught. King Athelstan wished him to be a Christian, and took much pains to have him instructed by the monks; but there were many among the people, who, instead of compassionating the ignorance of heathens, were very severe towards them, and would scarcely look upon them with any kindness.

But Haco, not being taught by any but gentle and kind instructors, learned to think well of Christians; and in time he became a Christian himself: and when he went back to his native

land, he strove with all his might to lead his subjects to be Christians also.

During Athelstan's reign, the nation was several times troubled by the Danes, who sent large armies into the country, and did great damage there. On one of these occasions, Anlaf, the Danish king, came with an army of his subjects, and put the Saxons into great peril.

Athelstan marched forward to meet them. One night, when the two armies were encamped within view of one another, there came a harper to the English camp, and King Athelstan was pleased with his music, and gave him money.

When he had left the camp, a soldier chanced to follow him, and saw him throw away the king's money. This convinced the soldier that he was an enemy. He watched him more closely, and perceived that it was Anlaf himself, the Danish king.

Now, this soldier had once received a kindness from Anlaf, and he could not bear to betray him; so, waiting till he was in safety, he *then* went to Athelstan, and told him the discovery he had made.

All the officers of Athelstan were very angry with the poor soldier for having let Anlaf escape; but the king commended the man, and said he had but done his duty in not forgetting a benefit.

The Saxon kings had their palace in London; but they chiefly lived at Winchester. Alfred the Great had there built a monastery, where his own body was interred, and also that of his queen, and their son Edward; and only about seventy

years ago a stone was discovered in the ground where this monastery stood, with the words "*Alfred Rex*" upon it in Saxon characters.

Winchester was a strong-built town: it was walled round, and the only entrances were by four heavy stone gates. Beyond the walls were very deep ditches, except on one side, where the river Itchin formed the defence.

SAXON MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THE Saxons were accustomed to indulge in very heavy eating, to live a great deal upon pork, and also upon eels and fish of different kinds, and they drank ale and mead in large quantities.

Their tables were served in a rude fashion. Here and there a knife for royal guests, who sat at the raised table above the rest; these guests had also silver cups and fine wheaten bread: but, lower down in the hall, each person furnished his own knife; the bread was black, and the drink very inferior. While they sat at dinner, gleemen or minstrels played on their harps, or sang songs to the company.

The houses of the king and the very great men had the luxury of glass windows, and were, besides, built of brick or stone; but they had not now, nor for long after this time, any other floor than the bare ground, trodden and beaten hard and strewed with rushes. In the king's palace

the rushes were changed more frequently, of course; but even in the houses of the noblemen, they remained till the dirt and smell were very offensive.

The walls of the king's private room were hung with a kind of tapestry, worked by the ladies of the court, for the Saxon women were the best workwomen in the world, and their dresses and the king's and priests' garments were often richly embroidered by their hands.

The king's bed was boarded at the head and feet, and had sometimes a single curtain hung from the side farthest from the wall; the pillows were of straw, and also the bed; there was one sheet, and a coverlet of bear's skin.

As for the poor peasants, their beds were of leaves or rushes; glass being dear, they had either no window at all, or a small aperture screened with horn, scraped very thin, so as to admit some light to their houses; they had no chimneys, and the smoke of their fires either made its way through a hole in the roof or at the door.

Their general dress was a linen or woollen tunic, something like a labourer's frock, fastened with a belt round the middle; and this was made of finer or coarser fabric, and ornamented or not, according to the rank of the wearer: over it was thrown a short cloak.

They wore drawers reaching half-way down the thigh, and stockings or buskins meeting them. The poorest people, however, were nearly bare-legged; but all seem to have worn shoes.

It is worth noticing, that the punishment of

death was not in use at the time of Athelstan. Offenders were tried by jury; and there were fines in money, or servitude, or branding, or the loss of members, according to the offence; but it was not till the reign of Edmund, one of Athelstan's successors, that a law was made, proclaiming that when gangs of robbers were made prisoners, the oldest among them should be hung on a gallows.

Athelstan died in the year of our Lord 941. We pass over a period in which there was nothing very remarkable, and come to

THE DANISH PERIOD.

(ABOUT TWENTY-NINE YEARS.)

THERE was no very strict law of succession in Saxon times. In many cases the elder son of the deceased king was set aside in favour of a brother, or even of a cousin, if of ripe age. Thus, though Ethelred (the last but one of the Saxon kings before the Danish conquest) left older sons, they were set aside in favour of Edmund Ironside.

This king Edmund was a brave and daring man, and, ashamed of the yoke which the Danes, ever restless and eager to get possession of England, imposed on his people, he challenged the Danish king, Canute, to single combat, that thus their disputes might be settled once for all.

This proposal Canute declined, but offered, instead, to leave *half* the kingdom in peace, if Edmund would yield him the other half. A

treaty was accordingly prepared and well nigh agreed on, when Edmund died, and Canute, warlike and powerful, succeeded to the *whole*, A.D. 1016, though Ethelred's sons were still living.

It was not without tyranny and some cruelty, however, that he was established. Spite of his promises to the Saxon chiefs, he began by banishing and putting to death several of them, whose power he dreaded,—and he sent away Ethelred's two young sons, whose mother Emma he married, and by whom he had himself a son.

When Canute beheld himself at length firmly seated on the throne of England, (Denmark and Norway being also under his dominion,) he laid aside much of the terrors of his name and character, and we have in him the rare sight of a fierce conqueror tamed and rendered gentle by victory. Though strict in his rule, and too exacting of money and treasure, he certainly made himself beloved. He was cheerful, frank, and familiar to all; he loved the ancient songs and ballads of the country, and this rendered him popular. He was devout also, as a Christian of those times esteemed devotion. He went as a pilgrim to Rome, visiting all the most celebrated shrines by the way, and leaving rich gifts; for payment of which, however, his people were afterwards rather severely taxed.

He had the justice to decree his own punishment, when he had broken a law of his own making; and the following anecdote is related by numerous historians:—

Sitting one day upon the sea-shore, Canute was watching the billows as they rolled towards him; and while he gazed, his courtiers surrounded him, whispering into his ear words of flattery, such as they thought would gratify his vanity, and gain for themselves his favour.



Canute at the Sea.

They spoke to him of his power, and said that nothing could resist him.

The king heard them quietly, and made no reply. The tide was fast coming in, and every wave approached nearer to Canute's seat: the water at last washed over his feet.

"Thou art under my dominion," then said he to the ocean: "this is *my* land; approach no farther, nor dare to wet thy sovereign's feet."

The courtiers stood around, wondering, till the waves were so high that it was no longer safe to retain their position; and then the king, with a

stern voice, bade them never more dare to offer homage to *him* which was due to God only.

After a period of nineteen years, Canute died, and a period of anarchy again ensued. His son, Hardicanute, whose mother was Emma, widow of Ethelred the Saxon king, was certainly his own immediate heir; but much room remained for dispute. Canute had two other sons, Sweyn and Harold, of illegitimate birth, but powerful warriors. One of these (Sweyn) claimed Norway as his own; and, by the late king's desire, Harold was to have England, while Hardicanute was to possess only Denmark.

Great was the discontent in England, some of the old Saxon nobles preferred Hardicanute, because, though his father was a Dane, and his mother Emma a Norman, she had been before married to a Saxon, and was supposed to be partial to that line. It was not so, however; she cared not for her elder-born children, the sons of Ethelred; she was very angry with Edward, the eldest of them, when he landed in Kent, endeavouring to raise up a party in his own favour; and she laboured only for the triumph of Canute's son, her youngest-born, Hardicanute: and thus fighting and urging others to war against them, she succeeded in procuring the banishment of the two *Saxon* sons, Edward and Alfred, and even, as report said, the murder of the latter.

But it was Harold (surnamed Harefoot) who for some time kept the chief power in England, and not till after his death, did Hardicanute succeed to the throne: that throne, however, he kept

till his own death, which occurred a little less than two years afterwards, and opened the way for the return of the Saxon race, in the person of Emma's and Ethelred's son, who is thenceforth known by the name of

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.

1042—1066.

THIS Edward was now more than forty years of age: he was in England at the time of Hardicanute's death, having been recalled and well treated by the Danish king; but long years passed in the court of Normandy had given him foreign tastes, which were not agreeable, as it proved, to his Saxon people. Yet before this was known, nearly all the powerful Saxon nobles, with one accord, rejoiced in having once more on the throne a king of their own race.

The proudest and mightiest of these was Earl Godwin, great in arms and in possessions; to him Edward probably owed the strongest support he received, and perhaps it was in gratitude for this that he married the stout earl's daughter, Editha, who was a beautiful creature, beloved by all, except, unhappily, by Edward himself, who, perhaps angry at Godwin's attempting to force on the marriage for his own ambition's sake, would never treat her with kindness. She was likened to a rose springing from a thorny stem; the poor and the rich honoured her. Nevertheless, Edward was ever harsh towards her, and

banished her early to a monastery, where she remained during nearly all his reign.

This is not the only instance of his harshness : he had never forgiven his mother, Emma, for favouring Hardicanute. He seized her property; he threatened, if he did not perform his threatenings, to subject her to the ordeal of walking over red-hot ploughshares with naked feet, which was one of the modes by which innocence or guilt was tried in Saxon times, when men thought that Providence would surely lead the innocent unharmed through fire and through flood, and that if they perished, their guilt was proved.

The reign of Edward had many troubles: his nobles were too strong for the condition of subjects, and they were opposed, not to the king only, but to the foreign warriors whom he loved and protected. Great was the strife between them, but the victory was on the side of Edward, who for some long time banished Earl Godwin and his sons : and it was during this period that Edward did *that* which prepared the way for an event of which you are soon to hear—namely, *the Norman Conquest*.

What Edward did, was to invite as his guest Duke William of Normandy, a most ambitious, artful, and able man, young in years, but old in renown. He came with a splendid retinue, a welcome and privileged guest. He won Edward's heart, and was thought to have gained over many of the people besides the king.

Whether Edward, who had no child, promised to make him his heir, cannot be known, though

William proclaimed it as a fact afterwards. But the visit added to the Norman power in England, while it also much increased the discontent of the Saxons, who pined after Earl Godwin and their favourite banished nobles.

Great ill-will did Edward gain for his partiality ; and when Earl Godwin once again appeared and in arms, claiming his own fair estates which the king had pillaged, the Saxons flocked to his standard.

Then, once again, was the sovereign forced to bend to the power of this great man, who called together a Saxon parliament, which with one voice pronounced him innocent, and took off his sentence of outlawry. Then were many of the proud foreigners sent away to their homes, and the Saxon laws revised and re-established ; while the poor Editha was for a while replaced on her throne as a blameless wife and queen.

It seems strange, that after all the provocations King Edward had given to his people, they loved him, and, long after, looked back to his reign with fond delight ; but this may be accounted for by their just value for his LAWS.

These were carefully compiled from the statutes of Alfred and Athelstan ; and the king had the credit of a strong desire to make them just and merciful to his people. He could not bear to oppress them by any severe enactments or heavy taxes, and cared for their good, so far as his judgment allowed, in all ways.

It is a remarkable circumstance, that Westminster Abbey, which he had rebuilt from the

foundation, was but just completed, and that the tomb prepared for him there was only ready the day of his death; which took place on the 5th of January, 1066, in the 65th year of his age, and about the 24th year of his actual reign. •

•

EVENTS IMMEDIATELY BEFORE THE CONQUEST.

GODWIN the Earl was no more. He died not very long after his return to power, somewhere about the year 1053; but he left powerful sons—and among them was none to compare with Harold.

During the ten years after Godwin's death, Harold had been growing in the love and esteem of the English. It seemed that there was no other in the kingdom comparable to him in character for general justice, for high qualities fitting him to govern, and for general suitableness by birth and training for the English throne.

Edward was childless, and though there were other claimants, none were known or esteemed. The chief of these was a boy of weak mind. Wherefore it seemed to be impossible to think of any ruler but Harold, and all eyes turned to him.

•

But it remained then, as now, doubtful whether the old king himself favoured him; and the belief of Duke William's artful schemes was strong

in men's minds. Even the Normans in England, many of them at least, preferred Harold; and on Edward's death he was elected almost without an opposer. His great antagonist, William, however, had a hold upon him, which in those days was very powerful. Some years before King Edward died, Harold had paid a visit to Normandy. He did not go there out of curiosity merely, but in order to plead with Duke William for the release of one of his brothers and of a nephew, whom the duke had unjustly detained as hostages.

It was soon seen that he was himself in danger. The duke let him understand that all three were captives, and that none should be released without a promise to help him to the English throne when Edward should be no more.

Harold was not a deceitful man,—he seems to have been in general manly and true. But, on this occasion, his fears for the lives of his brothers and nephew, and for himself, overcame his integrity, and he *did* promise what he hardly could have meant to perform. He promised too, not by words only, but by a solemn oath, pronounced while placing his hand on a chest which contained the relics of Norman saints.

Always did Harold protest that he knew not what the chest contained, nor how sacred was the oath; for indeed the men of Christendom in those days were more appalled at the idea of unfaithfulness to the dead than a breach of truth to the living; and great was Harold's distress when he was told what witnesses he had called on to hear his oath.

But when returned to England, when the people called him to be their king, when the nation wanted his arm to guard it, and when the priests of his country absolved him from the obligation to observe his oath, he put aside the thoughts of it, and resolved if he could not recall the past to make the best use of the future. The same ideas which made the relics so terrible, made the priest's absolution mighty too.

But still, William the Norman pleaded against him for his breach of promise, and many were the churchmen who sided with him; so that Harold felt the throne totter beneath him, and daily expected the great contest which was to come.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

BATTLE OF HASTINGS.—SEPT. 1066.

AND now we come to that event which made such changes, both for good and for evil, in the fate of "England and its people," that it may be said, nothing before it, excepting the introduction of Christianity, had been of anything like the same importance.

This event was the Conquest of England by the Normans.

Yet it is not to be supposed that the gaining of a great battle, or the passing of a crown from one race to another, was THE CONQUEST: it began, no doubt, when William of Normandy won the

battle of Hastings; but many years passed away before Norman and Saxon became as one people — before the languages, the laws, the manners, the characters of the two races became blended.

We call this period, however, the Norman Conquest; because then, that which even now remains with us first began to be—and *how* it was, is what we must go on to say.

Harold, “the last of the Saxon kings,” I have always thought deserved a far better fate. His short reign of a few months was not sufficient to show what he would have been as a king; but from the love he inspired, and his fine and knightly properties, he seems to have been one who, in better times, would have proved himself such a sovereign as the English wanted.

“He showed himself pious, humble, and affable, and spared no fatigue, by land or by sea, for the defence of his country.”*

But a terrible storm was gathering, and ready to break upon him. Duke William, as skilful in peace as in war, though much opposed by his own Norman subjects, who did not at all wish to invade England, compassed his point by attacking every great Norman noble separately. He promised to each one riches, and honours, and lands in England; he displayed the glories of conquest before the eyes of each, and so at length gained all to his side.

Each man among them agreed to bring presents, towards furnishing out the invading army. The priests brought gold and silver, merchants

* Roger of Hoveden.

brought goods, farmers' corn, others sent their men-servants to serve as soldiers. So, by these means, a large army and fleet were equipped.

William's most powerful ally, however, was the pope, who, persuaded by him, issued a bull, justifying the invasion, proclaiming Harold a blasphemous promise-breaker, and also sent him a banner consecrated by himself. William gained this mighty aid by a promise to the pope of paying an annual tribute if his expedition were successful.

Thus aided, and made very powerful, Duke William embarked his troops; but, for a whole month, contrary winds prevented his vessels from sailing: and during that time, King Harold had quelled a dangerous insurrection in England. At length the weather cleared up, and the duke sailed from St. Valery, a port on the Norman coast, near Dieppe, and landed on the 28th of Sept. 1066, at a place called Bulverhithe in Pevensey Bay. From thence the army marched to Hastings.

Harold was then at York. The journey was long, but he was quick and decided, and marched direct to London; and thence, as quickly as he could, into Sussex to confront his enemy. He had hardly arrived at Battle, within sight of the Normans, when William sent him a herald, desiring him to make his choice of three things: first, to resign his crown; secondly, to submit to the pope's decision; or, thirdly, to decide the whole by single combat. But to none of these things would Harold consent, and both armies prepared for battle.

And now came to Harold his own brother

Gurth, the same who had so long been a hostage in Normandy, and very earnestly did he pray Harold not to head the battle himself; for, said he, "To us, who have sworn nothing, this war is proper and just, for we defend our country; leave us, then, O Harold, to fight this battle: if we are forced to retreat, thou wilt succour us; and if we die, thou wilt avenge us."

Thus lovingly did he entreat; but Harold would not hear him; for, said he, "How can I stand apart, while thou and others risk life and limb for me?"

The night before the battle was not passed alike by the two armies; for the Saxons revelled and sang their national songs, while William, sending his priests into the Norman camp with the pope's bull, and representing the war as a Holy War, so wrought on his soldiers that the hours were spent in fasting and prayer, and solemn reception of the Holy Sacrament, "even by thousands at one time." And well did the crafty duke know how to turn the noblest things to his purposes. This stern devotion of the Normans kept them sober and ready; while the Saxon people had slipped from their national songs and encouraging harangues, into indulgence and drunkenness, and thus they *began* amiss.

It was Saturday, the 14th of October, when the battle commenced, and it lasted nine hours, but in the evening the Saxons began to give way;—though the Normans themselves praised their valour; and though Harold, and his brothers, as brave as he, kept their ground to the last,

an arrow from an unknown hand striking the Saxon king in the eye, he fell dead on the field amid many slain,—and from that time William of Normandy was Conqueror and King of England.

The Normans.



WILLIAM I. 1066—1087.

WILLIAM was an usurper, and his followers were greedy:—so it could not but be that the people of England suffered much and long. It was true, that there were many Normans already in the country, and that the fashions of the foreigners were much adopted; but the lower orders, the real Saxons, were averse to these, and some of the Saxon nobles and priests remained deeply attached to their own customs.

King William had a difficult course to steer; for, on the one hand, he was surrounded by fierce Norman barons and knights, who had followed him to England for the sake of what could be gained there; and who were so powerful in themselves, that king William trembled on the throne for fear of them. And on the other hand, there were the English, or Saxons, who found themselves stripped of their family estates, and of all the honours they had been used to enjoy; and seeing the greediness of the Normans, these felt themselves much aggrieved, and were continually disposed to break out into rebellion.

— It was natural that the king should be more partial to his own people than to the conquered nation; natural, too, that the English should be jealous and impatient of the tyranny of their masters; but, at first, William endeavoured to steer a just course among them.

After a very little while, however, we find that he gave way to his Normans; and the history of the poor English from this period, and for several succeeding reigns, was a melancholy one.

Not merely did the king put his nobles into all the best of the estates of the Saxons, and allow them to build castles, where they ruled like so many little kings over all the people round them, but he sent over to Normandy for Norman priests, and turned many of the Saxon monks and bishops out of their offices to make way for them.

This grieved the people extremely. The Norman priests had, many of them, been accustomed

to go to war like common soldiers, and they tyrannized over the Saxons terribly.

Among other instances of this, there was at Croyland, in Lincolnshire, an old and very celebrated monastery, where, in former times, the Saxon abbots and monks had lived in great state, and where they had often afforded shelter and hospitality to the poor and distressed.

And a smaller religious dwelling belonging to this monastery had been built at some little distance from it; and, unfortunately, very near was the dwelling of a great Norman follower of King William, named Ives Tailbois.

This nobleman wanted to get possession of the monks' dwelling, and to bring over some Normans to occupy their place.

The monks, however, were so peaceable, that it was difficult to find just cause of offence. They always took care to approach him with the greatest respect, bending one knee to the earth as they spoke: they would not retort upon the noble when he spoke sharply to them.

But, when they found that he let loose his dogs upon them and their poultry and sheep, and killed and maimed their cattle, they quietly packed up all their books, their vestments, and vessels, and banished themselves from their own house and dwelling.

It was the king's wish to do away with the English or Saxon language as much as possible; and he consequently caused all the laws, and all the different public papers, to be written in Norman-French; and his bishops seized all the copies

they could find of the Scriptures and of religious books which were written in Saxon ; and caused the prayers and service to be performed in the Latin tongue, which none of the common people, nor even the nobles, understood.

And the king set on foot schools for the people, and ordered that nothing but French or Latin should be taught in these schools, that the middle classes might the sooner forget their native tongue.

But yet, with all this, and though a sort of Norman-French was written and spoken for a great many years by the better classes in England, it is curious to find how much more of the Saxon there is in our tongue now than of the French. For instance, out of sixty-nine words which make up the Lord's Prayer, there are only five words which are not Saxon.

Among other acts of William the Conqueror which occasioned much suffering, was his laying waste large tracts of land, and converting them into forests. Here the deer were reared, and here no Englishman was allowed to enter, under very heavy penalties.

The Normans were all fond of the chase : and in order to obtain game, and room for the exercise of their sports, they made no scruple of turning the poor out of their houses and lands ; and if one of the English ventured to shoot at a stray deer, he was either put to death, or sentenced to lose an eye or a hand.

The English were not allowed to have arms in their houses ; and they were obliged to put out their fires and lights at the sound of the curfew-

bell, about eight o'clock in the evening. This was not an uncommon law in France and other parts of Europe at that time, and it had been used in England long before ; but it was always unpopular among the people.

William the Conqueror was not a happy man. He looked round him, and saw none in whom he might trust : the Normans with their castles and large bands of armed followers—the injured Saxons with their angry feelings, and the remembrance of their forefathers' glory—and his own children also—all conspired to vex and distress him.

For William had three sons, Robert, and William Rufus, and Henry ; and from their very boyhood these were all inclined to quarrel with one another. Robert was a bold and brave boy, and had some generosity ; he accused his brothers of setting his father against him, and this, whether true or not, was resented by them.

One day, partly in spite and partly in frolic, William and Henry took it into their heads to throw water over Robert, as he was passing through a court in the castle. The prince flew into a passion, and drawing his sword, ran up stairs to be revenged ; and had it not been for the exertions of the servants, and even of the king himself, he would certainly have committed some terrible act of vengeance on the spot.

Nothing could prevail on him to remain under the same roof with his brothers ; but he went off that very night to the city of Rouen.

From this time Robert went to war with William

and Henry, and even with his father, for the possession of Normandy, which King William had left when he came to conquer England: and a great many of the Normans, and also the King of France, assisted him, and proclaimed Robert Duke of Normandy.

But King William would not submit thus to lose his ancient dukedom, though it might be to a son; and as he had brought over Normans to conquer England, so now he carried back English to conquer Normandy.

The armour which was worn in those days covered the body all over; even the face was only partially seen; and when King William met his son Robert in battle, neither of them knew the other.

And Robert, being young and strong, attacked his father with such violence, that he was in great



William the Conqueror and his son Robert fighting.

danger. He was wounded in the hand; his horse fell from under him; and the prince was just lifting

up his hand to strike off his head, when William called out, and Robert knew his father's voice.

Then this passionate young man was so shocked at the thought of the crime he had been about to commit, that he leaped off his horse and threw himself on his knees, entreating his father to forgive him.

The old king wept, and took him to his arms, and all the soldiers saw that the father and son were reconciled that day.

There is still in existence at the town of Bayeux in Normandy, a very curious piece of needlework, called the Bayeux tapestry. It is two hundred and twelve feet in length, and is worked in coloured worsteds, like a sampler.

It is generally supposed to have been worked by William the Conqueror's wife, Matilda; but, at any rate, it must have been worked not much later than the conquest of England.

It is a sort of picture history, and the object of it was to show forth all the events of the conquest: and we find there King Harold promising William to give up his claim to England; and then the Conqueror's coming over with his army; and the battle of Hastings, &c.; all worked in worsted.

It is curious to look at this piece of workmanship, now more than seven hundred years old; and to see by it the dresses, the armour, &c. of our ancestors.

There we see the *hauberk*, that curious tunic made of steel rings, which for a long time was manufactured with more or less fineness for the

soldiers of those days; sometimes the whole body glittered over with lozenges or diamonds of steel, which were woven in with the rings.

Then each warrior carried his shield upon his arm, and on the shield was generally some figure or motto, which was peculiar to himself or his family. Sometimes it was a lion, sometimes a dragon, sometimes a hart; all according to the wearer's fancy; but it was reckoned a great disgrace for a warrior to lose his shield. They were, at this time, much about the shape of a boy's kite.

The Normans made great use of bows and ~~arrows~~ which were unknown to the Saxons; and these weapons, in their hands, were the most fatal in combat of any known before the invention of gunpowder.

War is always a horrible and dreadful calamity; but in those times it was a far worse evil than now: men then fought hand to hand; and the contest was often gained more by main strength than by skill.



WILLIAM RUFUS, OR WILLIAM II.
1087—1100.

RUFUS is the Latin word for red ; and the colour of William the Second's hair being red, gained him the name.

William the Conqueror, having reigned in England twenty years, died in the year 1087 ; and having in his will given Normandy to his eldest son Robert, he afterwards bestowed England upon William, the second son ; while Henry, the third son, had some of his father's own private treasures left to him, but found it very difficult to get possession of them while William Rufus lived.

The Norman barons were not at all pleased that the king had divided his property thus : they thought that Robert, being the eldest son, should have had England as well as Normandy ; and they encouraged this bold and passionate young prince to conspire against William Rufus.

But William, though a brutal savage himself, and perhaps as little worthy of wearing a crown as any tyrant that ever lived, was shrewd enough to gain over many people to his side; while Robert, being imprudent and squandering away all his money, soon lost every advantage, and was more at his brother's mercy every day.

It happened at this time that a very great number of the chief nobles and kings in Europe were stirred up by the preaching of a famous monk, who exhorted them to repair to the holy country of Judæa, where our Saviour had lived and taught while on earth; there to fight against the unbelieving nations who had got possession of this sacred ground.

Jerusalem and the neighbouring countries were in the possession of heathens; and it was feared that the Mahometans would push their conquests much further; so that, if the Christians did not attack them, Christendom itself would be in great danger.

The Moors had already acquired the greater part of Spain; their dominion extended a great way in Africa: it was therefore not merely a holy war, though the monks generally represented it as such; many engaged in it solely for the purpose of rescuing Jerusalem, but many for the purpose of checking the progress of the Mahometans.

Never was so much ardour displayed in any wars as in these wars of the Cross, otherwise called CRUSADES; and the pope, the great bishop of the Church, and all the religious orders, spared no pains in preaching up to the kings and nobles of Europe, the duty of going to these crusades.

The crusaders affixed a red cross to their shoulders, as a sign that they were devoted to this cause; and many noble warriors turned their backs upon their country, and families, and friends, for several years, and went to encounter all the dangers and hardships of the crusades. Sometimes they were shipwrecked on the way; sometimes thrown on strange islands; and not being used to the climate, many of them took fevers in consequence of the burning heat, and many fell victims to the plague.

Among those who were inspired with the strong desire to attack the infidels in the Holy Land, was Robert of Normandy, the eldest brother of William Rufus; but the undertaking was expensive, and he had, as I have told you, squandered his wealth very foolishly.

It came into his mind, then, to pledge his dukedom of Normandy to his crafty brother William, who was always ready enough to take advantage of his troubles. William accordingly paid Robert ten thousand marks; and Robert gave up Normandy, and went off to the Holy Land.

But William did not long enjoy his bargain. While he was hunting in the great New Forest which his father had made, a gentleman called Walter Tyrrell, who was hunting with him, shot an arrow at a deer that was running by.

Before the arrow reached the deer, it struck the bough of a tree, which changed its direction, and it pierced the heart of William Rufus, who was at that moment riding under the tree, and he fell down dead on the spot.



Death of Rufus.

So little did the people care about him that they let his body lie unnoticed for some time in the forest, and not even his brother Henry, who was hunting in another part of the wood, came to look at it; but, at last, it was brought in by some poor country people, and buried.



HENRY I., OR BEAUCLERC.

1100—1135.

AND now there were but two of William the Conqueror's sons left; and William Rufus had left no children; so that either Robert or Henry was heir to the throne of England. Robert was the true heir, being the elder.

But Robert was afar off in the Holy Land, and Henry was on the spot, and had possession of the royal treasure, and was, besides, in love with an English lady, Matilda, the niece of that Edgar Atheling, the Saxon, who should have been king when Edward the Confessor died.

And when Henry married her, the English were in hopes they should be treated with more kindness by the Normans than heretofore; and that Matilda, who was one of themselves, would be able to procure them some privileges from Henry.

The people had known little of Robert; Henry, on the contrary, had lived among them; and the priests preferred him because he was a scholar, and had got the name of Beauclerc, which is French for good scholar.

So Henry was proclaimed king: nor was any thing heard of poor Robert till after the marriage and coronation had taken place.

Then he came back again from his crusade, and laid claim to the English throne: but his brother offered to give a certain sum of money if he would renounce this claim; and it was agreed that if Henry died without children, Robert should succeed him.

Robert was very well content with this proposal, and lived two months with his brother in England; after which he returned to Normandy. But he was, every way, a sad manager: he neglected the necessary affairs both of his household and his kingdom. Sometimes his subjects cheated him; and sometimes he pillaged them: and at length they became so weary of him, that they petitioned Henry to come over and take the government of Normandy upon himself.

And Henry, who was ambitious and selfish, very readily agreed, and not only accepted Normandy for himself, but carried back his brother Robert a prisoner to England, and shut him up in Cardiff Castle, where the poor prince remained all the rest of his life; and I am afraid, if the whole truth were known, it would be found that he was treated with great cruelty while thus confined.

His death did not happen until twenty-eight years after; and he was buried in Gloucester cathedral, where there is his tomb, with a figure in armour lying upon it, carved in heart of oak: the tomb, too, is made of wood, in the shape of a chest, and the figure is covered with a wire grating to preserve it: the head has a coronet on it, and the body has a hauberk of chain mail; and the legs are crossed, to show that he was a crusader.

Henry, though king of England, was not happier than his father had been. He had a son, William, who was his heir, and whom he exceedingly loved. This son was returning with his sister from Normandy. King Henry was not with them in the vessel by which they came, which was called "The White Ship."

It was quite a new vessel, and commanded by a captain called Fitz-Stephen; but this man allowed the sailors to get drunk, and they drove the ship upon a rock.

As soon as Fitz-Stephen saw the danger, he got out the boat and put the prince into it; but just as they were leaving the vessel, William heard his sister's voice, and he could not bear to leave her to be drowned.

Then when he came near the ship to take her in, so many people jumped into the little boat, that it sank, and they were all drowned.

This calamity affected the king so much that he never smiled again. His queen, Matilda, had long been dead, and he had married another lady, named Adeliza, daughter of the Duke

de Louvain. She was a very beautiful and accomplished woman, and a great patroness of



Shipwreck of Prince William and Matilda.

literature, so much so, that the poets of the day were proud to address their verses to her; and one of them dedicated a book about animals to the "Bel Alice," as she was called. She had no children by King Henry, but brought as much comfort to his sad heart as any one could do; and when *he* died, which was in the sixty-seventh year of his age, she married one of his most faithful followers, William de Albini, Earl of Arundel. King Henry reigned thirty-five years.



STATE OF ENGLAND AND REIGN OF STEPHEN. 1135—1154.

As Henry I. had left only a young grandchild, the son of his daughter Maude, (or Matilda,) there was much room for dissension and strife among those numerous powerful barons who divided England between them, and who scorned the idea of being governed by a woman and a child.

The result of these dissensions was, that the barons chose Stephen, Count of Blois, for their king, nephew to the late monarch; a good and kindly intentioned man, who would, probably, have ruled well in other times, but having no real right to the throne, was continually subjected to contests with the friends of the young Henry and his mother. Several of the greatest among the nobles remained attached to the young king's cause, while others supported Stephen; and civil war raged in England, which was almost "covered with castles—every one,"

indeed, built a castle who was able," and it was said that they amounted to one thousand one hundred and fifteen before Stephen's death. But it was at length agreed by both parties that Stephen should remain king for life, and that after his death Henry should succeed him ; and this event occurring in 1154, that is, after about 25 years of trouble and war, the young grandson of Harry Beauclerk ascended the throne by the title of Henry II.

It is not easy to form a true idea of what life must have been in England during the now eighty-eight years which had elapsed since the Conquest in 1066. When we spoke of the Saxon laws, and how dear they were to the people, we said that William the Conqueror was anxious to observe them ; but that his powerful nobles, each of whom he had promised to reward, hindered him, so that in fact they were the real kings, ruling the people with an iron rod.

In the reign of Henry I. they still continued increasing in power ; and in Stephen's reign, the civil wars calling out so many attacks of one man upon another, though they pulled down one another's castles at times, yet two seemed to arise for every one that was destroyed.

The *laws* were meant for all ; but the great men struggled against the power of the law, and wished to settle all questions by the sword. And *law* was not much in favour with the clergy either. Often as the Church protected the poor people from the tyranny of the barons, still it was fully shown, as time went on, that there is no safety

and no certainty of good government unless the laws are just, and administered by a body of men independent of bribes or threats, and liable to be judged themselves if they do wrong.

The clergy of those days had no taxes to pay. They had further the privilege of being tried and judged, when accused of any crime, not by a jury of Englishmen, but by a council of clergymen only.

In these dark times, when no newspapers and no police were known, murders were easily concealed ; but they were also easily suspected and believed in without reason ; and as no crime committed by a clergyman was brought before a common court, the most improbable crimes were imputed to this order of men.

The clergy had, indeed, even more power than the barons ; *they*, like the barons, had rich lands, and dwellings and followers, and the common people of England were often in double terror from them, because the clergy had likewise the terrible power of *excommunication* : which meant in those days forbidding a person to come to mass, or take the sacraments, and forbidding other people to do him the common offices of kindness ; and also of adjudging him, in the hearing of the Church, to be worthy of eternal death, so long as the sentence of excommunication was not taken off him.

I do not mean to say that the clergy were, for the most part, tyrannical or cruel over the common people, unless, indeed, when they happened to oppose themselves particularly to their wishes, and then their power was tremendous ; but, in general, the English looked upon them as their

best friends, and always fled to them when they were persecuted by the barons.

Very often the clergy interfered and protected them ; and no baron, though ever so mighty, dared to attack a person who had fled to the sanctuary of the Church.

The Norman abbots and bishops had, however, no scruple about using force, and even arms, to bring about their own wishes in the Church services, and in the government of the religious houses. For instance, as there had been for a long time before the Conquest no great uniformity in the public worship, one Thurston, a Norman abbot, went among the Saxon monks at Glastonbury with a band of archers and spearmen, and insisted on their using his favourite liturgy. This led, however, to a general Church service being framed in a more peaceable manner in the latter part of William the Conqueror's reign, which was ordered to be performed throughout the kingdom.

It is but very seldom that the histories of early times tell us much of the *better* portion of the people. How many hard-working labourers must there have been in the eighty-eight years since the Conquest ! how many poor patient creatures, sorely tried and eating their bread in sorrow ! how many quiet Christian monks and priests too, truly striving to serve their Master, according to their light ! but of them all we know nothing. We hear of haughty barons, sturdy rebels, proud Churchmen. These were not all. But the history of every human being, however humble, is written in a book from which it will never be blotted out.



HENRY II. 1154—1189.

AND now we come to the time when Henry II. was seated on the throne of England.

Do you wish to know what he beheld on looking round his kingdom? You may then pay a visit to three different orders of people.

And first, to the Clergy, and to the Abbey, or Monastery.

Observe, that the religious houses are sometimes called monasteries, and sometimes convents: and that the difference between a monastery and a convent was this—that a MONASTERY was inhabited by *monks*, solitary men, who lived in separate cells, meeting only at meal-times and at their devotions; while CONVENTS were societies of *friars*, or brothers, who withdrew from the world as a large, but lived together in fellowship, a society of united brethren. Of convents there were none in Eng-

land till several years after Henry the Second's death.

ABBEYS and PRIORIES were the largest and wealthiest *monasteries*, the heads of which were called *abbots* or *priors*, and sat in the upper house of parliament, on the same footing as the barons of the realm.

There were certainly many abbeys with their churches erected in the time of the Saxons, and what was done by the Normans on their arrival, though often preceded by destroying a part or the whole of the Saxon building, generally took up the same spot, and often the same plan. But the Norman taste was grander; the Normans were more accustomed besides to deny themselves indulgences, for the sake of building these noble structures for the service and worship of their Maker and Redeemer. It was one great means, according to the views of men of those times, of expiating the guilt of bloodshed, and of crimes committed in war. A warrior became anxious in his advancing years to make his peace with the Church, and thus he bequeathed money and lands to build a cathedral or a shrine.

Bishops and archbishops ranked higher still than abbots, wearing mitres of pure gold: in the



Bishops' Caps.

early ages the abbots did not wear mitres, but when leave was obtained to do so, abbots' mitres

were directed to be made of silver gilt, in order to distinguish them from those of the bishops.

The abbot led a life of great state in his monastery; he was regarded as the father and lord of his house, and no appeal was allowed from his decision.

He was empowered to confine unruly monks, for any length of time, in solitary rooms or prisons, and even to inflict upon them severe bodily punishment.

Many abbots and bishops established schools in their monasteries, where youth were taught: these houses also distributed provisions and medicines to the poor, and were ever ready to receive and entertain travellers. The young monks were taught to write beautifully, and thus it was that many books, which otherwise would have perished, were preserved and multiplied before the invention of printing.

Abbeys or monasteries were generally built on pleasant spots of ground, near a river, if possible, for the convenience of fishing; and the gardens belonging to them were the best then known. The brethren cultivated fruits of all kinds, especially vines, and wine was made from the vineyards of England, equal in quality to the wine of the continent.

I have said that the Normans were magnificent builders of religious edifices. Although all their principal works have undergone alterations and additions, yet the hands of those who built cathedrals, from the time of the Conquest till Henry the Second's time, can still be traced in what we

now have remaining of them. In many cases it is the greater part. Thus we have Norwich cathedral; Durham, founded in 1098; Rochester, Gloucester, Lincoln, Oxford, Winchester, Chichester, Peterborough, Ely, Exeter, and Canterbury, of which the whole of the eastern part was built before the end of this century.

Now let us visit the Baron in his castle.

The castles of this time were indeed very large, but so much space was allotted to fortifications, that little room for comforts remained. The great were enclosed by walls of immense thickness, constructed for strength, but not for convenience; not often were there more than one or two rooms on a floor: and the soldiers, who lived below their lord, were crowded together, and slept on trusses of straw.

The rooms were badly lighted, except the state rooms, which had a good window or two; few besides had any other light than what came in through chinks or loop-holes in the walls.

The apartments were very comfortless: floors roughly put together, and covered with rushes only; huge massy tables, and coarse benches and settles. Noble fires, however, blazed in the great chimneys, and the tables were loaded with meat at morning, noon, and night. The common provision of the soldiers, though coarse, was plentiful.

Not till long afterwards were any nicely cultivated gardens or pleasure-grounds to be seen; all seemed made for soldiers and horses. Ladies, indeed, lived in these dwellings with their lords, and were accustomed to go out with them to hunt

or hawk: and when the castle was attacked by an enemy, if the baron was absent, the lady often defended it as valiantly as he. One moat, at least, with a drawbridge over it, surrounded the castle. Sometimes there were two moats or ditches, an outer and an inner, so that, if one was taken, there was still another defence within.

And now for *the people*. •

Visiting the *towns* in those days, you would have seen many marks of improvement. Many of them now possessed royal charters. The king had conferred upon the townsmen such privileges as the liberty of giving away their daughters in marriage as they pleased, without asking the consent of their lord or baron; or the liberty of leaving their property to their children when they died.

Again, you would find some new towns rising up in the country, near the dwelling of a great lord; and if you inquired, you would find that this great lord, in order to encourage traders to settle near him, had given them exemption from all payments of taxes and tolls; or perhaps, if each trader paid a halfpenny a-year to the lord, no further burden was imposed upon him.

But then, if such a charter were given only by a subject, it would be in force only for his life; whereas, what was given by the king was, in general, given for ever. And in many a thriving town of England the townsmen had the liberty of making bye-laws for their own government, of building walls for their own defence, of choosing magistrates and a council of their own; and in

return for this, paid an annual tax in money to the king.

In these towns the inhabitants would be busied in woollen manufactures, and in dyeing and dressing cloth. Foreign merchants would be there, German and Flemish, importing goods and the precious metals.

Dress was becoming very fanciful; the Normans no longer wore their hair cropped short, as in the Conqueror's time, but absurdly long. The clergy were much displeased at the fashion, and one clergyman is reported to have preached a sermon against it, which moved the congregation to tears; when the priest, seizing his opportunity, drew a pair of scissors from his long large sleeves, and cropped the whole assembly.

The courtiers wore, in Henry the First's time, those curious peaked shoes of which we sometimes hear, the points being made stiff with tow, and twisted into the form of a ram's horn. Mantles were of superfine cloth, lined with valuable furs. One mantle worn by Henry I. is reported to have been valued at 100*l*. If we take into account the difference of the value of money then and now, (every silver penny in Henry the First's time purchasing as much food probably as five shillings would purchase now,) this was a costly covering.

Much silver was coined in Henry's time, but little gold, and no copper; indeed, we hear little about gold coinage till the reign of Edward the Third; and with regard to copper coins, their introduction was later still.

If a stranger visited the hovels of the *poor*, he would see small improvements during the period since the Conquest. Still the vassals belonging to the estate might be bought or sold at their master's pleasure, and without his consent they could not marry, or dispose of their children in marriage.

*

In surveying the state of his people, Henry II. did not look with our eyes. He had been brought up with the notions of his time, but difficulties in his own government awakened him to a strong sense of what was wanted; and as we proceed, we shall see how gradually, but by necessity, he and others were obliged to do the work of reform in the laws, and strive to mend the condition of their people.

THOMAS A BECKET.

THERE is nothing more remarkable in the reign of Henry II. than the long contest between this tenacious man and the king.

Thomas à Becket was the son of a citizen of London, and of a Syrian woman. He was educated in the schools of London, and in early life was known to King Henry only as a clever, active young man, who loved pleasure, but was useful in business, and would be worth attaching to his service.

When the high office, then, of Archbishop of

Canterbury became vacant, Henry thought he could not do better than bestow it on Becket; for in him he thought to find one who would make the clergy more manageable, and would be more eager to oblige his master than to consult the interests of the Church.

But Henry had not yet understood Becket. No sooner was he made archbishop, than he laid aside all his gay and splendid habits: he seemed to have left off also all disposition to please his royal master, and to desire nothing but to promote the power of the Church; while he took unwearied pains to please the people, washing the feet of the poor, and ministering to the sick.

One of his clergy having committed a very shocking crime, the king insisted upon his being tried by the civil magistrate; but Becket stiffly opposed this trial, as contrary to the usages of the Church.

The king then, greatly annoyed, called a council of the nobility and clergy, and begged their assistance in reforming these laws, and passing some ordinances which should render clergymen liable to be tried for wrong-doing in the same manner as laymen.

And after some consideration, these proposed laws were subscribed to by the bishops and nobles; Becket himself at length agreeing to follow the example of the rest.

But in this compliance he was either rash or insincere; for the pope of Rome having disapproved of these laws, Becket immediately recanted; and putting on his episcopal robes, and

bearing the crosier in his hand, he went to the king's palace, and marching straight into the room where Henry and his barons were assembled, he protested against the new laws, and revoked his late assent to them.



Becket before Henry II.

This conduct astonished and irritated the king, who now bitterly repented having placed Becket in so high a position: and yet further was he irritated, when, a few days afterwards, news came that Becket had crossed the water on a mission to the pope; and this was followed by a sentence of excommunication against his chief ministers, and all whom Becket considered as particularly his enemies.

It would take much time to relate all that passed from this period between the king and Becket. Both were wrong, and both in some points were right. The king gradually became more and more exasperated against Becket. Becket himself could not, or did not choose to

yield in the least to the king, but rather seemed to take pride in thwarting him.

They were however at length outwardly reconciled, and had a meeting, at which the king forgave the archbishop, and the archbishop gave his blessing to the king; and Becket, after this, went over again to England.

But the manner in which he carried himself on his return provoked Henry exceedingly. Instead of quietly retiring to discharge the duties of a Christian bishop in his diocese, Becket made a journey through Kent, with all the splendour and state of a sovereign; and proceeding towards London, he there excommunicated the Bishops of London and Salisbury, and suspended the Archbishop of York.

He also excommunicated one man for having spoken against him, and another for having cut off the tail of one of his horses.

While this passed, King Henry was in Normandy; and when he heard of Becket's behaviour, and when the bishops whom Becket had denounced came over from England to complain of their ill treatment, the king's anger passed all prudent bounds, and he hastily exclaimed, "Have I then no true friends among the cowards who eat my bread? not one who will rid me of this turbulent priest?"

His words were heard; and though no one dared to make answer, there were those in his presence who inferred that the king would be glad if Becket were murdered.

There is no reason at all to believe that Henry

had any such idea, though he was doubtless bewildered at the difficulty of dealing with this man; his words only expressed his wish that any one would devise a way by which he could conquer Becket's obstinacy.

Four, however, of the king's knights, catching at his words, hastened to Canterbury with the full purpose of murdering the archbishop.

And they executed this bad purpose but too soon. The appearance of these men in Canterbury occasioned immediate remark, and the archbishop was advised to keep close within doors.

But he refused, and prepared as usual to attend vespers at the cathedral. He was ascending the



Death of Becket.

steps of the choir, when the four knights, with twelve companions, all armed, burst into the church, exclaiming loudly, "Where is the archbishop? where is the traitor?"

"Here is the archbishop," answered Becket, looking loftily on them, "but he is no traitor."

At that moment the knights fell upon him, and knocking him down with repeated blows, he expired at the foot of St. Bennet's altar.

Thus died Thomas à Becket; and his death, besides being an act of murder and sacrilege, was productive of very unhappy consequences to both the king and the people. The clergy threw all the blame of Becket's death upon Henry; and the people, believing them, were thenceforth less inclined to think favourably of their king than before.

A.D. 1172.—The next act was to rank Becket with the saints and martyrs, and to build a sumptuous shrine in Canterbury cathedral to his memory: here wonderful cures were said to be wrought; even dead men were brought to life by touching the sacred tomb.

And for three or four hundred years afterwards, troops of pilgrims constantly resorted to the tomb of St. Thomas, kneeling, and making confession of their sins, and appealing to him for help, as if he was their intercessor with God.

Richer people brought with them gifts, which they offered up at the shrine, and which amounted to a very large sum in the course of a year; in one year to as much as eight hundred and thirty-two pounds, and in another to nine hundred and fifty-four.

The shrine of Thomas à Becket is still standing in that cathedral; but the time for pilgrims to kneel and pray and offer gifts there is gone by; and those who go now, may well be thankful that it is so. They have the clear language of the

Bible to guide them, and they know that "there is but one Mediator between God and man, the man Christ Jesus."

And no monks stand about the shrine now, persuading the people to believe in the miracles performed there; but the beautiful building remains, and every one who goes may still lift up his heart in silence to God, and pray to be cured of his infirmities: and where is he who does not believe that those prayers, if offered in faith, will be heard?

HENRY II. (CONTINUED.)

WHEN Becket's turbulent career was over, it might have been supposed that King Henry would enjoy greater peace. It did not prove so. His life was one long struggle with the barons and the Church, and with those of his own household.

He had succeeded in demolishing some of the castles, and had bestowed various privileges on the poorer people; so that they were better off now than they had been since the Conquest.

But the manner of Becket's death raised so many enemies against the king, that he was obliged entirely to give up any attempt to reform the clergy; and they remained even more powerful at the close of his reign than at the beginning.

And in his own family his sorrows were many; not undeserved—since he had chosen to take for his queen a woman of very bad character, merely for ambition's sake; and then, when he found

himself unhappy, he sought the company of other women.

There was a very beautiful girl called Rosamond, whom King Henry loved extremely, and, because he dreaded lest the queen should ill-treat her if she found out his attachment, he concealed her in a labyrinth in Woodstock park.

And, as stories say, the queen, after some time, discovered the secret of this labyrinth, and found her way quite into Fair Rosamond's presence; and there this cruel queen held out a bowl of poison to Rosamond, and obliged her to drink, while she held a dagger to her breast.

But if she hoped when her rival was gone that King Henry would love her better, she was very much mistaken, since he could not but hate her cruelty, and mourn for poor Rosamond. Besides which, the queen made him miserable by her bad temper, and by constantly leading his sons to quarrel with him and with one another.

It does not appear that the king's sons had any good reason for complaint against their father; on the contrary, he had done everything possible to secure a peaceful succession to the throne for them.

He had, in particular, caused his eldest son, Henry, to be crowned king in his lifetime, in order that all the barons and clergy might swear allegiance to him; and he had assigned portions of his inheritance to his other sons.

But they would not wait for his death, but complained that they were not put into direct possession of power; and the three eldest, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey, escaped from England, and

went abroad to raise an army with which to attack their old father.

It is said, that one reason why these young men complained of their father was, that he would not allow them the sports usual to their age, and was very severe in punishing any free and riotous conduct even among those nearest to him at court.

And, indeed, it is true that King Henry did not make himself popular by encouraging the martial sports which the nobles so much loved.

The *Tournament* and the *Just* were among the most popular of these amusements. In the tournament, a number of knights met in a certain space of ground, according to fixed regulations made on the spot, and dared



each other to combat either on horseback or on foot, but generally on horseback; and as they fought very ardently, it often happened that what was begun in sport ended in earnest, and very serious wounds were given and taken on both sides.

Justs were a sort of sportive tournament, only undertaken for pastime, and the combatants used spears without the usual heads. The art of the game was for one combatant to strike another on the front of his helmet with the spear, with force enough to drive him down backward from his horse.

The combatants came at full speed from different sides of the course; and when they met in the middle, the clash of their armour and the noise of the spears was tremendous.

To see these diversions, all the lords and ladies in the neighbourhood used eagerly to assemble together. Temporary galleries were erected round the field of combat; music sounded; and all were dressed in the most sumptuous fashion of the day.

It was Henry the Second's opinion, however, that these sports were injurious to the people, and tended to keep up the warlike spirit of the barons, which he wanted to repress; and he entirely forbade them during his reign; by which means he perhaps did himself injury.

Soon after his three sons had left England, as we have mentioned, it was discovered that the queen was also carrying on a conspiracy against him; and the king vainly looked around among his nearest relations for one true friend or counsellor.

Then, when his heart was pierced with grief, it

came strongly to his mind that he had certainly been the occasion of Becket's death, though he might not have deliberately intended it; and there were those about him who told him he would never be prosperous again, until he had made his peace with Heaven, and done penance at the shrine at Canterbury.

The poor king was too sad and distressed to make any opposition, and, humbling himself, he went to Canterbury. As the beautiful cathedral rose in sight, he alighted from his horse, and took off his shoes, after the fashion of pilgrims, performing the rest of the journey barefoot.

And when he reached the shrine, he cast himself on the bare pavement near the tomb, and expressed his willingness to suffer any punishment the monks might impose upon him: and they were not sparing of the exercise of their power: they first scourged the monarch as he lay helpless before them, and then, in the holy name of God himself, they absolved him.

Henry was not the happier after this act of humiliation; still his sons' ingratitude lay heavy at his heart. The worst pang, however, was yet to come.

His youngest son, John, though even more treacherous and artful than the rest, was his favourite: he at least, the king thought, would be faithful to him; and, in that hope, he had taken comfort under the death of his eldest son, Prince Henry. But now it was suddenly made known to him, that this very John headed a conspiracy against him.

The miserable father cursed his children in the bitterness of his heart, and could never prevail on himself to unsay the terrible words which he uttered on this occasion. A lingering fever fastened upon him. Everything looked dark around him. It was plain there were no more bright days in store for King Henry. He fell sick at Chinon, in Normandy, and finding his end approach, begged to be carried into the church, before the altar, where he expired, A.D. 1189.



RICHARD I. 1189—1199.

AFTER the rebellious conduct of the sons of Henry II. during their father's life, we do not expect to be satisfied with the character of these sons, when, in their turn, kings of England.

Yet was Richard I. a gallant man, for his time, and the people of England were extremely proud of him, because of his courage and success in the Holy Wars, and because he was popular in his manners towards them.

They called him Cœur de Lion, the Lion's Heart ; likening him thus to the fierce but generous king of the forest.

Even before his father died, Richard had resolved upon joining the crusaders in the Holy War ; and so full was his heart of ambition to be at the head of these expeditions, that he could not bear the idea of his father's being concerned in them, lest he himself should thereby be robbed of future glory. No sooner was the old man dead, than Richard prepared a grand armament for the Holy Land ; and as these Holy Wars were favourite objects with the clergy, he became their darling hero, and they spared no pains to raise supplies of money for him.

The people too, who, for the most part, loved the Church, and were chiefly governed by its authority, were pleased at the idea of the great work their king was likely to achieve ; and when they saw him at the head of his barons and knights, clad in ponderous armour, with banners flying before them, and proudly managing his spirited steed, they expected great things from such a noble-looking warrior.

It was long, however before any news came from King Richard ; for in those days there were no swift sailing-vessels, nor any expeditious modes of conveyance.

But in time the people heard, as they expected, that no one of all the kings and great men of the Holy Land was so highly thought of as Cœur de Lion, and that he was making great progress in arms.

By-and-by news came that he had fallen sick of a fever; then again that he was better; but that quarrels had taken place between himself and Philip the King of France, and also Leopold Duke of Austria.

Again, they heard that Philip of France and the Duke of Austria, being, as it was supposed, tired of giving way in everything to the lion-hearted king, who at his pleasure lorded it over them, had returned home, and left him to fight almost alone.

The next report said he prospered all the better alone, and had reached Jerusalem, after several victories. But again rumour said that King Richard was obliged to give up the conquest of the holy city just as it seemed to be in his grasp; for that, on reviewing his army, he found it so wasted by sickness and desertion, that a longer stay would be certain ruin; that, therefore, he had concluded a treaty with the enemy, and was about to return.

To see their lion-hearted king again was a joyful hope to many a man and woman in England; but it was not so to every one. John, the king's brother, had remained at home all the while, and, for some time past, had been secretly trying to supplant King Richard, having gained over some few nobles and clergymen to his side.

And as Richard's return was the last thing they

wished for, you may suppose they were not displeased when messengers came, informing them of his sad disasters. For it had so happened, that the Duke of Austria, who had often been affronted by Richard when they were in the Holy Land together, laid wait for him, and managed to get him into his power as he was returning to England with only a few attendants, and to put him into a prison.

It was some time before the people of England knew what was become of their king; and at length, when it was found out that he was in prison, the Duke of Austria refused to let him go unless a large sum of money were paid down for his ransom.

But the people of England did not mind parting with their money, provided they could but get back their king; and in a very short time a sum amounting to 300,000*l.* was collected and sent over to the Duke of Austria, who was then obliged to let King Richard go, after fourteen months' imprisonment.

And the moment the king was at liberty, he set out; and travelled rapidly day and night till he came to the sea-side, where he met with a vessel, in which he embarked directly for England. It was fortunate that he did so, for the treacherous duke repented of having let him go so easily, and sent men in pursuit of him; but happily, they only arrived in time to see his little vessel at a distance, making all sail for England. •

The best part of Richard's conduct remains to be told. On reaching England, he learned all

that had passed in his absence, and particularly the treachery of his brother John, which at first made him very angry. But when John humbled himself and submitted, he forgave him freely, only saying, "I wish I could as easily forget your offences, as you will my pardon."

From this time John served him better. Richard's reign, however, was not a long one, and was brought to a sudden close in its tenth year. Too turbulent and warlike to give rest either to body or mind, he entered into hostilities with France, and was killed by an arrow while besieging a castle in Normandy, called Chaluz.

The soldier who discharged the arrow being taken prisoner and brought before the king, Richard asked him "why he had sought to take his life?"

"Because," said the soldier, "you killed my father and brother. I have but taken a just revenge."

Richard, so far from being the more inflamed with anger by this reply, pardoned the soldier, and ordered that a present should be given him; but after he himself was dead, his generals disobeyed his orders, and put the poor soldier to a miserable death.

You remember, I dare say, how passionately fond all the Norman kings were of hunting, and what pains they took to keep up the deer; indeed, as a very old English writer says, "King William loved the fat deer as if he had been their father."

The effect of the severe forest-laws had been to raise up a set of desperate men, who in this reign,

commanded by a captain of the name of Robin Hood, gained their livelihood in the forests, and, setting the law at defiance, lived freely upon the king's game.

These outlaws amounted to upwards of 100 men, and they were all capital bowmen, and so skilful and clever, that they for many years defied all attempts to catch them. •

As to the common people, indeed, so far from *their* being enemies to Robin Hood and his crew, they secretly wished them well with all their hearts, and were always ready to give them notice of any attacks likely to be made upon them. •

You will not wonder at this, if you remember that the people could not but hate the forest-laws, and all the provisions which the Norman kings had made for the preservation of their game.

And, moreover, as many of the poor were oppressed by their lords, they were glad to look anywhere for a champion; and these outlaws frequently helped them in struggling with some petty vexation or other.

But one cannot deny that not only did Robin Hood and his men kill the king's deer, but that also they robbed the king's subjects.

If a rich, purse-proud abbot, or some very wealthy merchant, was known to be passing through the forest, Robin Hood was sure to have notice of it, and to be ready to waylay him, and demand a certain portion of his money.

On the contrary, if a poor distressed pilgrim went his way through Sherwood Forest, and fell in with Robin, he was certain of courteous treat-

ment, of a hearty meal, and perhaps a handsome present to boot.

Robin Hood's archers were so skilled in the use of the bow, as to perform feats which seem to us incredible. It is even said, that both Robin and his friend Little John could shoot an arrow a measured mile.

They were all dressed in cloth of Lincoln green, and had their own bye-laws and regulations. Robin was never captured or conquered; but when he was growing old, having a fit of illness upon him, it is said that he applied to a female relation to be bled.

Women, those especially connected with monasteries, were the principal surgeons and dispensers of medicine; and Robin's relative was a prioress.

The story says that, finding him in her power, and high rewards being offered to any one who would capture him, dead or alive, she treacherously allowed him to bleed to death.

The same story avers also that he was buried under trees (Robin always loved trees), and a stone with an inscription upon it was placed over his remains.

The history of Robin Hood and many of his adventures have been repeated in English ballads almost from the time of his decease; and it is very remarkable that the lower people made a great festival in his honour, every May-day, which was called Robin Hood's Day.

On these occasions they used to go into the woods and fields dressed in green, and set up May-poles. A man dressed like Robin Hood was Lord

of the May, and a woman, or perhaps a man dressed like a woman, was called Maid Marian.

These games were favourites with the people for some hundred years after Robin's time ; and we hear of Henry the Eighth and his queen and court going out to Shooter's Hill, a-maying, on Robin Hood's Day.



JOHN LACKLAND. 1199—1216.

GEOFFREY, elder brother of the late Richard Cœur de Lion, had died long before. But one son, named Arthur, survived him, and this boy, being twelve years of age at the time of his uncle Richard's death, was certainly next heir to the crown.

During a part of Richard's reign, Arthur had been so regarded by his uncle, but during the last years of his life he seemed to have been forgotten. On Richard's death, however, Arthur's mother, Constance, implored the King of France to assist her in asserting her son's right to the English throne; but the war in which he engaged with John for this purpose proved unsuccessful, and the young prince was taken prisoner. In no long time after, and while under the guardianship of John, Arthur disappeared.

No clear account has been given of the manner of his death, and rumour called his uncle his murderer; but it was so easy and so common in those days to spread such reports, and so difficult to disprove them, that we are not in a position to judge of their truth in this case.

However it might be, John was henceforth undisputed King of England. In himself he was a crafty, treacherous, dishonourable man; nor have we anything pleasant to relate of him; but his reign is thought of with interest by the people of England, because it was at that period that they obtained a Great Charter, which proved a most powerful guard to their liberties.

During the hundred and thirty-three years which had passed since the Norman Conquest, many private persons and many towns had asked for charters and had obtained them; a charter being a privilege solemnly promised and pledged to be given by a higher party to a lower. As, for instance, a baron granted a charter to his vassals to buy or sell or do some particular service; and

a king gave a charter to a town to possess the particular advantage or privilege it might petition for.

But much greater things were to be asked for of King John. *The whole people* were angered and degraded by the conduct he thought proper to pursue in several instances; and this put it into their minds, but especially into the minds of the great barons, to obtain a solemn agreement or royal charter, which should be, not for his reign only, but for the good of the English people in all time.



King John signing Magna Charta.

The case was this : John, by his own bad measures, as the barons believed, had contrived to lose all the possessions of the English in France ; all that beautiful Normandy from whence Duke William came ; and for this they gave him the name of Lackland. What was much worse, he foolishly provoked the power of the pope, and then most servilely humbled himself so far as to

place the whole kingdom at the pope's disposal, and promised only to hold it thenceforth as his vassal.

The barons, Roman Catholics as they of course were in faith, and adherents of the pope, were yet Englishmen, and could not consent to see their country degraded by being made merely a province of the pope's government : and they called a meeting, at which many of them, earls, bishops,



• *Two Norman Barons.*

and abbots, assembled to consult what was best for the security of the realm.

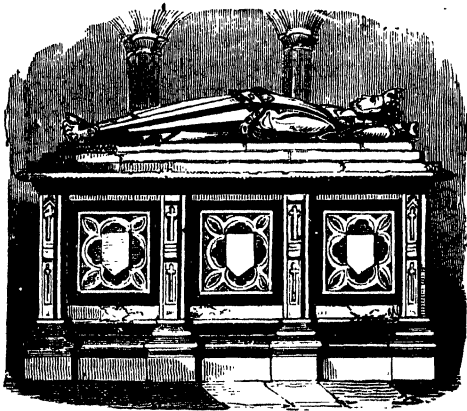
The messenger sent over by the pope, and to whom John had formally resigned Great Britain,

meanwhile took very high measures, paying no regard to the property of the barons or of the English bishops, filling up the vacancies that occurred among the clergy by appointing men in the pope's name, without even a formal reference to the regular bishops ; thus irritating all orders of men in England.

It was high time for them to combine and stay the hand of one who neither cared for them nor his country ; and this the barons did, when after much deliberation they framed the Great Charter, and carried it up to the king for his assent. John did not refuse, but laboured to put off an unwelcome thing ; he promised to meet them at Easter, but Easter came and he declined signing. Finding them all very strong and determined, however, he appointed another conference at Runnymede, a place between Staines and Windsor, and there, after much discussion, he at length yielded and signed.

This famous Charter was certainly designed more for the good of the nobles than of the people at large, but still it provided for the liberties of *all* to a great extent, and it was by no means injurious to the just interests of the king. It served as the foundation for other and improved charters between prince and people, and laid a broad basis for the lawful exercise of restraint in cases of oppression. No freeman was to be imprisoned or outlawed otherwise than by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. This great Charter was signed on the 15th of June, 1215.

The perfidious king signed, however, only to break his promises and get absolution for so doing from the pope. He was held in universal contempt, and died in 1216. His monument is still to be seen in Worcester cathedral, where he was interred.



King John's Tomb in Worcester Cathedral



HENRY III. 1216—1272.

HENRY THE THIRD was the son of King John, and was only nine years old when his father died. In early youth he had a wise guardian and counsellor in the Earl of Pembroke; but when he came to man's estate he cast off his best friends, and preferred weak favourites, who knew not how to advise him for the best.

Yet his reign was not without benefit to his country. He had some taste for architecture, and began building some fine churches: he also, finding that Westminster Abbey was in a state of great decay, took down most of it, and rebuilt it in a more perfect manner. The shrine of Edward the Confessor was erected at this time, and the body of the king, which had been interred under the high altar, was transferred to this new tomb.

He encouraged the study of natural history, and rewarded the poets and romance writers.

In his reign the trade of England increased greatly ; and though many of the warlike men of the time reproached him for being a lover of peace, yet, had he but conducted his government at home discreetly, no just ground of offence could have been alleged against him on this account.

The wars of his time were, indeed, of all wars the most cruel ; though called " religious," they were directed against conscience, and those engaged in them laboured to destroy men, merely because they could not agree with them in their faith.

It was, no doubt, thought a dreadful thing in those times to dispute the power of the pope to settle every religious difficulty ; but the *Albigenses* of that day were a quiet, unoffending people, and they merely asked to be allowed to find a home among the mountains dividing France and Switzerland, and to read the Scriptures, and worship God according to their consciences.

But the pope, incensed at their presuming to withdraw from the Romish worship, called the rulers of Christendom to a crusade against them ; a call readily answered to by many, and among others by our own English barons.

But though they poured out the blood of these Christians like water, it did not extinguish their faith. On the contrary, that faith spread further and faster for all the cruelty of persecution.

Henry had signed the Great Charter as soon as he was old enough to understand its meaning ;

but he never entered into its spirit, and was constantly trying to break through the barriers it imposed upon him.

He, in short, so repeatedly broke faith with the barons, that they determined on bringing him to renew in a more solemn manner the promises of Magna Charta in the presence of the bishops and abbots. They therefore assembled in the greatest pomp in Westminster Hall, and this Great Charter was read.

After the reading was ended, a solemn sentence of excommunication against any who should break the Charter followed; and when this sentence was pronounced, all the prelates, who had burning



Henry III. renewing the Great Charter.

tapers in their hands, cast them down on the ground, exclaiming, "So may all that incur this sentence be extinguished in hell;" and the king added, "So help me God, I will keep these things as I am a man: as I am a Christian: as I am a knight: as I am a king, crowned and anointed."

Nevertheless, we soon find him breaking these solemn promises, and at open war with his barons.

It was in this reign that a parliament was summoned, comprising not only knights of the shires, but citizens and burgesses also ; so that it is very plain that the people were now coming into greater consequence and reputation.

Henry III. reigned fifty-six years : at his death he was buried in Westminster Abbey, where he had prepared his own monument.



EDWARD I. 1272—1307.

In the earlier part of our history we spoke of several Edwards. These were all of Saxon race, but Edward, the son of Henry III., being the

first Edward of *Norman* race, is always known in history by the name of Edward I.

He reigned from the year 1272 to 1307, and was not young when he came to the crown. Before the death of his father he had joined the crusaders in the Holy Land, whither his beloved wife, Eleanor of Castile, accompanied him. There it was that, when he lay wounded by a poisoned dagger, this heroic woman was said to have performed the daring deed of sucking the poison from the wound with her own lips. It was when returning from the Holy Land that he heard of his father's death; and he did not reach England for some time, so that the coronation was delayed till August, 1274. The death of his beloved wife, Queen Eleanor, was the greatest grief of his life. She died at Herdeley in Nottinghamshire, and the king following the body to London, erected afterwards some beautiful crosses to mark the spots where it had rested by the way; of which all but three have perished: these are, Waltham, Northampton, and Geddington; they were all called Queen Eleanor's crosses.

I have not as yet said anything about Scotland, Wales, or Ireland; but it is now time to do so. In this reign Wales was wholly conquered by the English, and the Scotch kings were made to hold *their* crowns in subjection to the English crown.

The Welsh.

LONG ago, when we began our account of the people who have at different times governed in England, we mentioned the *British*: and you heard how, after the Romans had come and gone, and after the Saxons had established themselves here, many of the remaining Britons were driven into Wales.

Wales, therefore, is peopled by the descendants of the oldest inhabitants of Britain; and up to the reign of Edward I. it was governed by a series of native princes and kings of its own. Llewellyn was the name of the last native prince.

The English had been always very formidable neighbours to the Welsh; and frequently had behaved in a very cruel manner towards them, seeming to regard them as little better than savages.

And the Welsh, on their side, were too proud to learn such useful arts as the English could have taught them. They considered themselves as a high-born, injured race, and were apt to take offence on the most trifling occasions; nor was it easy to prevent the wildest excesses whenever their passions were roused.

There was a race of men among them who were called bards, who played fine old martial and patriotic airs on the harp, and sang songs of their own composing "about the strength, courage, and goodness of the old Princes of Wales."

These bards, by their spirited songs, helped greatly to cherish in the minds of the Welsh the love of themselves and their country; so that they still remained an untameable and hostile people, and those who lived near them either were or pretended to be in fear of their attacks.

This people, then, our first Edward determined to conquer. It was a difficult task; for the Welsh well knew the nature of their own country, and took advantage of the shelter of their lofty mountains, which at that time were covered with woods, where they could lay in ambush, and attack a whole army to the greatest advantage.

And the war might have been carried on for a length of time thus, if a treacherous Welshman had not betrayed Prince Llewellyn, and brought on a battle in which he was slain.

Then the Welsh fled in confusion, or threw down their arms, or were put to the sword; for Edward, though he had many fine qualities, was a merciless conqueror: and the strife ended by his dividing the country into counties, and placing sheriffs in each, as was the custom in England, and also by Edward's calling his eldest son, who was born at Carnarvon, Prince of Wales.

From this time the Welsh have had no more princes of their own race; but the eldest son of the King of England has always since been called Prince of Wales.

The bards were, of course, deeply grieved at this change in the government of their country, and they long mourned over it in their songs; but they were obliged to be cautious where or

how they uttered their sentiments, as the English were always on the watch against them, and it is said that many of them were murdered on account of their bitter and scornful remarks on the conquerors.

And King Edward cut down a great many of the woods on the mountains and in the valleys of Wales, that there might be no place of shelter for rebels.

The Scotch.

SCOTLAND had been governed in a very different manner from Wales. It had a regular succession of kings, and a parliament of its own: nor was there any just pretext for bringing it into subjection to England.

It was indeed desirable to unite its people with the English as far as possible, and to maintain a family harmony between its kings; and Edward had, for this purpose, proposed a marriage between his son and the young princess of Scotland. But, before this union could take place, she died; and it so happened, that there was no one named as successor to the crown whose claims satisfied *all* the Scotch people. Some were for one, and some for another, and, in all, there were thirteen candidates for this crown.

However, among the thirteen, there were *two*

who had a much better claim than the rest, and these were named, the one, Baliol, the other Bruce.

Now, in this state of affairs, King Edward's ambition and greediness of power were aroused; and when some of the Scotch governors applied to him to interfere and settle the matter for them, he eagerly agreed to do so; but he made it a condition that the Scotch would acknowledge *him* to be their head or supreme king, and that whoever they chose, should only be king *under him*, and take an oath of submission to him, like one of his own great barons.

The Scotch were astonished at such a demand: they considered their kings to be as independent as Edward himself, and it seemed to them a shameful thing that whoever wore their crown was to be a vassal to the king of England.*

But the two chief candidates, Baliol and Bruce, thought too little of the disgrace to Scotland, and only consulted their desire of being kings at all events, and each of them declared himself willing to consider Edward as his superior lord.

When Edward had obtained this advantage, which was all he at that moment wanted, he was satisfied, and seems to have given his best attention to the justice of the claims which Baliol and Bruce put forth; and it was finally decided that those of Baliol were to be preferred to those of Bruce.

Baliol, therefore, was crowned king, at the

* I have followed Mr. Sharon Turner's History in the account of the transactions in Scotland.

same time taking an oath of allegiance to Edward as his chief.

But it was not very long before Baliol repented of his conduct. At first he offended Edward by not obeying a summons which the English king sent him to appear and answer for himself a complaint preferred against him by a Scotchman; and, indeed, it must have been a very wounding thing to the Scotch king to be sent for all the way to London to answer a complaint made by one of his own subjects.

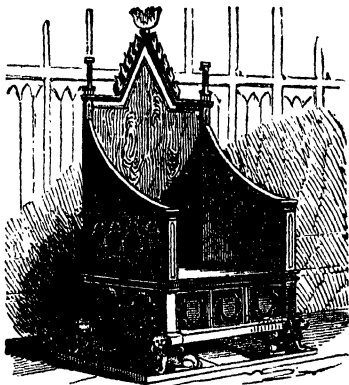
But his next and worse offence was, refusing to send King Edward any soldiers when Edward was engaged in a war with France, and actually signing a treaty with the French king without Edward's knowledge or consent.

Nor was it only that Baliol and his parliament wished to keep aloof from the contest; they agreed to attack Edward's English dominions while he was engaged in France, and accordingly invaded Cumberland, laid waste the country, and besieged Carlisle. Baliol also sent Edward a paper, renouncing his homage.

Edward, a stern and severe monarch, was extremely indignant at this conduct, and now determined, not merely to reign as the superior, but as the *sole* lord in Scotland.

His army was one of the best disciplined in the world; and it was not long before he conquered the Scots in a pitched battle, and took Baliol prisoner. Then he sent him up to the Tower in London, and also took the great stone, upon which the kings of Scotland always sat when they were

crowned, and sent it to Westminster; and this stone was framed, and is now the Coronation Chair in Westminster Abbey.



Coronation Chair.

Edward put English governors into the chief castles in Scotland, and appointed an Englishman to be at the head of the general government; leaving also a number of soldiers to keep the people in awe,—a state of things which occasioned the deepest indignation and sorrow to all good Scotchmen.

Then there arose in Scotland a hero whose generous and brave deeds made him beloved by his countrymen, who laboured for a time, with success, to free them from the English yoke: and this hero was William Wallace.

He gathered his countrymen together; he

drove out Edward's governors ; he got possession of the principal towns : and it was seven years before the King of England succeeded in conquering this brave man, and regaining possession of Scotland.

A.D. 1305.—But Wallace himself was at length betrayed into the hands of Edward by a false friend ; and the king, who only saw in him an enemy, and felt no respect for his devoted exertions for his country, treated him like a common malefactor, and sent him up to London, where he was hung, and his head afterwards exposed on London Bridge.

But though Edward appeared thus to have conquered his chief enemies in Scotland, the spirit of the people was not broken ; and during the whole of the rest of his life he was kept in employment by them. If I were to tell you their wonderful struggles, their bravery, and perseverance and sufferings, I should take up a long time, and it would be Scotch History rather than English.

I will not therefore dwell upon it further than to say that, after these long and severe struggles, the Scotch were at last rewarded by gaining their independence, and that they preserved it until, many years afterwards, the two countries were united under our King James I., who was by birth King of the Scots.

The Irish.

I HAVE also omitted any notice of Ireland till this time. Ireland, though an independent island till conquered by the English, was so near a neighbour, that the English kings found themselves greatly annoyed, whenever they were at war with foreign powers, by the interference of some of its chieftains, many of whom were ready to give help to the enemies of England.

During the Saxon times, and indeed before them, it is said that the Irish were more civilized than the English: they certainly had many learned men among them at a very early period, and embraced Christianity about the middle of the fifth century.

It was in the year 1169, that King Henry II. determined on conquering this neighbouring island. He sent over armies, and at last went himself in 1172, and was so far successful, as that all the princes of Ireland, except one, submitted to him: and he kept a court and held a parliament in Dublin. He then settled some English judges and merchants there; and he gave portions of land and Irish titles to some of his followers; and he called his son John (Lackland) Lord of Ireland.

The Irish liked the English no better than the Welsh and Scotch had done, and were constantly revolting; and when the Scotch had been successful for a time in their attempts to shake off the yoke of Edward I., they joined themselves with the discontented Irish also.

I should have the same difficulty in telling you

of all the different contests between Irish and English, as between Scotch and English ; so that I must content myself with saying, that there was a constant succession of fresh insurrections and fresh conquests in Ireland for many of the following reigns ; that the Irish were very hardly treated, and that the English have deservedly suffered a great deal from their usurpation over them.

What you have heard of Edward I. has not been much to his credit ; and yet he was in many respects a good sovereign, an excellent son, a good master, and a faithful friend ; not given to ostentation, but very simple in his dress and appearance. He attached his relations and friends strongly to him, though so stern to his enemies.

His death took place July 7th, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, at Carlisle, just when he was preparing once more to attack the defenceless Scots with a large army ; and his last injunctions to his son were, that he would never desist till he had quite conquered that unhappy people. The tomb of Edward I. is in Westminster Abbey.

I cannot omit, in reviewing the remarkable things of this and the former reign, that it was during this time that Roger Bacon, one of the greatest men England has ever known, lived, and paved the way for some of the most memorable inventions of modern days.

He was born in 1214, and died, aged eighty, in 1292. He was a monk of Oxford ; a very bold preacher, for on one occasion, preaching before King Henry III., he ventured to condemn strongly the king's practice of giving to foreigners the

most important posts in the kingdom. But it was in study more than in the pulpit that he was eminent. He learnt Greek, Latin, Hebrew, and Arabic; he accumulated a large number of books and philosophical instruments.

He is generally considered to have been the original inventor of the telescope, of the camera obscura, and the burning glass. The invention of gunpowder more properly belongs to him than to any one else; and although none of these discoveries and inventions were brought into practical use for some years after, yet the wonderful talent and perseverance of Roger Bacon at a time when no helps were to be obtained from other minds, make him far more extraordinary than those who afterwards turned his knowledge to account.

He describes "Artificial Instruments" which he had either contrived or intended to contrive; as, for instance, "a ship which might be managed by one man," a carriage running with inconceivable swiftness entirely by machinery, and "an instrument by which one man may draw a thousand to himself."

But this wonderful man was to be treated as a magician and an associate of Satan. The men with whom he had lived could not understand him; his books were prohibited, and he himself was subjected to imprisonment. This cruel decree was confirmed by the pope in 1278. He was then sixty-four years of age; and he remained ten years in prison, where he composed a treatise on the "means of avoiding the infirmities of old age."

At length, about four years before his death, the persecuted old man was set at liberty and allowed

to return to Oxford, where he still worked on to the last, composing a "Compendium of Theology," and other works.



EDWARD II. 1307—1327.

THE youthful son of the great Edward was a weak and yet a tyrannical king; he gave himself up to the power of vicious favourites, and was mean and deceitful in his conduct to his people.

His cruel queen, Isabella of France, joined the party of insurgents who rose against him, and by them he was, as there is every reason to believe, barbarously murdered in Berkeley castle.

He was interred in Gloucester cathedral.

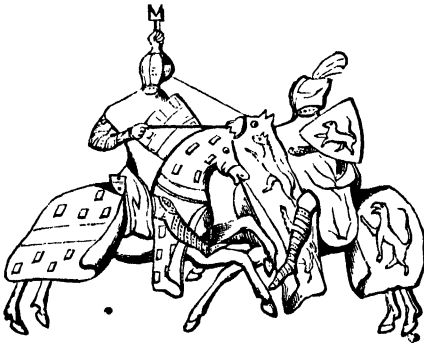
Some of those fine cathedrals which we still admire, and truly think the glory of our country, were built *after* this time; but several which yet remain were then in existence; such as Norwich,

Lincoln, Worcester, Hereford, Gloucester, Winchester, and Westminster Abbey.

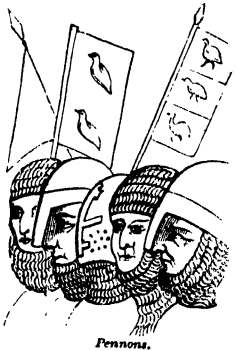
And there were many beautiful abbeys which are now only ruins ; such as Tintern Abbey in South Wales, and Fountain's Abbey in Yorkshire, and Waverley Abbey in Surrey, and the abbey at Bury St. Edmunds in Suffolk ; all these are now roofless and ruined, but the fine arched or pointed windows still remain, and the ivy-covered walls, and the pillars, showing how beautiful the buildings must have been when in their better days.

Our dwelling-houses, indeed, are far more convenient than theirs were ; but we shall probably never see reared again such grand and splendid piles of building as our old cathedrals.

The first clock was put up in London during this reign, by one Wallingford.



The dress of the knights when they went to battle was very striking ; their helmets were of



Pennons.

curious shape, called the barrel-shape; and the knights now carried *pennons* on their lances, which were small flags with the device and arms of the knight emblazoned on them.

As to the ladies, their dresses were not very becoming; they mostly wore something round their throats and over their chins which was called a



Ladies' Costume.

gorget, and it was a frightful disguise, being wrapped two or three times round the neck, and then fastened with pins on each side up to the ears.

"I have often thought," said one of the writers of the day, "when I have seen a lady so closely tied up, that her neck-cloth was nailed to her chin, or that the pins were hooked into her flesh."

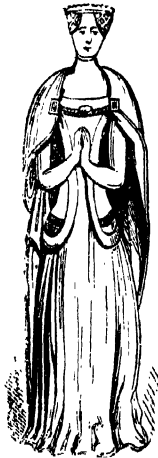
This is a picture of one of these ladies.

Others dressed more becomingly. They wore an immense number of jewels, gold buckles, ear-rings, &c., and sometimes girdles of beaten gold, orna-

*Ladies' Costume.*

mented with emeralds and rubies.

They had the bad fashion of tight lacing, and took pains to acquire great slimness of figure. In the next reign, (that of Edward III.,) their dress was somewhat prettier and more simple; and the knights at that time began to wear plate armour, which cased their limbs and bodies, and was not so heavy as the chain-mail they used to wear.



*Blanche de la Tour, Edward's
the Third's daughter.*



EDWARD III. 1327—1377.

MANY writers treat of this as the most glorious reign of any in English history; I cannot be of that opinion. War is a terrible evil, and I cannot praise the King of England, who, for the sake of being King of France also, could carry on a murderous war for many years, raising supplies of money from his poor subjects merely to gratify his own ambition.

When, however, we look back on these times, we must always remember that kings and nobles were educated to war. The glory of the day was to be a true knight and a brave soldier.

Edward III. early caught this spirit, and it was encouraged by every one around him. Though the people, in the end, might suffer from his exactions, they were not yet aware of the evil and folly of indulging a warlike spirit. They loved to see tournaments and justs; and to know that their king and his valiant son were esteemed among the noblest of the knights of their time, was enough to make them forget the burdens entailed on them.

A. D. 1333.—Edward's first victories were gained in Scotland, when he routed the Scots at Halidon Hill, but his next step was to join the Flemings in a war against France. This war was pursued during nearly the whole life of the king.

In its course many very remarkable things occurred. Among these, I must mention that after the great victory of Crecy, A. D. 1346, Edward laid siege to Calais, then considered as the key to France.

It was important to Edward to gain this place, and he was therefore the more angry to find the governor would not listen to his summons to surrender.

On the contrary, he made every preparation to hold out against Edward, and sent away seventeen hundred of the poorest of the people who could not aid in the defence, and then, drawing up the drawbridge which led into the town, he shut himself in with his soldiers to guard the place.

When Edward saw these poor people turned out, he did not fall upon them with his army, as he easily might; but he gave them all a hearty dinner and two pieces of money each, and let them depart.

He then proceeded to build a little town of wooden houses round Calais, that his army might have comfortable quarters, and that he might prevent the French from sending any provisions into the place ; and he himself sent for food and money from England.

The French king, Philip, was much concerned at the state of his brave governor and soldiers in Calais. He tried by every possible means to furnish them with provisions, for he knew their distress ; several times his banners were seen so near the city, that the poor people within were full of hope of speedy relief.

But Edward guarded all the approaches so closely that there was no escaping his vigilance, and the citizens of Calais had the grief of seeing their friends obliged to retire. Then despair took possession of their hearts, and they sent a messenger to King Edward, offering to give up Calais, if he would spare the people's lives, and allow them an honourable retreat.

Edward, however, was by this time so enraged at their long resistance, that he told them their submission came too late, that they must now prepare themselves to suffer whatever his soldiers pleased when they entered the town.

But his generals and ministers were shocked at such a determination, and entreated him not to allow the innocent citizens to be put to slaughter ; and, after much persuasion, the king agreed that if six of the principal men in the city would come out prepared to submit to death, he would forgive the rest.

When this message was carried back to Calais, every citizen looked at his neighbour, and each asked himself whether he was ready to be among the six.

In this strait, there rose up one rich and generous man, named Eustace St. Pierre, and he stepping forth, nobly said, "My friends, I will be the first to offer myself to die for the rest:" and as soon as he had said the word, others made a like offer, and the number was speedily completed.

Then these six devoted men came out, as Edward had desired, with their heads and feet bare, with the keys of the town in their hands, and with halters round their necks, ready to be hung; and as soon as they had laid the keys at Edward's feet, he ordered them to execution.

The king's general, Sir Walter Manny, grieved at his master's cruelty, begged and prayed him not to sully his victory by such a harsh action. But Edward turned away, refusing to hear him. Happily, his queen, Philippa, who was in the camp, hearing what was passing, came forward, and fell at his feet, weeping, and praying him to spare the lives of these men.

Edward allowed her to speak for some time before he made any answer, but at length he could hold out no longer, and said to her, "I give them to you—do as you please with them."

Then the queen took them to her own tent, and gave them entertainment,—loading them with presents, and finally sending them back to their friends in safety. (Aug. 4, 1347.)

Philip, King of France, died in the midst of

these contests, and his son John succeeded to the throne. Still the countries continued at war; and the conduct of this war was given to King Edward's son, called the Black Prince, because his armour was black, who was one of the most celebrated men of the time. He was brave in war, but the most polite and gentle of knights when the contest was over. He commanded the king his father's army, and, in the great battle of Poitiers, King John was made prisoner.

As soon as the Black Prince heard this news, he took off his helmet, ordered a tent to be pitched on the spot, and desired that the captive king might be brought in.

When he entered, the prince received him with a low obeisance, and offered him a cup of wine; and when supper was served, he himself waited on his royal prisoner, told him that he admired his bravery, and that he doubted not the king his father would show him all honour and friendship.

He continued to treat the French king with every mark of attention, and when it was necessary for him to return to England, and John was to go with him as his captive, still he did every thing to lighten the mortification.

He seated the king on a white courser, with superb trappings, while he himself rode on a little black pony by his side, just as if he had been conducting an honoured guest to his father's capital.

And when they came to London, they were received with all respect by King Edward, and a sumptuous entertainment was provided for



and the Black Prince.

them; and a little time afterwards the Lord Mayor invited the Kings of France and England, and David, the King of Scotland, who was then in London, to dine with him at the Guildhall.

Edward III. had the grief of losing this brave prince not very long afterwards. He died of decline, leaving one little son called Richard: and as King Edward was now aged and near his end, he presented his grandson to the parliament, and he was made Prince of Wales, A.D. 1351. And a grand jubilee or festival was proclaimed over the land, because it was the fiftieth year of Edward's reign.

But alas! the poor king had himself no jubilee: he had fallen into bad health, and was weakened both in body and in mind. In this state of things, an artful woman, named Alice Peers, gained such power over him, that she ruled him wholly, and he feared her, and dared not oppose her wishes. And

though he allowed her every indulgence possible, and much more than she deserved, she behaved to him most unkindly.

The dying king begged to be attended by his confessor, but she even denied him this comfort, pretending that he would soon be better. Well she knew, however, that it would not be so; and when she saw his glazed eyes, and found his voice fail, she pulled off his jewelled rings from his fingers, and left him alone to die.

“Mighty victor, mighty lord,
Low on his funeral couch he lies.”

All his nobles went off to the Prince of Wales, and even his servants deserted him, and pilfered the palace of all they could find.

But a poor priest found his way to the bedside, and seeing that Edward was yet alive, admonished him of his state, and bade him prepare to meet his God.

The dying king had just strength enough left to grasp the crucifix which the priest held out to him, and pressed it to his lips, while the tears ran down his cheeks.

It was a moving thing to see this great conqueror lying thus low upon his death-bed, with no child, nor wife, nor friend, nor servant to close his eyes.

One wonders what thought was then uppermost in his mind, and whether he regretted the long wars and bloodshed which had taken up so large a portion of his life: doubtless he blessed in his heart that one poor priest who had come to

him when all beside had left him ; and he passed away with the tears which he had called forth yet upon his cheeks.

* * * * *

It was now three hundred and eleven years since William the Conqueror subdued England.

Before I say anything about Richard II., I should like to mention some great changes which had taken place.

You know that the first kings of the Norman race were anxious that their English subjects should speak French, and that many schools were founded in which this language was taught ; and all the deeds and writings which the lawyers used were in Norman-French also.

But this French had never become familiar to the ears of the lower orders of the English ; and, fifty years after the Conquest, it was found that they could not understand the preaching of the Norman monks.

When King John lost Normandy, the use of French declined fast, and books written in English multiplied. The Saxon tongue was not indeed the same as before the Conquest ; it was changed and softened, and mixed partly with the Norman, partly with the Latin.

If I were to write down a Saxon sentence, you could not read it : the words are different from those we use now. If I were to put down a sentence in the English of King John's time, you would still find it hard ; and even when you come to the time of King Richard II., (which is the reign we are now approaching in the course

of our history,) there are many words different from our present ones, and most of them spelt differently.

You know the parable of the Prodigal Son, as it is in our Bibles—thus it begins:—“A certain man had two sons, and the youngest said to his father, Father, give me the portion of goods that falleth to me.”

Now that great and good man, Wicliffe, who translated the Bible into English in King Richard the Second's time, when he came to this parable, wrote it thus, in the language of his day,—

“A man hadde *twey* sons, and the yonger of hem seide to the fadir, Fadir, geve me the porcioun of cattel that fallith to me.”

Again, at the end of the parable we have, now, these words: “for this thy brother was dead, and is alive again; was lost, and is found.”

But Wicliffe's English is thus: “for this *thi* bfother was deed, and lyvyde agen; he perisshide, and is foundun.”

This will just serve to show you that the English of former times was not exactly *the* English we now use; and yet it was approaching more and more towards it.

And, in the middle of Edward the Third's reign, about which we have just been reading, an act of parliament was passed, which declared that it was very inconvenient to the lawyers to continue to use French in their courts of justice; for that the people really did not understand it, and that therefore all their causes should henceforth be pleaded in English.

*
 And at the same time the schools n^o longer
 taught French, but taught English instead.

* * * * *
 The other change I wished to mention, concerned the clergy. I told you that monasteries, abbeys, and priories, were inhabited by *monks*, and that monks, though they lived under one roof, were each confined to his separate cell.

These monasteries or abbeys had large landed possessions, and many of them possessed great wealth; but in the year 1215, about the middle of Henry the Third's reign, there rose up an order of people, who were called *friars*, to distinguish them from the monks, and who did not remain often fixed in one place, but travelled about, preaching, and living upon what they could collect.

They were not allowed by the rules of their order to heap up money or lands; but as they soon became very popular, money flowed in upon them fast, and they became very wealthy and ambitious.

As they mixed so much more with the world than the monks, they became better practised in business, and more quick in discerning character than monks; they had also greater opportunities of knowing what discoveries had been made, and what was going on in science or art.

One or two of the cleverest men England has ever seen were *friars*.

These men had no mercy or brotherly feeling for the *monks*. They constantly represented them as lazy, luxurious people; while the monks called

the friars meddling busy-bodies, who were always going about interfering with everybody's concerns.

There was truth in both these charges. The abbots and priors were living in enormous state, and when they appeared in public, no people could vie with them in the splendour of their dress.

"No common knight could go so gay,
Change of clothing every day,
With golden girdles great and small."*

And the friars *were* restless, busy people, too often disturbing family peace, and doing mischief under the appearance, and sometimes the desire, of doing good.

A.D. 1356.—A little before Richard II. began to reign, John Wicliffe, a parish priest at Lutterworth in Leicestershire, having for some time past grieved over the state of religion around him, set himself to examine whether these things were as Christ commanded.

He took up the Scriptures, and read, and thought, and prayed, and the more he did so, the stronger was his belief that the pope, and abbots, and monks, and friars, and people, were all in many ways wrong; and that there would be no means of setting them right until the Scriptures could be readily read by Englishmen in their own tongue.

And, upon this, he set himself diligently to work, and with hard labour made a translation of the Bible into the English then spoken, which

* Chaucer.



you know was neither Saxon nor French, but a sort of mixed and altered tongue ; much more like what we now speak, however, than either of these tongues.

Wicliffe and his followers got the name of Lollards, and the friars' preaching began at once to be little regarded in those places where they were heard ; but people crowded to the sermons preached from the new Scriptures.

Doubtless the pope and clergy were alarmed at the boldness of these men, and many attempts were made to silence Wicliffe ; but he had a powerful friend in Richard the Second's uncle, the Duke of Lancaster, and by his protection was

enabled to write and preach ; and he finally died in peace at his rectory in Lutterworth, in 1384, aged sixty.

It would have been happy for the clergy, and very happy for the people of England, if the clergy had been more willing to amend what was wrong in the church ; but, though many of them were excellent men and pious Christians, they could not get courage to reform themselves, and hence it came about that the work was put off for a long time after Wicliffe's death ; and, meanwhile, many people called Lollards were put to death at different times for denying some of the doctrines of the Papal Church.

Several changes had also taken place in the domestic habits of the English people, during and after the reign of Edward III.

When we looked round the kingdom at the time of Henry the Second's accession to the throne, we glanced first at *the Castle*.

We found it a strongly fortified place, well fitted for defence, but possessing very few comforts, and but poor accommodations for delicate ladies and accomplished gentlemen.

But about the reign of Edward III. the castle became more like a mansion ; it contained several courts, and the inner court was surrounded by spacious apartments ; the hall, the banqueting-room, chapel, and many sleeping-rooms.

The windows were also now large and beautifully ornamented : the keep was a separate building. Among these later built castles was that at Windsor, built by Edward III., and also

Warwick, and Ludlow, and Ragland, and many others.

Here our ancestors used to sit down to their great banquets. The dinner-hour in Edward the Third's time was probably about nine o'clock in the morning, for there were no breakfasts then. Supper was served between three and four, and the castle gates were shut at eight.

But in the reign of Richard II., to which we are now coming, breakfasts appeared again; bread, and wine, and beer, boiled beef, herrings, brawn, and mustard.

Richard II. kept two thousand cooks; and when he celebrated his Christmas at Westminster-Hall, the daily consumption was twenty-eight oxen, and three hundred sheep, besides fowls without number.

What is very curious in the account of the feastings of that day, is the great pains that was taken to make everything look as showy and grand as possible.

Thus, some instructions to the cook direct that, "when a pig is roasted, there should be laid athwart him always one bar of silver foil, and another of gold, and he should be served all whole at the board of my lord."

They were extremely fond of making devices called "subtleties," for the table; jellies, pastry, and so on, worked out into figures of saints, patriarchs, and sometimes even of angels.

A very grand middle dish was a peacock, which had been skinned, (the feathers, &c. remaining on the skin,) then the bird was roasted and basted

with yolks of eggs, and when it was done enough, the skin and feathers were put on again, and so it was set on the table.

Through a great part of the year, however, the gentry lived chiefly on salt meat.

As yet chimneys were little known; in the houses of the common people, indeed, they were not in use till long afterwards. But it must be noticed that the English of that day appear to have been a hardier race than we are.

They do not seem, in common cases, to have thought of a fire for anything but necessary cooking, except in very severe weather.

As a proof of the hardy way in which young men were brought up, we may mention that at Oxford no fire was allowed the students till after the reign of Henry VIII.

The students used to sup at eight o'clock, then study till nine in winter, and then take a run for half-an-hour to warm themselves before they went to bed.

It was during this reign and the following that old Geoffrey Chaucer, one of the fathers of English poetry, lived; and his writings did much to advance the study and improvement of our language. His works were numerous and beautiful, and, though often coarse, may still be read with pleasure and interest in detached portions: he was born A.D. 1328, and died A.D. 1400.



RICHARD II. 1377—1399.

KING RICHARD II., though only eleven years old when he came to the crown, had been brought up among tournaments and gay spectacles, and like Edward II. had been early spoiled by flattery and prosperity.

His faults were of the same character as those of that king; like him he had many weak, unworthy followers, whom he indulged to his own and people's hurt.

The city of London was full of revelry when the young king entered it for the first time after the death of his grandfather. The city fountains, instead of giving out water, were made to flow with wine; and as Richard halted in Cheapside, four beautiful maidens in white filled each a

golden cup at the precious fountains, and offered the drink to him and his lords.

Every street offered some new and splendid show; the glory of Edward III. seemed forgotten, and only the boy-king before them to be thought of.

Next year he was crowned; and then again shows took place, and wine of four different sorts was made to flow through public channels for all who chose to partake and be merry.

But graver counsellors and the calculating Commons began to express their fears that so profuse a government would be an oppressive one; and they determined to look closely into affairs, and not allow the poorer people to be taxed merely to supply wasteful extravagance.

The young king was the greatest fop in the most foppish court England ever saw. He had a coat alone that cost 30,000 marks, probably from the quantity of precious stones with which it was embroidered, for this was the fashion of the day; and mottoes, and letters, and leaves, and flowers, were worked on the borders of the dresses.

The king is drawn in one of the old pictures of the time in a robe covered all over with roses.

Party-coloured robes, and even stockings, were also much worn, half the garment being of one colour, half of another.

The clergy were grander even than other men, riding, glittering with gold, on high horses, with gowns of scarlet and green, and long peaked shoes. Sometimes they carried broad bucklers and long swords, and many priests had mitres on their

heads, set with pearls, and a staff of gold in their hands.

Edward III. had left a legacy of war to his people: they had now fortresses in France to maintain, and an army to keep what the king had got; and it was soon found that these required large sums of money. So that, though the parliament had voted handsome supplies immediately after the coronation, they were quickly applied to again: they voted more money both this and the next year.

But when Richard's chancellor came again the year after, the house answered that, "if their lord the king had been well and reasonably governed in his expenses, he would not have needed to have taxed his poor Commons thus."

However, they raised some supplies of money; but when the chancellor told them not long afterwards that he must have 160,000*l.* more, they said it was "most outrageous and insupportable."

Thus things went on. Every year the king wanted more and more money, and every year the people liked less to give it.

A lower order of persons than had ever been taxed before were now taxed. Twelve pence (worth much more in that time than in ours) was demanded from every male and female, of every condition, who had passed the age of fifteen years.

This was resisted as a most vexatious imposition, and the insulting conduct of the tax-gatherers incensed the people still more against the government. They were not angry with *the king*:

they did not think, being so young, that he was so much to blame as his ministers ; and when they came to open revolt, they still swore fidelity to Richard and the Commons.

Many of these men were followers of Wicliffe ; but, as happens in all popular tumults, a vast number of persons joined them who had no idea of anything but of making a riot.

A. D. 1381.—Large bodies of people, commanded by a man named Wat Tyler, went up to London ; and they sent a message to King Richard, begging to have an audience of him.

Some of Richard's best counsellors would fain have had him go, for they thought the sight of the king, and his ready and early hearing their demands, would have pacified them.

But the proud Archbishop of Canterbury, the chancellor, and the treasurer, would not hear of it, and called the people "shoeless ribalds ;" which contemptuous speech coming to the ears of the men, they swore vengeance on the archbishop.

It was in an evil hour for himself that he gave the king such advice, for, not long after, the mob seized him and the treasurer, who were in the Tower together, and beheaded them on the spot.

Still further, they proceeded to the Savoy palace, belonging to the Duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, where they burned the dwelling and all the splendid furniture, getting drunk with the wines, and committing every possible outrage.

The king had, meanwhile, granted them all reasonable demands : but being now too much elated with their success to be easily satisfied,

they required more favours from him ; and, accordingly, a meeting at Smithfield was appointed between himself, his knights, and the leaders of the mob.

Wat Tyler, stepping forward, then begged that all the lawyers might be beheaded ; and while he was insisting on this and other such demands, he kept playing with a dagger.

Some who stood round, either thought or pretended that he was going to strike the king with it, especially as he suddenly seized the bridle of Richard's horse.

And at that moment, Walworth, the Lord Mayor of London, alarmed for his sovereign, seized a weapon and darted it at Tyler's throat, while another person followed up the blow.

Wat Tyler died almost immediately, and the mob, seeing him fall, set up shouts of vengeance, and bent their bows, ready to shoot the king's party.

But young King Richard, who at this moment seemed to be inspired with the spirit and bravery of a man, rode instantly towards them, exclaiming, "What are ye doing, my liege men? Will ye kill your king? Be not sorrowful for your leader, seeing he was a traitor and knave. I myself will be your captain and leader : follow me."

This address astonished the mob ; and the chief men among them readily following the king, he put himself at the head of the whole, and in that order led them quite out of the city into the fields.

Meanwhile, the mayor collected a strong armed

force, and rode after his royal master ; and when the mob saw so formidable a body coming upon them, having no leader or discipline, they threw down their arms, and fled in every direction.

The good-natured king, after having so far succeeded, would not allow his followers to pursue them ; and they were not punished until after the meeting of parliament, when about two hundred and eighty-five of them, who were supposed to be particularly guilty,* were made examples of, and the rest freely pardoned.

Thus Richard the Second's reign soon became troubled, and grave difficulties crowded upon him. The Commons, who by the law of the realm were justified in remonstrating against his ministers, now set themselves steadily to oppose their illegal acts.

The king was reported to have remarked upon this, that he would not remove the lowest scullion in his kitchen to please them ; but the Lords and Commons uniting together, he was obliged to give way, and dismiss his chancellor : so that from these and other instances of the firmness of the Commons, we learn how different was now the state of England from what it had been a century before, when the Barons only had the power.

Eight years passed away in continual quarrels ; and though the king sought to amuse the court and people with a magnificent tournament, and with many other splendid sights, he could not regain the confidence of his parliament.

* Of these 151 were Londoners, 23 Middlesex, 20 Suffolk, 17 Norfolk men, &c.—*Turner's England*.

But the worst among his actions was the murder of his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, whom he cruelly betrayed into an ambush which he had himself planned for him, and caused him to be conveyed to Calais and killed.

His excuse for this wicked act was, that the duke meant to murder *him*. From this time he was justly regarded as a tyrant, and took the precautions of one; being always guarded by two hundred bowmen wherever he went.

It was not long after this act that he banished two noblemen, one the Duke of Norfolk, and the other Henry of Lancaster, his uncle's son.

People began to say, "The wicked King Richard will spoil everything. Since he took the throne, nothing has prospered in England. He minds only idleness, dissipation, and collecting treasures. He has killed Gloucester and Arundel, banished Henry of Lancaster, and the Percys: soon there will not be a valiant man left in England. Henry of Lancaster ought to be invited here to reform the government. Richard should be sent to the Tower."*

So said the people: and they agreed to apply to Henry, who was in France. The Archbishop of Canterbury went over to confer with him, and describing the state of England, begged him to return.

Henry did not immediately reply, but pondered upon the matter; and after consulting his friends, several of whom were banished as well as

* Froissart.

himself, he agreed to make the attempt, bringing over with him 60,000 men.

King Richard was, unluckily for himself, in Ireland at this time, and the news of Henry of Lancaster's arrival in Yorkshire reached him there. Some of his counsellors advised him immediately to return; but one of them recommended him to delay, and send the Earl of Salisbury over first.

He did so: but, before he could follow, Salisbury's soldiers had most of them deserted and gone over to Henry; and when Richard at length reached Conway castle in Wales, where he and his few remaining followers were stationed, the contest had become a hopeless one.

King Richard's grief and despair were violent; he broke out into passionate exclamations, and particularly mourned over his separation from his queen. Richard, young as he was, had been twice married. His first wife was generally called "The good Queen Anne," and was everywhere beloved. His present wife was one of the King of France's daughters; and those who were with the king could not help being touched by the violence of his sorrow when he dwelt upon the thought of her.

"Oh," said he, "my mistress, my consort, little does that man love us, who thus separates us. Oh, my fair sister, my lady! robbed of the pleasure of beholding thee, pain and affliction oppress my heart."

' But all this availed nothing. He was soon made prisoner by Henry's friends, and carried to Flint castle, where the Archbishop of Canterbury

met him, and gave him such comfort as he could, telling him his life was safe, though not his crown.

Henry himself shortly followed : “ Fair cousin of Lancaster,” said Richard as he entered, “ welcome !” The duke bowing, answered, “ My Lord, I am come home sooner than you looked for ; the reason whereof is, that common report says, for twenty or twenty-two years you have very badly governed the people. But, if it please our Lord, I will help you to govern them better.” To which Richard answered, “ Fair cousin, if it pleases you, it pleases us——”

The duke then called in a loud voice for the horses, and immediately two miserable animals were brought out, one for the king, the other for Salisbury ; and so they rode to Chester, the common people mocking the unhappy king ; and while all cheered the duke, none said, “ God bless King Richard.”

The persons whom Henry appointed to have the charge of Richard were of all others likely to use him ill, for they were the sons of the Duke of Gloucester and Earl of Arundel, whom Richard had put to death : and this was a most ungenerous use of triumph.

At that time of day, when all travelling was on horseback, people were long in performing a journey, and the progress of the captive king was tedious and distressing.

At Lichfield he nearly succeeded in escaping from his guardians ; he *had* actually proceeded so far as to slide from the window of the tower where

he rested for the night, into the garden; but just at that moment a sentinel came by, and he was carried back into his room, laden with abuse and reproach.

From that time greater precaution was observed; and there were never fewer than ten or twelve armed men in his chamber. When at length the monarch reached London, the cry of all the people still was, "The good Duke of Lancaster for ever!" while Richard was deserted by all his friends.

The parliament assembled, and unanimously voted that Richard be required to resign; and when the question was put, whether Lancaster should be king instead, the answer was favourable. Yet Henry of Lancaster was *not* the next of kin, and therefore had no proper claim to the crown.

But the people were taken almost by surprise, and Lancaster was popular among them. They willingly agreed to receive him as king, and Richard was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment at the early age of thirty-one, after reigning twenty years.

He died on the 14th of February in the following year, at Pomfret castle, but was buried in Westminster Abbey.

The House of Lancaster.



HENRY IV. 1399—1413.

AND here began the reign of the house of Lancaster ; its first king being Henry IV.

We have seen that Henry delivered the English from the tyranny of Richard II. ; he was himself a tolerably just monarch, excepting on one point, and that a very important one. It was in the reign of Henry IV. that religious persecution in England was first established by law.

In the second year of this reign a law was passed, ordering heretics to be burnt ; a statute the more disgraceful, because the king's father had been the great friend and favourer of Wicliffe,

and he himself had been known to maintain some of his opinions.

But Henry was an usurper : he did not feel himself secure on the throne, and he bargained for support from the clergy by promising to be the persecutor of the Lollards.

The Commons thinking the statute too severe, begged it might be changed or softened ; but they were answered that it ought rather to be more harsh. From this they passed to some remarks upon the clergy, when the king interposing, at once forbade them to discuss such questions.

Henry IV. was a sedate, serious man, very devout in his habits, and during his latter years his mind was much impressed with the desire to go on a crusade to the Holy Land.

But time was not allowed him for this. He fell into bad health, was subject to epileptic fits, and sometimes was so entirely bereft of sense or motion, that he was believed to be dead.

On one of these occasions, his son Henry, being told that his father was no more, came into the room, and seeing the crown on a cushion near the bed, carried it away. The king, shortly after, revived, and, missing the crown, was told the prince had taken it.

He called his son, and said, with a sigh, " My fair son, what right had you to it ? You know that *I* had none."

" My Lord," answered Henry, " you won it by your sword, and it is my intent to hold and defend it so, during my life."

The king answered, " Well, as you see best.

I leave all things to God, and pray that he would have mercy upon me.”

And shortly after, without uttering another word, he expired, in the fourteenth year of his reign.

Second King of the House of Lancaster.



HENRY V. 1413—1422.

WHEN Henry V. was young, he was fond of the society of gay, riotous men, who led him into all sorts of pranks; and so he came to be called Mad-cap Harry; and the people of England were somewhat afraid that, when he came to the crown, he would not give his mind to the duties of a king.

He often gave his father pain ; and as Henry IV. declined in health, he used to look forward with uneasiness to his son's future career.

Once it happened that the prince and his followers got into great disgrace on account of their having in a frolic disguised themselves like robbers, and, attacking some travellers, robbed them of their money.

But the travellers they had robbed followed them at a distance, and brought the sheriff upon them while they were all eating and drinking merrily in a tavern ; and when these men found it was the Prince of Wales they were much amazed.

Still they could do no less than carry them before the judge ; and the judge, who was an honest upright man, told the prince that he was very sorry for what had happened, and must commit all the party to prison, except himself, and that though he would not send *him* there, he must inform the king of his conduct.

This put the prince in such a passion that he struck the judge as he sat on the bench, upon which the judge instantly committed him to prison.

You might suppose, perhaps, that this judge would fare the worse ever after ; but, on the contrary, the king applauded his justice, and Prince Henry heartily forgave him, and always paid him the greatest deference and respect.

From the time Prince Henry came to the crown, he had the wisdom to dismiss all his idle, dissolute favourites. He did not, like Richard II., seem to think that the people were made for *him* ;

that because he was born a king, his life was to be all festivity and pleasure; but, with a stedfast and prompt purpose, he turned himself at once to the business of his station.

Unfortunately, however, his notions of what a king's part should be were mistaken ones; he imagined that to maintain the foreign conquests of former kings was his great duty; and taking Edward III. for his model, he resolved to reconquer France, nay, if possible, to be king of the French.

One of the French princes, who had only heard of him as Mad-cap Harry, and thus had been led to entertain a poor opinion of him as a king or warrior, affected to be much amused at the idea of *his* claiming the crown of France, and, in derision, sent him a present of some tennis-balls, in order to show his opinion that Henry was only fit to play at such games as these. Henry answered that he would soon send him some London balls, which would knock his house about his ears. And he kept his word.

The clergy of this period were too generally the promoters of war. In time of peace they had found that the people had leisure to turn their minds to inquire into the doctrines and discipline of the Church; and they dreaded this, seeing the unsettled state of mind produced among their flocks.

They knew also that the king would be glad to use the wealth of the Church for his own objects, and they were more willing to give it him themselves for the purposes of foreign war, than to

have it taken wholly from them under pretext of reforming their abuses.

As for the parliament and people, their notions of the glory of a kingdom were those of their age: they were willing to pay very dear for the sake of the empty fame of carrying their conquests into foreign lands.

France, meantime, was in a divided state. The king, a man of unsound mind, was governed by the Duke of Orleans, his brother; and a haughty, ambitious cousin, the Duke of Burgundy, having quarrelled with Orleans, caused him to be waylaid and murdered, and got himself possession of the king's person.

Then ensued war between the son of the Duke of Orleans and this Duke of Burgundy; while the helpless king was sometimes in the power of Burgundy, sometimes in that of Orleans.

The king's son, however, the Dauphin of France, was a warlike man, and defended his father and his crown very valiantly against Burgundy; but still the contest between them raged on, when suddenly Henry V. of England put forward his claim to the crown.

Transporting his army from Southampton to Harfleur, a place of great importance, and strongly fortified, he took it, after a desperate siege of thirty-eight days; but it cost him a great portion of his brave army. The country round was marshy and unwholesome, and disease, spreading through the camp, destroyed numbers of the best soldiers.

He had, however, gained a very important

advantage in securing this place, which would at any time afford him a passage into France; and this being achieved, his wisest course would have been to return to England for a season, in order to recruit his suffering army.

But this was out of his power; he had dismissed the vessels which brought his troops over; or, at all events, they had been unable to keep their post near Harfleur. And now he would willingly have sacrificed his conquest for the sake of obtaining the means of making a safe passage to Calais, still in the hands of the English.

But the French commander, feeling his own army to be strong and vigorous, and relying on Henry's exhausted state, refused any terms of accommodation, and the king valiantly resolved to force his way through a hostile country and the ranks of a powerful foe.

His army, reduced to little more than one-half its numbers, began this hazardous march in the early part of October, and advancing cautiously, at first proceeded without much obstruction.

The French, four times as numerous as the English, at length formed in one great body on the plains of Agincourt, and Henry saw that they must either fight their way and conquer, or die.

There was no longer time to draw back. They had entered France rashly, and, as all true lovers of peace must feel, most wrongfully. They had entered a neighbour's country, to ruin its cities, lay waste its fields, put women and children to the sword, and all under the name of GLORY.

But the evil enterprise was begun, and there

was no sacrificing the lives of all these brave soldiers without a struggle.

Whatever may be thought of Henry's unwarrantable daring, and even cruelty, in exposing his army to such danger, the battle of Agincourt must always be regarded as one of the most remarkable battles ever fought.



Battle of Agincourt.

It lasted only three hours; but it ended in the total defeat of the French. So admirably had Henry placed his small army between two woods, which defended him on each side, that his loss was comparatively small, while the French lost the flower of their nobility,—the Constable of France, the Admiral, the Royal Dukes of Berri and Alençon, and many others, besides about ten thousand men.

All this slaughter to gratify the ambition of a

king, and no object gained but that of an easy passage to Calais! Yet is there no denying Henry the praise of the most dauntless bravery and skill; neither can we help admiring his presence of mind, and the generosity and modesty of his demeanour after the victory.

The people of England, meanwhile, thought the honour of this great victory quite enough to repay them for all its hazards and expenses; and cordial was the welcome their valiant king received when he landed at Dover, and proceeded to London.

The Lord Mayor and twenty-eight aldermen in their scarlet gowns, and twenty thousand of the citizens on horseback, in red, with hoods of red-and-white, went to meet him at Blackheath, carrying all sorts of banners with fanciful devices.

And when the king reached London Bridge, an immense statue was seen, bearing the likeness of his majesty, having a great battle-axe in the right hand, and the keys of the city in the left.

And on the other side was a female figure, scarcely less in size, in a purple robe and womanly ornaments, intended to represent the wife of the other figure,—which seemed a curious fancy, as the king was not at that time married.

A thousand showy fancies and devices met his eyes at every turn, and “Welcome, Henry the Fifth, King of England and of France,” sounded in his ears. The roofs and windows were crowded with gay ladies, the footways thronged with the lower people, and the whole city was in an uproar of joy.

But what of all this? Spring came, and the English expected something would have followed from the victory of the year before. Henry, however, stayed quietly at home for two years; but, at the end of that time, the internal dissensions of France still continuing, he again invaded that country; and having taken several of the chief towns, the French king's ministers found themselves obliged to make peace with him to prevent entire ruin.

It was then agreed that Henry should marry Charles's daughter, Katherine; that while Charles lived he should be called Regent of France, and that when he died, Henry should be king in his stead.

Of course the Dauphin, Charles's son, did not approve of this treaty. He had no inclination to lose his father's dominions, and he still therefore remained opposed to Henry, who, however, married Katherine, and carried her to London, where she was soon after crowned.

There was much to admire in the character of Henry V. when we consider the disadvantages of the time in which he lived. He was very kind to the poor, and firmly maintained justice; hence the poor everywhere loved him.

He would not suffer his noblemen and gentlemen to trample on them; and even while in France, in a hostile country, he was so careful of the lower classes, that they suffered much less by his followers than by their own nobles.

Thus, though a foreigner and usurper, he was really popular in France. But he did not escape

the bigoted notions and practices of his time, and considered that no better atonement could be made for sins than the persecution of heretics and Lollards.

He even personally attended at the burning of one for heresy. He took infinite pains to convert this offender, and was extremely distressed at his obstinacy, arguing with him with all his might. But when he found it was all in vain, and that the poor man persisted in his belief, he left him to his fate, and afterwards he exerted himself very actively in suppressing other Lollards, many of whom were hardly dealt with.

But Henry's own end drew near. He was now thirty-six, in the prime of life, and in good health, when the Dauphin of France having taken up a very strong position against him, Henry thought it right to pay a visit to Paris with his queen.

From thence he marched with an army against the Dauphin, but on the road was taken ill of a disorder, which continually weakening him, and being neglected in his eagerness to pursue his conquests, brought him to his end on the 31st of August, 1422, leaving his queen and infant son to the care of his brother, the Duke of Bedford.

His embalmed body was placed in a funeral car, and sent from France for interment in Westminster Abbey. The whole way to Calais it was attended by persons dressed in white, carrying lighted torches, and walking on each side the car, while the queen, and many princes, nobles, and clergy, followed.

Wherever it rested, rows of priests were ready with their masses and requiems for the soul of the departed king.



Tomb of Henry V

At Calais, it was embarked on board a vessel for Dover, and in London the body of Henry was

received with the deepest grief, and committed to the tomb amid the tears of his subjects, who had so lately welcomed him with delight.

Many there were, doubtless, who had been estranged by his religious persecutions ; but still the body of the people loved him, and as much honour and reverence was daily paid to his tomb as if he had been a saint.

The tomb of Henry V. in Westminster Abbey is still a beautiful and impressive memorial of him, and there hang the casque and helmet, the shield and the war-saddle, which the hero used at Agincourt.



HENRY VI. 1422.

THE babe whom the warlike Henry V. had left behind to rule over his kingdoms, was, at the time of his father's death, only nine months old.

Two months had scarcely passed, before this child's grandfather, the King of France, also died. It had been settled, when the late King Henry married the daughter of this king, that he should succeed to the throne of France after the death of his father-in-law; and although *he* was dead, his brothers, who had the care of young Henry, were determined not to lose for him so great an honour as that of being King of France.

They therefore proclaimed him king on the day of his grandfather's funeral, and his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, was made Regent of France and Governor in the name of his nephew Henry.

But the son of the late King of France would not submit to give up all his father's dominions to an English infant, and *he* was also proclaimed king under the title of Charles VII.

Then a long and bloody struggle ensued in France between the English and French; little Henry's French mother, meanwhile, who had no great love for the English, being obliged to live in England among strangers, while her late husband's subjects were fighting with her brother and countrymen in France: but afterwards she married a Welsh gentleman named Tudor, and was the grandmother of Henry VII.

The poor king's childhood was a miserable one. His uncle Gloucester, and the Bishop of Winchester, had many quarrels, and he was dragged about first by one party, then by another, as each had the power. Meanwhile, the war in France continued. His uncles had plunged him into this war, and were determined to fight for the

possession of this kingdom while there was the least chance of subduing it.

In the course of the contest, they obtained possession of Paris, and next were intent on the conquest of the large and important town of Orleans, which, if gained, would be of material advantage to the English. Early, therefore, in the year 1428, the Earl of Salisbury was instructed to lay siege to this place.

But the citizens of Orleans were brave and resolute; they gathered together provisions for their support, and laid waste the neighbouring country, that it might not supply the wants of their enemies.

Salisbury, on his side, proceeded steadily with the siege, making himself master of several of the nearest towns, and pitching his camp so as to cut off the French king's communication with Orleans.

It was difficult to say which party performed the most daring deeds: the women of Orleans were particularly heroic in the defence of their city; they carried weapons, and fruit, and wine to their fainting countrymen, dressed their wounds, and some of them even stood on the wall of the city, and when the English placed ladders against it and tried to mount, they pushed them down, or threw stones upon them.

In one of the assaults made against the city, Salisbury was struck by a stone and killed on the spot. Then the Duke of Suffolk took the command, with Lord Talbot, who was a brave general and an excellent man.

The poor besieged men of Orleans had little rest. The English were constantly attacking first one part of the town, then another; the sound of the great bell of the city was continually calling the citizens hither and thither to defend some important post. Thus the siege had continued for five months, and the brave commander of the garrison found it would be vain to expect it should hold out much longer. He now, therefore, agreed with the citizens that he would give up the town to the Duke of Burgundy, to hold it in pledge till it should be seen whether Henry VI. or Charles VII. was to be the monarch of France: then of course it would belong to the conqueror.

But the English rejected this proposal, and pressed the siege so vigorously, that Orleans was reduced to the greatest distress and misery; yet the people's spirit increased with the danger, and they all vowed to defend themselves to their last breath.

And now appeared, to strengthen their courage and give them timely aid, a most extraordinary personage, whose history deserves another chapter.

JOAN OF ARC; OR, THE MAID OF ORLEANS.

There dwelt in a little country village in the province of Champagne in France, a poor peasant girl, named Joan of Arc. Her father was a small farmer, and both he and his wife were pious, simple, honest persons, very much respected. They had three sons and two daughters.

Joan, who was one of the latter, was taught

very little. She could neither read nor write. She learned by rote the Lord's Prayer and the Creed, and used to go to mass, and confess to the priest. She could sew and spin well.

Everybody said she was well-behaved, modest, and industrious; she was charitable too, and loved to visit the sick poor; she was dutiful to her parents, and always shunned bad company.

She was singularly grave and devout. She was not like the greater part of the villagers, fond of dancing and singing; but while they were amusing themselves thus, she used to steal into the church, and offer her devotions.

She was sometimes found all alone, kneeling before the image of our Saviour, or of the Virgin Mary. When she kept her father's sheep, if she heard the bell for worship sounding at a distance, she would fall on her knees in the meadows, and pray amid her flock.

In other respects she was like the rest of the young people of her station: she used to work in the fields with her father and brothers, pulling up weeds, or breaking clods of earth, or making hay, or leading the cattle to pasture.

At home, she spun hemp or wool, or did whatever was required in the family. It was said she was so kind and gentle that she tamed every one who came near her, and that the very birds would feed out of her hand.

She was dotingly fond of her native land; and, as she grew older, mourned deeply at the distractions which reigned in it. Though her native village was so retired, yet she constantly saw the

young men taken away to fight the battles of the nation, and she heard on their return all they had to tell of the struggle between France and England: this made her think much of the dishonour of France, and continually meditate on the danger which threatened it.

Gradually she began to fancy that she was destined to do something in its behalf. She thought she heard a voice speaking to her, and dictating a message to the French king. Her mind, there can be no doubt, was disordered, and she continually fancied that saints and angels appeared to her, ordering her to obey them.

She often mounted her father's horses when she took them out to water, and used to manage them with great skill, and sometimes she practised exercises with a spear, as if to fit herself for a warlike life.

Time passed till she was about eighteen. She was well made, and handsome: her voice very sweet and pleasing, and her language full of grace and gentleness.

Her father was not told of the idea which possessed her mind: but hints fell from her at times, and her young companions remembered an old saying in the country, that "France would one day be delivered by a virgin."

At length, arrived at the age just mentioned, she went to the lord of the village, and told him that she must see the king: but as he mocked her, and would not believe in her visions, she made up her mind to put on male attire, and go to court by herself on foot.

While settling this with herself, she met with a neighbouring gentleman, to whom she told her intentions, and he, being very much struck with her earnestness, told her he would go with her. When he had decided on this, others were led to pay more attention to her, and she was all at once regarded as a person of great and extraordinary importance.

Persons presented themselves, and undertook to unite in escorting her to the king. They procured horses, and Joan, in man's attire, rode on one of these. The way was full of danger, as war prevailed in the country; but her escort guarded her safely, and after eleven days she arrived at a place called Chinon, where the French king was.

Though she had influence enough over these gentlemen to persuade them to escort her, they were by no means at ease about the event of so strange an adventure: sometimes she seemed to them mad, and sometimes an impostor: they were greatly puzzled; yet they said she behaved so well, so devoutly, and blamelessly, that they could not, on the whole, believe her to be deceiving them.

When the Maid reached the end of her journey, the French king was found to be in a state of great peril and distress. He had hardly any supplies, and was even proposing to fly from France, and leave everything to the English.

His counsellors would not at first admit Joan to his presence. They asked her what she wanted. She said she must speak to Charles himself. They pressed her further. Then she told them that her

errand was to deliver the city of Orleans, and to conduct him to Rheims to be crowned: for as yet he had not been crowned at this place, which was the usual place of coronation for the French kings.

Some of the council decided that the king ought to see her, others were of a different opinion; but Charles determined at all events to detain her, while he sent messengers to inquire somewhat of her history and character in her native village.

As they could learn nothing unfavourable, it was at length resolved that she should be admitted to see and speak to the king. The time fixed upon was after dinner, when many lights were blazing in the royal hall, and full three hundred gay knights and nobles were present.

Some of these were more richly dressed than the king, and they stepped before him in order to deceive her, and make her address the wrong person; but she went straight up to him, embraced his knees, and said, "Gentle king! God grant you a long life!" He pointed to another, as if to show that *that* was the king, but she would not be deceived.

The king then retired and conversed with her for some time, and declared himself inclined to think that she was sent to his assistance by Heaven; yet he allowed her to be further examined by his counsellors and parliament, that he might be sure he could lawfully accept her services.

As the people of those days were generally believers in sorcery or witchcraft, they did not so

much question whether Joan was possessed of supernatural powers, as whether these powers were given her by evil spirits or good.

For three weeks she was kept in uncertainty as to whether her offers of service would be accepted; and during that time she persisted in the same story. At last it was settled she should go to Orleans; and Charles gave her a suit of armour.



Joan of Arc entering Orleans.

A standard was made for her use according to her own directions: on it was a figure of the Blessed Saviour, seated on his tribunal on the clouds, while two angels knelt before him.

She then drew up and sent before her a written summons, ordering the English generals and governors to depart out of France, announcing that they should be slain if they disobeyed. •

Of course, they derided this summons, but it was soon found that Joan of Arc was not an enemy to be despised. She set off immediately

for Orleans, which was suffering the miseries of war and famine, and, entering the city late at evening, was welcomed by the besieged with all possible honour and acclamation; her standard floated before her; and, mounted on a white charger, and dressed in her new armour, she entered the gates.

There is not a more puzzling character, it would seem, in history than that of Joan of Arc. Some writers insist that she was a vile impostor, only anxious to gain fame for herself.

But it seems more likely that she really was insane; that she had thought about the danger of France till she persuaded herself she had a call to save it; believing probably, even before this, that saints in heaven were permitted to converse with the faithful on earth, and that she was a person favoured by them from her early youth; and, as time went on, finding success crown her career, she grew more and more confident and enthusiastic.

The first day after her entrance into Orleans was spent in making the soldiers and people acquainted with her. She spoke to many, taking upon herself the authority of an inspired leader; and being near enough to be heard by the English, she addressed some of them also, and alarmed them by her gestures and commanding tones.

The effect of her presence was soon visible. The English, believing her to be more than mortal, were dispirited, and the French were elated.

In the middle of the night, an affray having taken place between part of the French and

English armies, the French were running back into the city, wounded and beaten, when Joan appeared, rallied them, and persuaded them to sally from the town and attack one of the besiegers' forts, which they carried, and then returned in triumph. This first success emboldened them. Other and much greater victories followed. As long as the French saw the Maid of Orleans' standard, they were assured of conquest, and the English trembled as they gazed upon it.

On one occasion, the Maid, being wounded by an arrow, fell from her horse; the pain made her shed tears, and for a few moments her followers were disheartened: but, after the wound had been dressed, she went again into the battle, and rescued her standard, which was about to fall into the hands of the English.

In the space of five days, the French, directed by her, destroyed nearly all the besiegers' works; and the English army, which had been occupied for seven months before this city, and which was just about to complete its conquest, was driven disgracefully away by the power and influence of a young peasant girl.

You may imagine how Joan of Arc was now honoured by the French, and how dreaded and hated by the English. She grew bolder and bolder. Not only was Orleans delivered by her means, but other fortresses and towns surrendered to her. She captured Lord Talbot and Lord Scales, the English generals; and the English Regent in Paris trembled for his master's throne.

The Maid next announced to Charles, that the

time was come for him to be crowned in Rheims, as she had predicted ; and though this place, which was the town where all the French kings were usually crowned, was then in the hands of the English, they deserted it as she approached, while the French inhabitants invited Charles to enter : and there, the day after his arrival, (July 19, 1429,) he was crowned.

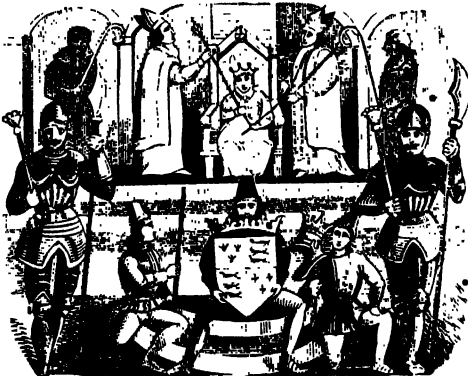
And now Joan was raised to the rank of nobility, and permitted to enjoy all the privileges of noble birth. If ambition had been her object, it certainly might now have been gratified ; and had she now retired to her quiet village, all ages would have perhaps regarded her as the deliverer of France ; nothing would have clouded her glory, and, at a distance, her sagacity and counsels might have been of service to the royal cause.

But, still following the course of the war, she persisted in accompanying the army, and directing the generals how to act ; exposing herself in every combat, and though again severely wounded, still unsubdued.

The following spring, Henry VI. was brought by his guardians to Paris, where they thought it right to crown *him* also king of France, in order that the people might not make, out of the want of this ceremony, an excuse for withdrawing that allegiance which he claimed in right of his father.

But now the fortunes of the Maid of Orleans were to change. She had thrown herself into the city of Compiègne, besieged by the English and the Duke of Burgundy, and had resolved to assist in defending it to the last moment. Her zeal,

however, carried her further than defence : she sallied out, accompanied by six hundred men, from the gates of the city to attack the besiegers, and, trusting as usual to the effect of her presence, went splendidly attired in a purple silk tunic, broided with gold and silver, which she wore over her armour.



Henry VI. crowned King of France.

Three times repulsed by the English, her followers began to fly. She remained, when the enemy seeing her almost alone, and knowing the importance of such a prize, fought desperately to reach her. Still she kept her standard in one hand, while with the other she wielded her sword and kept off some of her foes.

She reached the bridge leading into the city, but it was crowded with fugitives, and, unable to make her way over it, she was left alone. In

this state a soldier seized her tunic, and dragging her off her horse, she was immediately taken prisoner.

Little chance had the Maid of experiencing mercy at the hands of those who had captured her. It was not merely that she had been a valiant enemy. Her claims to be sent by Heaven, and to have power given her by the spirits above, made it incumbent on the Church to take part with the army in the proceedings against her.

I have before said that there prevailed, in those days, a general belief in witchcraft; it was believed, that wicked people had intercourse with devils, who gave them power over the souls and bodies of other men; and this sad belief led to acts of dreadful cruelty, for, if a person was suspected of witchcraft, no torment was reckoned too great to be applied for the detection or punishment of such. Even in much later times, if an old woman was thought rather odd in her appearance, or lived much alone, she was often suspected of dealings with the devil; and the neighbours thought it lawful to half-drown her, or to prick her with pins, till she was nearly killed, in order to make her confess her guilt.

Joan of Arc lived in dark days; and the wonderful actions she had performed, and her high pretensions to see and talk with angels and saints, formed a strong plea for those who, after having suffered from her enmity, now saw her in their power.

She made several attempts to escape from confinement, and being shut up in a castle, she

one day leaped from the top of a high tower, and fell down senseless, but was not killed. After this, she was more closely guarded; being put into a prison at Rouen, where her feet and legs were fastened by a chain to her bedstead: and here she was treated very harshly by the English, who all regarded her as a witch and an outcast, having no claim to the offices of common humanity.

Her English and French captors were alike relentless. Bishops, cardinals, and inquisitors, united in judgment against her, and agreed in condemning her to be burned alive as a witch or sorceress.

No one pleaded in her behalf: the ungrateful King of France, whose throne and kingdom she had saved, appears to have left her quietly to her fate. When brought to the stake, indeed, her sufferings, and the steady conviction she still expressed that all she had done was by the order of Heaven, softened many hearts; but no one interposed; and Joan of Arc, the heroic deliverer of France, was put to this cruel death in Rouen, at the age of only twenty. It was said that her father and her eldest brother died of grief at her fate.

So ends the history of the Maid of Orleans, of which it is hard to say how much is to be received as that of one deluded by ambition, or one inspired by a high feeling of loyalty, who conceived herself actually sent for the deliverance of her country.

She was, at all events, one of the most extraordinary beings that ever appeared on earth; and though such a being would probably never spring

up in an advanced state of society, yet it is remarkable to find in a character formed under such disadvantages as hers, such rare powers, combined with such a singleness of purpose, and a conduct so blameless.

HENRY THE SIXTH (CONTINUED).

We must now resume the History of Henry VI. I told you that he had been brought to Paris by his uncle, to be crowned King of France, after Charles VII. had been crowned at Rheims.

Many grand and fanciful shows were, on this occasion, made to amuse him; and at the dinner after his coronation were several pageants, and next day, a tournament.

And when he returned to England, the citizens of London were bent upon not being outdone by the citizens of Paris, and prepared some splendid spectacles for his reception. They set up on London Bridge a figure of a giant, with a drawn sword, defying the king's enemies; and as the young king went on, three ladies, all in silk and gold, started out of a tower, and told him that their names were Dames Nature, Grace, and Fortune, who were come to give him all their gifts.

And they sung "an heavenly melodie," the burden of which was—

"Sovereign Lord! welcome to our citie!
Sovereign Lord! now welcome out of France!"

As he rode on, he was stopped again at Cornhill, by a tabernacle, in which was seen a learned dame, called Dame Sapience, with a number of children studying round her, and these were called Master Grammar, Master Logic, Master Music, Master Geography, and so on.

Then a dame called Dame Cleanness addressed him, and Lady Mercy and Lady Truth came out to speak to him; and there were three fountains flowing with wine in Cheapside, and at each fountain was a lady, called the handmaid of Mercy, Grace, and Truth.

Also, Cheapside was upon this occasion turned into Paradise, being planted with trees, oranges, almonds, quinces, and peaches; and two of the patriarchs were introduced, speaking to the king in verse.

The quiet boy of nine years old, who saw all this, did not seem to be much elated by it; neither, surely, did his kind heart rejoice at one part of the "pastime," which was the burning of a heretic in Smithfield.*

When young Henry was seventeen years of age, some of his friends wished that he should be present at the meetings of his counsellors, but those governors who had had the charge of him all his life, desired still to keep him a child, and prevented him from learning habits of business.

His temper was amiable; he does not seem to have had any one vice. He forgave the greatest injuries, and loved all his fellow-creatures; but

* "In the which pastime an heretyke was brente in Smithfield."
—*Fabian's Chronicle*.

his spirit was broken in his youth, and he never learned to assert his own dignity. He hated the bustle of royalty, and would rather have been a shepherd. He allowed himself to be managed, and one of his ministers, the Duke of Suffolk, an ambitious man, seeing this, planned a marriage for him with Margaret of Anjou, a spirited woman, niece to Henry's enemy, the King of France.

The reason Suffolk desired this marriage was, because he thought he should by this means get entire control over the king, and carry on the affairs of the kingdom just as he pleased.

But he could not accomplish his purpose without the consent of the French king; and the latter made it a condition that Henry should give back the greatest part of the towns and cities his generals had purchased so dearly from France.

The English did not exactly know on what terms Suffolk had treated, and they did not oppose the match, but there was much outcry among many when it was found out. And what made Suffolk still more unpopular, was, that the king's uncle, who was called "The good Duke of Gloucester," was found dead one morning in his bed, and was believed to have been murdered; and there were many suspicions that Suffolk, who was known to hate him, was concerned in his death.

After this, he managed to procure the removal of all the king's relations, and all people of high reputation; and he himself and Queen Margaret, who was a haughty tyrannical woman, governed the poor gentle king as they pleased.

At length, Suffolk became so hateful to the

people, that the king was obliged to banish him for five years; and as he was going to France, a ship, manned by Englishmen, who were his enemies, intercepted him, and after keeping him two days, struck off his head.

Possibly he was innocent of some of the crimes that were laid to his charge, and his murder was a wicked and base one, but he had been a bad counsellor to King Henry.

After he was removed, the parliament began to make many inquiries into the state of the religion of the country. They complained bitterly that many of the endowments of the Church were given to foreigners, who would not live in England, and neither preached nor taught. They said the whole Church was held in less respect than formerly; that the people had fallen into *lollardy* for want of teaching.

The friars, who had at first been so useful in pointing out the errors of the clergy, had, by this time, fallen into much the same faults themselves. They were delicately dressed; they possessed lofty mansions, jewels, and bags of money; they were grown voluptuous and ambitious.

York and Lancaster.

I AM now coming to a time of which I shall not attempt to give you much account, in this short history, because the changes in the government of this country were frequent and perplexing.

You will hear, however, about "The Wars of the Roses;" and I will therefore explain the meaning of the phrase.

You know that Henry VI. was the third king of the House of Lancaster. When Henry IV. was made king, and Richard II. deposed, Henry was *not* the nearest heir to the crown, for there was another who had a nearer claim; both were descended from Edward III., but the Earl of March was descended from the *eldest* branch of his family, and Henry from the youngest.

And now Richard, Duke of York, who was the nephew of this Earl of March, would have been king of England, had not Henry's father and grandfather stepped in and taken the crown. And he was the true heir to the crown, if Henry VI. had no children. But, a son being born to the king, it was settled by the parliament, that, as Henry was fallen into bad health, and could not attend to the government, York should be Protector of the realm till the young prince came of age.

This was a bad arrangement; York and the queen could not agree; and then began that long time of strife between the houses of York and Lancaster, which is called the Wars of the Roses; because the Yorkists took the badge of a *white* rose, and the Lancasters of a *red* one.

England was in a wretched state, and all good men pitied the good King Henry more especially, who was so kind and gentle to every one, and lamented continually the miseries of the war.

One story I cannot help telling you out of a book in which I lately read it ; it is of

THE TWO LORD CLIFFORDS.*

Among the chief captains and fiercest warriors on the Lancaster side, was a Lord Clifford : his father had been a commander on the same side, and was killed by the Yorkists in a battle fought at St. Albans.

This had enraged the young lord so much, that he thought he never could take sufficient revenge upon them.

Five years after, a battle was fought near Wakefield, in Yorkshire, in which the Lancastrians won the day, and the Duke of York was taken prisoner.

His second son, the Earl of Rutland, a boy not twelve years old, was with him in the field ; and when all was lost, a priest, who was his tutor, tried to escape with him into the town.

But the terrible Lord Clifford, observing the rich dress of the young earl, pursued him, and overtook him on the bridge.

The poor boy was too much frightened to speak a word ; but he fell down on his knees at Clifford's feet, and held up his clasped hands, looking piteously in his face, and so silently pleading for mercy.

And his tutor^o said, " Save him ; he is the son of a prince, and may do you good hereafter."

* Taken from Miss Aikin's " English Lesson Book."

“The son of York!” Clifford cried. “Thy father slew mine, and so will I thee, and all thy kin;” and he struck his dagger into the poor boy’s heart.

Then Clifford and some others took the Duke of York, who was their prisoner, and seated him on an ant-hill, and they plaited a crown of grass, and put it on his head in cruel mockery.

And they bent their knees, and, pretending to do him homage, they said, “Hail! king without a kingdom! Hail! prince without a people!”

After this, they cut off his head, and Clifford stuck it on a pole, and carried it in triumph to Queen Margaret, wife of Henry VI., to whose eyes he well knew that the shocking sight would be welcome.



The Head of the Duke of York on the Gates of York

By these savage deeds, Clifford gained the name of the Butcher.

It was not long before vengeance overtook him; for the next year, in another battle, he was

wounded by an arrow in the throat, and died on the spot.

The son of Richard, Duke of York, was now king under the name of Edward IV., and the widow of Lord Clifford, fearing lest this prince should cause the young lord her son to be murdered, in revenge for the death of his brother Rutland, sent him secretly away into Westmoreland.

There the family estates lay, and she had him brought up there, among the moors and the mountains, like a poor shepherd boy.

He was at this time only seven years old, and he grew up without knowing who he was, or the rank which he was born to.

They did not even dare, it is said, to teach him to write, for fear it should be suspected that he was of higher birth than he seemed.

Four-and-twenty years did this young lord lead the innocent life of a shepherd, unknown and forgotten; but at the end of that time, Henry VII. came to the crown.

He being of the house of Lancaster, restored to Clifford the estates and honours of his family, which the Yorkists had taken away at his father's death.

Yet this simple man had sense to know that he, who had been bred like a shepherd, was not fit to come to the king's court, and appear like a lord.

And he went and lived retired in a small house on his own estate, where he could improve his mind with reading, and amuse himself with study-

ing astronomy; for when he was a shepherd he had learned to observe the stars.

And having been a poor man himself, he knew how to pity the poor: and instead of being proud and hard-hearted, like the former lords, he was kind to his poor tenants, and servants, and neighbours.

And he was so humble and affable to all, that he lived to a good old age, beloved and respected; and down to this very day a memory of him is kept up among the shepherds of Westmoreland, and he is called "*The good Lord Clifford.*"

House of York.



EDWARD IV. 1471—1483.

You see from the above story, that Richard, Duke of York, who had been in arms against King Henry VI., was killed in the Wars of the Roses.

Some time before this happened, King Henry, as we have said, had a son born to him, and if the House of Lancaster was really entitled to the throne, it was plain that this boy was the heir.

But York still maintained that the Lancastrians had no business ever to have worn the English crown, and that he and his children were the true heirs.

And it would seem that the English parliament admitted this, for they made a new act of settlement, by which it was agreed that Henry should keep the crown for life, but York and his family should succeed him; so that the young prince, the son of Henry VI., was cut off.

Not very long after this, that battle took place in which York and one of his sons, young Rutland, were killed by the Butcher Clifford.

But Edward, the duke's eldest son and heir, no way discouraged at his father's fate, attacked the Lancastrians, and after other battles, he was crowned king at Westminster, by the Archbishop of Canterbury, by the name of Edward IV.

And now there were two kings in England; but King Henry was soon taken prisoner by Edward's men, and shut up in the Tower, and there he remained for five years.

Again, however, he was released by Queen Margaret and by some noblemen of the Lancastrian party; and again there was a bloody war between Lancaster and York, but it ended in Edward being completely established on the throne, and Henry kept a prisoner till his death.

You know he was only nine months old when

he came to the crown, in 1422. It was now 1471, and during by far the greatest part of this time the country had been torn to pieces by wars and quarrels.

The people of England were in a shocking state. Murder was so common that it was thought little of; and when prisoners were taken in battle, they were frequently killed in cold blood.

The habits of the nation might be said to be worse than at almost any time in its history. And so it will always be in civil wars, which are the worst of any, because in them the nearest relations are often opposed to one another. Fathers are then at war with sons, and brothers with brothers, and cousins with cousins, and the heart gets hardened to it, and a friend learns to kill his friend without remorse. Oh! it is indeed a horrible, unnatural state of things.

The young son of Henry VI., who was called Prince of Wales by the Lancastrians, at the age of seventeen was taken prisoner by the Yorkists. He was a very fine and promising youth; but, because the other party were afraid of his living to give them trouble, he was slain immediately.

Edward IV. had been brought up in such a bad state of society, and all around him were so violent, that one could scarcely expect him to be a good man.

Nevertheless, when once settled on the throne, he did many very good things for the people, and he was exceedingly beloved by them.

For though he loved pleasure much,—by far

too much,—he was so active, so lively, and had in general so good a judgment whenever he gave his mind to business, that they had the prospect of being governed far better by him than they had been by the Lancastrian princes.

He found the kingdom in a state of the greatest poverty, both as to supplies of men and of money; but in spite of all his wars he left it rich and abundant.

His manners also were easy and popular, and this endeared him to the people, especially as he had married an English lady whose friends were not of high degree.

But he was extremely intemperate, given to all sorts of indulgences, and cared little for the opinion of the sober and good; and his death was chiefly occasioned by over eating and drinking.

Yet, though he had not forbearance enough to refrain from things he knew were wrong, he was most anxious that his son should be well brought up; and in the last year of his life he drew up a set of rules for his studies and conduct, than which nothing can be better.

* * * * *

Dress in this reign was magnificent, and, as it might be expected, the lower people began to imitate the higher; but they were checked in this by the king, who directed that every one's quality should be marked by his dress.

Thus he procured the passing of an act, by which no one not of the royal family was allowed to wear cloth or silk of a purple colour,—none under a duke any cloth of gold or tissue,—none

under a lord any *plain* cloth or gold,—and none under a squire any damask or satin, and so on.

Thus the rank of every one was known by his clothes. But all these plans for settling what other people shall wear have long since been found by statesmen to be foolish and mischievous; and they are now content to let men dress as they think proper.

I will now give you two specimens of ladies' head-dresses; one in the reign of Henry VI., the other in that of Edward IV.



Horned Head-dress of a Lady in Henry the Sixth's Reign.



Steeple Head-dress of a Lady in Edward the Fourth's Reign.

The steeple caps were generally three-quarters

of an ell high. To match these, the shoes of the gentlemen were equally ridiculous.

They had a point before, sometimes half a foot, sometimes a foot, and sometimes even two feet in length; and when tired of these, they exchanged them for what they called duck-bills, having a bill or beak four or five fingers long.

Again, tired of this fashion also, slippers a foot broad in front came into favour.



Gentlemen of Edward the Fourth's Reign.

But though leisure in the midst of war was found for fashion and luxury, the English had time also in these two busy reigns for some useful inventions.

It was in the year 1474 that Caxton, our first

English printer, set up the first printing-press in London, somewhere near to Westminster Abbey.

Printing itself had been invented and practised on the Continent about thirty-six years before, and books printed abroad had been brought to England, but no Englishman had attempted to set up the business before Caxton.

We, who live at a time of day when books are cheap and plentiful, can scarcely form an idea of the cost of even a very small collection of useful volumes, when all had to be copied by hand.

It is true that people had learned to make *paper* a good while before they learned to print upon it, and this was, so far, a very great help to the world, because parchment and papyrus, which had been used before, were very dear, and not plentiful; but still the labour of writing had not been abridged.

I have told you that the monks were of very great use in transcribing manuscripts. In every great abbey there was a room fitted up as a writing-room, called the Scriptorium, and as the monks were bound to do a certain portion of labour every day, such of them as were unable to perform other works were obliged to write.

An immense number of people were thus employed throughout Europe, yet still the price of books was high, as you may judge when I tell you, that at the time when the wages of a ploughman were only 1*d.* a-day, and wheat was 5*s.* 4*d.* per quarter, as much as 66*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* was paid for copying a work in two volumes.

Books were so valuable that it was very diffi-

cult to borrow or procure what was wanted, and people were obliged to deposit money in pledge when they took one out of a library.

The price of one of Wicliffe's New Testaments was 2*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* At that time (1429) wheat was 6*s.* 8*d.* per quarter ; ale, 1¼*d.* per gallon ; a whole sheep, ready for eating, 1*s.* 4*d.* ; a calf, 2*s.* 6*d.*

* * * * *

Another art, that of architecture, also advanced, though often checked by the fatal Wars of the Roses.

The beautiful Chapel of King's College, Cambridge, was begun by Henry VI., who laid the foundation-stone in April, 1441; but it had not proceeded far before his death, nor did Edward IV. forward it, but rather pillaged the funds intended for it.

Queens' College, Cambridge, was founded by Henry's Queen, Margaret.

And it was in 1440 that Eton College was founded also, by Henry VI., for the education of seventy boys ; and in Edward the Fourth's time we find the boys at this school making Latin verses.

As the clergy feared greatly the spread of Lollardism, it had been made illegal to put children to private teachers ; and, consequently, the ignorance of the people was so great, that the clergymen of London felt bound to devise some remedy.

Accordingly, they got leave to set up schools in their churches, and it became from that time (1477) common to have a school in a room over the church porch.



EDWARD V. 1483.



RICHARD III. 1483—1485.

WHEN Edward the Fourth's young son, Edward V., came to the crown, he was of course considered too young to govern the realm, and his

uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, was appointed Protector.

Richard, afterwards Richard III., was a warlike, ambitious man, and had been brought up, like all the men of that time, in war and bloodshed. Hence he probably committed many bad actions.

But *he* has been dealt with more hardly than others, because all the leading writers for several reigns afterwards lived under princes of the Lancastrian line, which had supplanted the line of Richard of York.

Such writers, therefore, were hardly fair judges, being of that party which was most opposed to the Yorkists; and it was natural that some of them should be inclined to pay court to the reigning party, while others merely took things as they heard them from common report.

Making all these allowances, however, we may well believe Richard III. to have made no conscience of committing any act by which he could secure the crown; but that when he had once gained it, he might be a good and useful sovereign,—and certainly many of the reforms which Henry VII. afterwards carried into effect began in his reign.

There is no sufficient evidence that he was the savage butcher that some have called him,—that he murdered Henry VI., nor his son, the young prince.

But there is much reason to fear that, in order to gain the crown, he contrived the death of young Edward V. and his brother, though yet

they might not be murdered exactly in the manner commonly reported. At all events, Richard's was a very unhappy reign, full of plots on one side, and executions on the other.

Yet some of the acts passed in this reign were serviceable to the people at large,—in particular, Richard tried to lessen the number of armed followers who attended his nobles and great men; for well was it seen, that England would never be at peace while every lord might command such a vast number of retainers to follow him wherever he pleased.

These followers, who often amounted to several hundreds, were accustomed to wear a livery, or badge of service; and it was impossible for the land to have rest while these powerful bodies were always ready to attack one another on the least affront.

It was therefore Richard's aim to discountenance the custom; and this made him unpopular among the nobles, who cared only for their own greatness and splendour.

There was also a mode of raising money from the people, practised before Richard's time, which he did not approve of, and did away with for a while.

It was, to ask the people, in the king's name, for what they called a benevolence; which was not very cheerfully given, though to refuse was an offence.

But this and other reforms could not be carried through, as his necessities were afterwards very great, in consequence of Richmond's invasion.

The party of the Lancastrians, though for some time vanquished, were still numerous in England; and it was not to be supposed that a king charged, like Richard III., with much ambition and many crimes, could be allowed to sit easily on the throne. Thus, scarcely was he crowned, when news reached him that the young Earl of Richmond, now the nearest surviving descendant of the Lancastrian house, though a very distant one, was on the point of advancing from France to dispute the throne with him. It had been proposed by the late king Edward IV. to give his daughter Elizabeth in marriage to young Richmond, and so unite the two rival houses; but this project had never been put in execution, and now he came to claim his promised bride.

In the month of July, 1485, he landed at Milford-Haven, and moving on, joined by many of the nobles and some of the people as he advanced, arrived near Leicester, where Richard had previously led his army.

There, on Bosworth-field, the two houses of York and Lancaster, with their partisans, were drawn up once more. Sore trouble and distress had these two houses proved for many a year to the poor of the land—to all ranks indeed—for every man in England was impoverished and injured by the wars of the Roses; but this great battle of Bosworth-field settled the matter. Richard fought stoutly for his crown and life, on that day; but Henry was victorious, and the death of Richard in the battle ended the contest.

The Tudors.



HENRY VII. 1485—1509.

WE have spoken of Henry VII. as a Lancastrian ; but as his father was a Welsh gentleman of the name of Tudor, he and his royal descendants, in all five in number, are called the TUDORS.

The mother of Henry VII. was a lady held in high honour by all who have written about those times : she was Margaret, Countess of Richmond, a studious, learned, and pious woman, who founded both Christ's College, and St. John's College, at Cambridge.

Her son was a cautious, sensible man ; not like Edward IV. and Richard III. a warlike character, nor yet indolent and slothful like Henry VI. From his general management of the affairs of the nation, a very decided improvement took place in the state of the people.

Their ferocious habits were broken through; they became more inclined to the arts of peace: and now the women of England were educated in such a manner as to make them better companions to their husbands.

Before this reign women of condition had been generally brought up either in the monasteries, or in the families of some noble relative and friend, where they were taught needlework, confectionary, surgery, and the practice of a little Church-music. They learned reading also and writing.

But Henry the Seventh's mother being a studious woman, and well versed in French, with some knowledge of Latin, encouraged the ladies of England, by her example, to enlarge their store of knowledge; and several fathers of families thenceforward devoted themselves to the instruction of their daughters. Among others, Sir Thomas More, who was the son of one of King Henry's judges, having several girls as well as boys, took care to have them well taught in all things proper for their station, and also made them good classical scholars.

More lived in a large house at Chelsea, beautified by gardens, and furnished with a large library, and a museum of rare birds, animals, &c.

The whole disposal of his time and his household regulations went to the furtherance of good and improving tastes in his family.

If any of his servants wished to be instructed in music, or reading, or any useful art, he was willing to help them; and he called his household, "Thomas More's School."

Henry VII. had two sons, one of whom was named Arthur, and the other Henry. Arthur was a fine and promising youth, and was, at the age of twelve, married to Catherine of Arragon.

As he was Prince of Wales, it was thought fit that his marriage festivities should take place at Ludlow Castle; but in a few months afterwards he died, and was buried in Worcester cathedral, where there is a beautiful monument to his memory.

Then Henry, the second son, was made Prince of Wales, and after a time married his brother's widow.

I told you that King Richard III. tried to break through the custom of the nobles having such vast trains of followers: and I may now add, that Henry VII. had the same design, and pursued it with better success.

It happened, on one occasion, while visiting Lord Oxford, that a very large train of followers made their appearance in the entrance hall. When the king saw this spectacle, he called Lord Oxford to his side, and took him to task for breaking the laws he had lately enacted.

Lord Oxford excused himself, saying that it was not usual for him to entertain all these followers, but that they merely came to do his Majesty honour.

“My Lord! my Lord!” said the king, “I must not suffer my laws to be broken in my presence. My Attorney-general must speak to you about this.”

And accordingly the earl, who had only gathered

together this band of men for the occasion, was obliged to pay a heavy fine to the treasury.

Henry VII. has been called a lover of money; the charge perhaps is not ill grounded: but though he frequently sentenced the nobles to pay large fines, this was done as much for the purpose of breaking down their independent power, as from personal avarice; for these men were by far too rich and great for the peace of the nation; and Henry knew no better way of getting them into reasonable order than by lessening their wealth.

He may, however, have oppressed his subjects in the matter of collecting money from them, particularly in the way of benevolences; a hypocritical practice, being but another mode of *commanding* supplies.

By his excessive caution Henry lost one grand opportunity of heightening the glory of his country. Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of America, made him the first offer of whatever advantages might accrue from it, on condition of obtaining vessels and equipments for the undertaking. But the king declined, and Spain granted what he refused.

Columbus succeeded in his enterprise, in 1492; the Cape of Good Hope having been first discovered in 1487, by Bartholomew Diaz. It is also to be observed, that Sebastian Cabot undertook a voyage of discovery, by Henry's orders, in 1495; and that the ships built by this king were much superior to any England had ever seen.

Henry's love of accumulating appeared to increase as he grew older, and when he died he left his treasury very rich. He reigned twenty-three years and eight months. His monument, in the chapel which bears his name at Westminster Abbey, is a most beautiful work of art.

The Second Tudor.



HENRY VIII. 1509—1547.

THE treasures collected by Henry VII. were soon exhausted. The profuse and showy son who succeeded him at the age of eighteen, made such lavish use of the money his father had left him, that parliament was called on for fresh supplies within the very first year of his reign.

The people, vexed and angry at these constant demands, clamoured for the death of two of Henry

the Seventh's collectors of fines and other moneys, who had greatly exasperated them; and they were allowed to wreak their vengeance upon these men.

Had parliament at that time done its duty, as in the reign of Edward III. and of Richard II., these oppressions would have been checked, for it was clearly contrary to English law to tax subjects without their own consent; but under the Tudors, parliaments were much less honest than in preceding reigns. Yet, even in the reign of Henry VIII., when that king and his ministers demanded an enormous supply, the House of Commons made great resistance.

Many remarkable men came into public life during this reign; among whom was the king's prime minister, Cardinal Wolsey, an ambitious, able, worldly man. He cared little for the oppressions of the poor, if he could but obtain the means of keeping up a splendid train of servants, a sumptuous house, and the richest table ever known in England; and as Henry equalled him in the love of splendour, the king and his minister, for a time, agreed well.

The train of Wolsey consisted of five hundred servants, many of whom were knights and gentlemen and the sons of noblemen; three great tables were every day laid out in his hall for these retainers, each of the tables being presided over by a person carrying a white staff.

His kitchen was on a grand scale, having a master cook, who ruled over the other kitchen

servants, and went about daily in garments of damask satin, wearing a chain of gold round his neck.

Then there was a master of the horse, who looked after the stables, grooms, &c. ; and when the Cardinal (who was also Archbishop of York and Lord Chancellor) appeared in public, he wore silk and gold on his own person, and also on his saddles and the trappings of his horses.

A tall comely priest went before him, carrying a pillar of silver, on the top of which was a cross ; and before him was borne his Cardinal's hat by some nobleman or gentleman, bare-headed ; and the gentlemen ushers cried out, " On, my lords and masters, before ! make way for my Lord's grace."

Thus Wolsey came forth, in his scarlet cloth or silk robes, from the inner rooms into his hall ; and at the outer door was his mule, covered with crimson velvet housings, the stirrups being gilded.

And the Cardinal held in his hand an orange, the meat of which was taken out, and filled up again with sponge, wherein was vinegar, or some sweet perfume, which frequently he would smell at, that his nose might not be offended by the unwholesome breath of the common people.

In this state used Wolsey to ride out ; and when the king came to visit him, his banquets were the most sumptuous that could be imaginéd, and the guests were entertained with all kinds of music, and dancing, and masking.

His arrogance was intolerable, and his power

both in the church and state being so great, he was accustomed to command the services of bishops and abbots, and even to make dukes and earls serve him with wine, and hold him a basin of water when he washed. So high was risen the pride of one whose father was but a butcher in Ipswich.

I have told you that the House of Commons refused to comply with all the king's demands of money: this so excited the anger of the king and Wolsey, that for seven years afterwards they did not call parliament together, and by other means sought to obtain what they wanted. A number of commissioners were appointed by royal order, who were instructed to demand one-sixth part of every man's substance for the king's necessities.

Wolsey himself applied to the Lord Mayor and chief citizens of London for this money; and, when they remonstrated, threatened that disobedience might cost them their heads.

But the voice of the people was again too strong to be resisted. It sounded loudly in various places, and the king was obliged to send letters abroad, telling his "loving subjects" that he did not mean to use any force, but only to take what they pleased to give him as a benevolence.

By skilful management, this benevolence was made, however, to bring him a considerable sum; and some of those who chose to avail themselves of the king's permission *not* to give, unless they thought proper, were afterwards very severely dealt with.

It should have been mentioned that in the last

reign, Cardinal Morton, who was Henry the Seventh's Chancellor and Archbishop of Canterbury besides, had taken some pains to reform the monasteries of England, some of which were become not only immensely wealthy and luxurious, but in many cases were ill managed, and schools rather of vice than virtue.

It was now very well known that, so far from being the teachers of a holy and pure faith, showing themselves examples of piety and charity, many of the monks were in the highest degree worldly and sensual; and hence many good men, though firm Catholics, were desirous of having Catholic institutions thoroughly inspected and reformed.

And Wolsey was led to follow up and carry much further than Morton this design, partly from the desire to supply his royal master with wealth, and partly because he was really inclined to promote the education of the people.

Though by no means a religious man, he was a lover of learning, and had set his heart on being founder of a splendid college at Oxford; and it occurred to him, that the money which might be wrung from the monasteries which were found to have been badly conducted, would be well employed in this work.

He therefore began a visitation of the clergy in the year 1523; and in consequence of what he then saw and heard, a great many convents and monasteries were suppressed, and their lands and property given to the crown.

At first it was only the smaller houses which

were thus suppressed ; but, the work once begun, although the king began by objecting to the measure, he very soon learned to avail himself of the ready resources thus thrown open to him.

It cannot be supposed that a king and a minister like Henry and Wolsey could be beloved by the people : they had been too arbitrary, and cared too little for the feelings of churchmen or laymen to be popular with either. And yet there was no *body* of persons strong enough to resist them : the power of the barons had been broken down, first in the Wars of the Roses, and next by Henry the Seventh's rapacious attacks upon their purses.

The clergy alone, had they possessed cleaner hands and purer hearts, might, perhaps, have stopped the king and Wolsey : they had great influence, and the people, though often disgusted with their teachers, had much of the ancient affection for the Church.

But when the bad practices of the monasteries were published, and the tongue of scandal was allowed to speak plainly, the clergy were panic-stricken. The good among them could not defend what was bad ; the evil dared not do it. If it had not been for the quietude of the clergy, one could hardly account for such a vast work as the suppression of the monasteries being allowed to take place without a general insurrection.

The English *people* themselves had, indeed, greater strength than, as yet, they knew, and whenever they spoke, their voice was heard ; but no able leaders had as yet risen up among them,

and they were often overpowered before they had time to form any plan of action.

We are now come to a period of the deepest interest, when the Scriptures were once more to be put before the people in their mother-tongue, and when teachers, like Wicliffe, were to preach and expound them.

It is easy to see that when the Bible was read in every parish church, the people at large would discover that monks had led them very much astray. They would not any longer be satisfied with prayers in an unknown tongue, or addressed to the Virgin Mary or to the saints.

They would find too that they had been misled by those who sent them to make pilgrimages, and to offer gifts at the tombs of Thomas à Becket and our Lady of Walsingham; all these things would come into contempt, and the men who taught them thus would be less honoured.

This would be the feeling of the PEOPLE; but Wolsey and the king were not led on in their course in this way: they began to suppress the monasteries for their own ends, and not because their consciences were aggrieved.

It was happy for the world that the old faith was not extinguished until many people were ready to separate what was true from what was false; till patient spirits had risen up, from time to time, showing that underneath the rubbish the smothered fires of true religion were ready to burst out and burn freely whenever that rubbish was removed.

And so it was, that between the time when

Wicliffe first attacked the Church, and the time when the monasteries were overthrown, and the king had thrown off his allegiance to the Pope, a great many sober people had been brought to examine and inquire into religion for themselves.

The King and Wolsey, though in many respects well suited to each other, did not continue long in harmony. Nor was it to be wondered at that occasions for quarrel would arise between so selfish a monarch and so ambitious a subject.

The immediate cause of Wolsey's fall arose from his opposition to the wishes of his royal master, who, never accustomed to curb his passions, had become so enamoured of the beautiful Anna Boleyn, a lady of the court, that he determined to marry her, though, in order to do so, it was necessary that he should first obtain a divorce from his wife Catherine.

To obtain this divorce, the pope's consent was required. The pope refused to give it, and a conviction grew in Anna Boleyn's mind that Wolsey's intrigues occasioned this difficulty. She imparted her suspicions and anger to the king, who before knew that Wolsey wished him to marry a princess of the house of France rather than Anna Boleyn; and such opposition on the part of a subject wrought the king's mind up to a high pitch of indignation.

It was true that the Cardinal was guilty of this opposition, but the severity with which Henry treated him could not be justified. He rapidly stripped his minister of all his honours, and accused him of high treason.

Oppressive as some of Wolsey's acts had been, yet many were they whom in the time of his prosperity he had loaded with kindnesses; and in his trouble he was not deserted. His servants gathered round him, and although he declared himself unable to pay them wages, and entreated them to leave him, yet, with many tears, most of them refused.

One grateful young man, named Thomas Cromwell, whom the Cardinal had brought up from childhood, so far from forsaking him in his calamity, pleaded his cause openly in the House of Commons, at the hazard of his life, and afterwards raised a subscription to support the once wealthy Cardinal, now reduced to poverty.

By his advice Wolsey removed from London, hoping that absence might soften the severity of Henry's anger against him; but he hoped in vain. Hardly had he reached York, before messengers followed him, and by them he was arrested, and ordered to return and take his trial for treason.

Heartbroken, and in feeble health, his friends dreaded the journey for him: yet he did not hesitate, and was on his way towards London, when he became very ill, and was obliged to halt at the Abbey of Leicester.

"Father Abbot," said the Cardinal, as they carried him in, "I am come to lay my bones among you."

Here, indeed, his last words were uttered. "Oh! if I had served my God as diligently as I have served my king, he would not have forsaken me in my grey hairs!"

So died Wolsey, and Henry the Eighth felt neither pity nor remorse, but proceeded with his own designs, and pursued them with more eagerness even than before. Having raised Cranmer to the office of Archbishop of Canterbury, and despairing of the consent of the pope to his divorce and new marriage, he determined to rest content with the sanction of his own English Bishops.

He accordingly put away his queen, and married Anna Boleyn. By Catherine he had had one daughter, afterwards Queen Mary: and Anna brought him another, who was afterwards Queen Elizabeth.

But the pope, indignant at the king's presumption in settling the matter without his consent, published a decree, commanding him to take back Catherine, and threatening him with the papal censure if he did not comply.

Henry, in high wrath, resolved thenceforth to separate himself and his country entirely from the Church of Rome, and ordered his clergy to proclaim HIM head of the Church in England.

The parliament, meeting soon after, confirmed this title, and thus it was that the grand step which separated England from the Romish Church was taken.

You see here, as in many other cases, how little cause we have to thank *men* for our best blessings. It pleased God to give this country a better and purer religion; King Henry was his instrument, but he had no merit in the work, since it was from no desire of doing God's will, or serving his people, but merely because the pope had displeased him, and thwarted his wishes.

But neither did this make the blessing of the Reformation, as it is called, less ; and there were many among the best men of Henry's time who saw the good that was likely to arise, though they could not approve the king's motives, and who held themselves ready to improve the opportunity for giving the people more pure and scriptural instruction.

Others there were, and among them Sir Thomas More, who could not, in their consciences, give Henry his new title of "Head of the Church," for they said they could only give this to the chief *btshop* of the Church ; and they thought the king very unfit to be their spiritual head—which was, alas ! too true.

The more honest and conscientious Catholics must, indeed, have found it very difficult to trust their religion in Henry's hands, especially as they saw plainly that neither the bishops of England nor the parliament would stoutly oppose him, should he propose never so hateful a measure.

Sir Thomas More had been made Chancellor when Wolsey was disgraced. He was one of the best of men—devout, benevolent, a learned scholar, a good father and master, and as noted for simplicity in manners and habits as Wolsey had been for ostentation. Henry, with all his faults, could not help loving this good man ; and so interesting was More's conversator, that the king used often to come and see him at his house at Chelsea, and to spend whole hours in talk with him.

It might have been expected that such society

would improve the low character of Henry, make him less selfish and base; but such was not the effect of even this intercourse. And More's refusal to give him the title of Head of the Church converted the king into his bitter enemy.

More was quiet, humble, and gentle; far from being ambitious, he had never liked a public life; and when disgraced by Henry, it quite delighted him to go home to his family, and read and study with them, while they were as happy to receive him.

But he was not permitted long to enjoy his quiet retreat. He was soon taken up on some trifling pretext, and committed to the Tower, from whence he wrote many beautiful letters to his daughter, and also some books of devotion.

Though sure of his fate, he never lost his cheerfulness and courage; he could not be brought to comply with the king's wishes against his conscience; and in this spirit he met death on the scaffold, where he was beheaded.

The private life of Henry was no less odious than his public career. After all his eagerness to marry Anna Boleyn, three years had scarcely passed before he had lost all his love for her, and fixed it on another, a lady of the name of Jane Seymour.

And he caused Anna, the mother of Elizabeth, to be beheaded, and married Jane the very next day. She lived with him just long enough to bring him a son (afterwards King Edward VI.), and then died, to his deep sorrow.

It was about this time that King Henry's Archbishop, Cranmer, of whom you will hear again, persuaded his master to allow a copy of the English Bible, which had been translated some years before, to be set up in every parish church.

At first, this allowance was considered quite sufficient, but each copy was kept chained to the desk, as a precaution against its being removed; by degrees, however, the archbishop growing bolder, it became allowable to sell Bibles publicly.

Yet, still many checks were given to this liberty. Sometimes the king took alarm, and was persuaded for a while to forbid the free use of the Scriptures. Sometimes "noblemen and gentlemen might read them; but no women, (except noblewomen and gentlewomen,) or artificers, printers, journeymen, &c." Then again he agreed to allow of their general use.

And now the king and Cranmer ventured (in 1540) on the step of dissolving the *larger* monasteries. This was indeed a work which required great prudence, skill, and honesty; and it was almost impossible that it should have been executed without suffering to many of the persons concerned. They had lived the greater part of their lives in these quiet dwellings, and there they expected to remain until death: and though the monks and nuns had all pensions allowed them, yet, having been accustomed to live in ease, and even in luxury, it could not but be a severe blow to them.

It was justly said, too, that the wealth of all

these suppressed rich houses should have been bestowed in much larger proportion upon the education and improvement of the people : more schools should have been founded, more useful works begun.

But, instead of this, a very large portion of the lands and property of the religious houses was squandered, nobody well knew how, in gifts to needy courtiers and favourites of the king.

It was thought, too, that the king and his counsellors were very hasty and harsh in destroying *all* these establishments at once. Some of them were very admirably managed, and there were others which, standing in lonely parts of the country, were the only civilized spots for miles round ; and it was feared that all the regions about them would fall back into barbarism upon their destruction.

The poor, too, were on a sudden deprived of the alms, and food, and attendance, which the monasteries were always ready to bestow, and the tired traveller, at a time when inns were rarely to be met with, grievously missed their hospitalities.

When we read history, it is very interesting to see how sorrow and prosperity are dealt about to all classes of people in turn. We know that there must be sorrow and chastening in the world ; but the burden is never carried so long by one nation, or by one part of a nation, as that the spirit is wholly broken. It is shifted about, that all may, in turn, have rest.

The king, the barons, and the clergy in England,

had all, in turn, had more than their share of power, and each had been busily employed in humbling the other; sometimes one was depressed, sometimes another.

But during the reigns of the Tudors, particularly those of Henry VII. and Henry VIII., the crown had gained wonderfully in power and wealth. You know how Henry VII. humbled the great men, and stripped them of their money, and now you have seen how his son dealt with the Church. But you do not think that the money stayed in Henry the Eighth's strong boxes? Oh, no! it went all over the land, encouraging trade and agriculture; and though it was often given to favourites who were in themselves unworthy, their children in process of time received it, in conjunction with better education and wiser notions.

Thus there grew up a race of nobles and gentry in England, not so high as the barons, but ranking above those in trade, who made themselves of more and more consequence in the nation, and came in just where they were really wanted, to check the power of the sovereign, and prevent our being governed by the will of one man, contrary to the real constitution of England.

After King Henry had lost his third wife, he took another, called Ann of Cleves. He could not go over to her native country to see her, and was obliged to trust the report of other people about her; when she came, he was not pleased with her, and, after having been married a few months, obtained a divorce, and married Catherine

Howard,* who was beheaded very soon after on a charge of being an unfaithful wife.

Even after her execution, another woman was found courageous enough to be this Blue-Beard's sixth wife. A widow, named Catherine Parr, was raised to the dangerous honour; but this excellent woman managed the king better than his other wives had done, and, as Henry was grown infirm and diseased, became necessary to him as a nurse and attendant.

But even with all her patience and good management, her life was ever in danger; and on one occasion, the king had even signed an order for her committal to the Tower, when she, being aware of what was intended, skilfully diverted his mind from the idea.

The death of Henry was, indeed, a blessing to the English. Every day found him more tyrannical and cruel; there was not a day in which some persons were not arrested and sent to execution; and the very night before he died, he had ordered the Duke of Norfolk to be put to death: he was

* This lady was the first person in England who introduced the use of that now indispensable article, the *pin*, which was just then brought from France.

Before this time, ribbons, loops, laces, clasps, hooks-and-eyes, and skewers, were used by both sexes for the purpose of fastenings to their dress.

The pin, however, was at first very badly made, and an act of parliament was passed, enacting that no pins should be sold, unless they were double-headed, and had "the heddes souldered fast to the shanke of the pynne;" but this act so cramped the trade, that no more pins could be obtained till parliament in its wisdom had repealed it. Pins were acceptable presents from this time to the ladies: and sometimes they received from their husbands and parents an allowance instead, whence the term pin-money.

See the entertaining and useful little work called *Domestic Life in England*, p. 280.

to have been executed the next morning, but Henry himself died before the fatal hour, and thus the duke was saved.

The reign of Henry VIII. lasted thirty-seven years. He was buried at Windsor, beside his queen Jane Seymour.

The Third Tudor.



EDWARD VI. 1547—1553.

HENRY VIII. left three children—two daughters and one son.

The Lady Mary was by much the oldest of these. She was born on the 15th of February, 1516, and consequently was thirty-one years of age at her father's death. She was the child of Henry's first wife, Catherine, whom Henry divorced in order to marry Anna Boleyn.

Edward was the son of the king's third wife, Jane Seymour. It was a thing of course that he

would rule the kingdom after his father's death; and few people thought much of his sisters' chance of ever being queens of England.

The Lady Mary had been brought up by her mother and her mother's friends, who were all Catholics; hence she had grown up, as was to be expected, a Roman Catholic.

But Edward, who was now little more than nine years old, and his sister Elizabeth, about four years older than himself, had been placed under different teaching. By the time they were old enough to learn, their father had shaken off the papal authority, and placed them under the care of Archbishop Cranmer. They learnt their different lessons together, and these were not few, for King Henry wished them to be good scholars, and the most learned men of the age were their tutors. They were taught Greek and Latin, Italian and French.

At the time of King Henry's death, Edward was so young, he was not able to govern the kingdom by himself, and the late king had ordered in his will that some of the great men of the land should manage the affairs till he was eighteen.

Among these ministers was Cranmer, and by his direction King Edward and Elizabeth continued their studies diligently.

It appears that Edward was a very clever, intelligent youth, of such steady judgment, and so devotional a habit, that Cranmer found it easy to interest him deeply in the religious changes then in progress.

He was particularly anxious about the circula-

tion of the Scriptures, and about teaching the people in their own tongue, and used regularly to attend the sermons preached by Bishop Latimer, which were very striking and interesting.

The Liturgy, which had hitherto been in Latin, was now translated into English, and the people heard prayers in which they could join with the spirit and with the understanding.

This was a very different kind of reformation from that of Henry VIII., inasmuch as now the king and many of the great men in the council were really Protestants, and some of the bishops were earnestly striving to instruct the people, and not merely *commanding* them what to do and believe.

But, meantime, the Lady Mary remained unchanged in her faith, and so little disposed to acquaint herself with the reasons which led Cranmer and the Protestants into their present courses, that when King Edward begged her to inform herself on the subject before she abused them, she said, "As to Protestant books, she thanked God she had never read them, and never intended to do so."

It is always a grievous thing when people resolve to shut their eyes and ears against all that can be said by those who differ from them; but it is also a great fault when such people are treated harshly and with bigotry in return.

This was the case between Edward and the Lady Mary. As she was a Catholic, and really thought the religion of the Reformers was wrong, it was a very harsh and cruel thing not to allow

her to have mass celebrated in her own house. As she thought it her duty not to obey her brother when he forbade her this, she was exposed to his anger, and her servants were punished for countenancing her.

The young king was quite as great a bigot on this occasion as Mary herself; for even Cranmer would have consented to the indulgence, but Edward could not satisfy himself to allow it, though he afterwards permitted his council to take their own course.

It was no great wonder that Mary was prejudiced against the Protestant religion. She had very early been made to suffer by it. Her mother's divorce had been the grand occasion of her father's quarrel with the pope, and it was impossible that she should approve of his conduct in this matter.

When she compared him with Sir Thomas More and some of her friends, she could not but feel that he was governed by far worse motives than they; and as to Cranmer, she regarded him as the person who had helped the king most of all in her mother's divorce; and she knew, also, that the Protestants used to turn the Catholic ceremonies into joke, and to shock the devout people of that faith greatly by their irreverence. All this we must bear in mind when we read the accounts of Queen Mary, that we may not be unjust towards her.

And we must also be aware that very few people indeed at that time saw clearly how sinful it is to persecute and put to death persons whom we think in great and dangerous error. As a

proof of this : Cranmer, the archbishop, who was so anxious to reform the religion of the state, had no idea it was wrong to shed the blood of several persons who held what he thought was false doctrine.

The young king was, on this point, more inclined towards *right* than himself. *He* strongly remonstrated, and even shed tears when called upon to sign a warrant for the execution of these offenders.

All those things the Lady Mary knew ; and was it likely that she, a Catholic, who had been trained to think the decrees of the Romish Church infallibly right, would be more liberal than Cranmer, who professed to take the Bible for his guide ?

The young King Edward did not live long enough to marry and leave children of his own ; consequently, at his death, the crown went to his elder sister, Mary.

This event took place in 1553, and was much lamented by all the Protestants, who were not yet sufficiently strong to set aside Mary on the ground of her being a Catholic, and who justly dreaded that she would endeavour to undo all the work they had been accomplishing.

The Fourth Tudor.

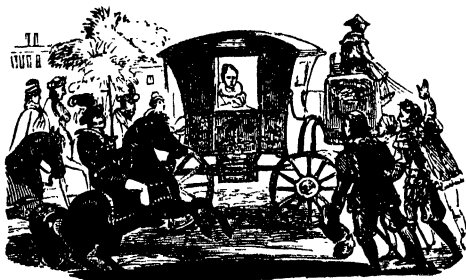
MARY. 1553—1558.

You have seen that Mary was in much disgrace during a great part of her brother Edward's reign, while Elizabeth was in the highest favour.

But when Mary was queen, it was Elizabeth's turn to be humbled and distressed. She was, indeed, one of the splendid party at Mary's coronation, and rode next after the queen's carriage, in a chariot drawn by six horses and covered with cloth of silver; but soon afterwards she received so many slights from her sister, and felt herself so hurt at the manner of her treatment, that she thought it better to leave London, and go to her own quiet house at Ashridge in Buckinghamshire.

The queen allowed her sister to leave London, but took care to send with her two gentlemen,

who were to watch over her, and see that she did not correspond with any one unknown to them.



Elizabeth at her Sister's Coronation.

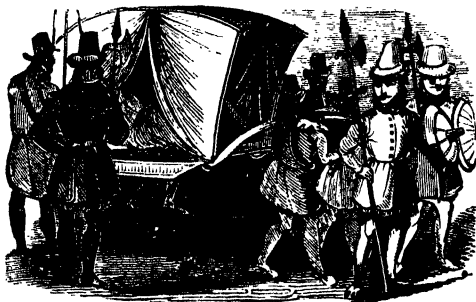
It was not very long before some of the Protestants, and others who disliked Queen Mary, raised a rebellion against her; and the queen, suspecting that Elizabeth might be in some way concerned in this rebellion, wrote her a very civil letter, desiring she would come up to London without delay.

It so happened that Elizabeth was ill in bed at the time the messengers came to fetch her, and the officers of her household wrote to Queen Mary, begging a short delay; but the queen, upon a fresh alarm of rebellion, despatched three more gentlemen, with a troop of horse, with most positive orders not to return to London without Elizabeth.

It was ten o'clock at night when they got to Ashridge; and Elizabeth was still very ill. Her

ladies begged the messengers to wait till the morning; but, instead of this, they burst into her sick chamber and told her their errand. She was alarmed, but declared herself willing to wait upon the queen her sister as soon as she could without danger leave her room.

The gentlemen told her she must, at all events, go; that they had brought the queen's litter for



Elizabeth's Journey to Town

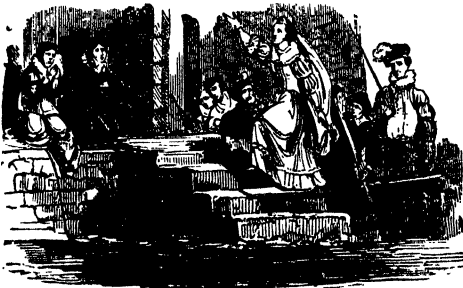
her conveyance, and, as the doctors did not think her life would be in peril from a removal; they must set out next day.

It was a melancholy morning, for Elizabeth was much beloved. Her servants and attendants wept and lamented, fearing sad things from her sister's jealousy and bigotry; and so severe also was her illness, that, though Ashridge was only twenty-nine miles from London, her conductors were obliged to let her rest four nights on the road.

When she reached Highgate, a number of gentlemen rode out from London to meet her, and show her every respect: and crowds of people lined the way-side, weeping and foreboding danger for her; and as she passed through Smithfield and Fleet-street, there were a hundred men in velvet coats following her litter, and a hundred more in coats of fine red, guarded with velvet, who went with her quiet to the court.

Queen Mary at first merely detained her at Whitehall; but in a short time, thinking it prudent to imprison her more closely, sent her in a barge with a strong guard to the Tower. Nor would Mary see her, nor would she without much difficulty and persuasion receive a letter from her.

When the barge which conveyed her to the Tower stopped at "the Traitor's Gate," she long



Elizabeth Landing at the Traitor's Gate.

refused to land there; but her conductors insisting upon it that she should, she put her foot

upon the stairs, exclaiming, "Here landeth as true a subject, being a prisoner, as ever landed at these stairs, and before thee, O my God, I speak it, having no friend but thee."

The wardens and other attendants, as she went by, knelt down, and prayed God to bless her; for which action these poor men were turned out of their places the very next day.

Then she entered the gloomy prison, and its doors were closed and its heavy bolts barred upon her: and there she was, where her mother had been before her, just before she was put to death by her cruel husband's orders. Yet she did not give way to fear, but prayed that she might "build her house upon the rock."

In the meanwhile, Queen Mary was desirous of marrying Philip, the King of Spain, a Roman Catholic as well as herself. The people of England, in general, did not at all like this match. They had no wish to return to Popery, having become extremely attached to many of their new preachers, and being very thankful for the liberty of having the Scriptures in English, and English prayers and sermons.

Some of the old noblemen of the kingdom, however, and some of the people, and all the old bishops and monks who had been turned out of their offices by Cranmer, were, of course, anxious to bring in their own religion again; and now Cranmer, and Latimer, and Ridley, and other Protestant bishops and clergymen, were sent to the Tower, and Catholic bishops put in their places.

Elizabeth herself remained shut up in the

Tower; and it was not till she had been a month under close confinement that leave was given her to walk in the royal apartments, and afterwards in a small garden, closely guarded, no one being allowed to speak to her, or even to look at her.

There was a little child of five years old belonging to one of the officers of the Tower, whom she was glad to notice. He liked to come and see her, and used to bring her a nosegay of flowers every day; but the keepers were ordered not to admit him, and the child peeping through a hole in the door as she walked in the garden, next day, cried out, "Mistress, I can bring you no more flowers."

After three months had passed away, Queen Mary finding it was impossible to fasten any accusation upon her, and being really afraid of stirring up enmity against herself by further harsh measures, deemed it most prudent to remove her from the Tower, but still by no means to place her at liberty: and Mary fixed upon Lord Williams and Sir Henry Beddingfield, two of her very devoted servants, to take charge of her sister, and keep her either at their own country seats, or at some one of the royal mansions.

Sir Henry Beddingfield behaved in a very harsh, insolent manner, when he came to remove Elizabeth; and, not knowing what was going to be done with her, the poor lady was in the greatest terror, and sending for her gentleman-usher, and the rest of her people, she begged them to pray for her, for she believed she was to die this night. The attendants were much

affected at her distress, and going to Lord Williams entreated him to tell them if any harm was intended her. He assured them there was not.

Yet still Beddingfield continued his rough and brutal behaviour. It was intended, as she now found, to send her a prisoner to Woodstock, and, on the road, if any of the people ventured to show her any little kindness, her sour keeper called them traitors and rebels; and when they set the bells ringing, as she passed through the villages, he desired the ringers might be put into the stocks.

On the third evening of her journey, the Lady Elizabeth arrived at Ricot, the house of Lord Williams, whose conduct was in every respect different from that of Beddingfield. He treated her as a royal guest, not as a prisoner, and invited some people of rank to meet her. This indulgence extremely annoyed Sir Henry Beddingfield; he made his soldiers keep strict watch, and insisted upon it that no one of the guests should remain at night in the house. He also took Lord Williams severely to task for his entertainment of the queen's prisoner; but the good host replied that he well knew what he was doing, and that "her grace might, and should, in his house, be merry."

Beddingfield, however, knew Queen Mary's intentions better than Lord Williams did; for no sooner did her Majesty know how kindly and hospitably Elizabeth had been received at Ricot, than she sent directions for her being immediately removed to Woodstock. There Beddingfield managed as he pleased. No visitor ever came near:

the doors were closed, and soldiers kept watch over her by day and by night.

It is said, that a little while after this, "she hearing upon a time, out of her garden at Woodstock, a milkmaid singing pleasantly, wished herself a milkmaid too, saying, that her case was better, and her life merrier than hers."

At length, after long delays, Queen Mary was married to King Philip of Spain, who came over to England, and spent some time here. King Philip hoped either to succeed to the English throne himself, or to be able to leave it to his heirs, and was therefore very anxious to dispose of Elizabeth, that she might be no longer in the way of his designs; and this led him to propose to his wife that her sister should marry a foreign prince, the Duke of Savoy, who had come over with him to England.

Mary was extremely pleased with the idea, and, determined to try what flattery would do, she and King Philip invited Elizabeth to come to them at Hampton-Court, to share in their Christmas revels. There *she*, who had been so long a prisoner, and removed from all the gaieties of the court, was feasted and entertained in the most splendid manner. There were suppers, and tournaments, and spectacles, and King Philip treated her with every mark of respect.

But no sooner did Elizabeth learn what it was they wished her to do, than she gave a decided refusal. *She* did not choose to be Duchess of Savoy; and she told King Philip, as she had before told her sister, that she would not be per-

sueded to marry him. Still they persisted in urging the match upon her, and she left London in disgrace with both.

As Elizabeth is a more interesting character than poor Mary, and her reign was afterwards a very remarkable one, I have told you the more about her history.

And, indeed, there is no pleasure, and a great deal of pain, in reading English history during the reign of Queen Mary. I have no intention of



Burning of Bishops in Smithfield.

telling you the sad tale of all the burnings and persecutions of the Protestants: how some of the wisest and best men in the land were put to a cruel death, because they would not again return to Popery, and how Cranmer himself, together with Ridley and Latimer, were burned at Oxford, nobly maintaining their faith even to death.

It was a fierce and terrible time; and though Queen Mary did not intend to make her subjects

Protestants, it is certain that many more people became so in her reign than in that of Edward, in consequence of the horror they felt at these cruelties, and the firmness of the martyrs who died in defence of their principles.

By the time Mary had reigned five years, her health declined very fast. She was not a happy woman. She knew she was not beloved by her people, nor by her husband, to whom she was, herself, much attached. Her heart was broken; but as her end drew near, she became more kindly disposed towards her sister Elizabeth, and whenever they met or exchanged letters, it was with more affection than formerly. Mary well knew that Elizabeth must succeed her in the throne, as she had herself no children; and King Philip was assured of the same. The hopelessness, therefore, of keeping her any longer in the background was plain to both of them.

From this time, then, they treated her well, and when the days of Mary's painful life were ended, Elizabeth found herself freed from all the depression under which she had suffered, and at liberty to mount her father's throne.

The Fifth Tudor.



ELIZABETH. 1558—1603.

ELIZABETH was now in her twenty-sixth year, and great was the joy in the hearts of many people at her accession. Not only did the Protestant party welcome her gladly, but the more moderate Roman Catholics, who had been much shocked by the cruelties of Mary's reign, and who extremely disliked King Philip, were thankful to have a change.

The London citizens did not know how to contain their joy: they rang the bells, they lighted up bonfires, and they ate and they drank prosperity to Queen Elizabeth; and when she drew near the capital (for she was absent from it at the time of her sister's death) crowds came out to welcome her.

She might well be pleased with the zeal of these people, for she could remember that in trouble and disgrace they had not deserted her: they had even then showed their hearts were with her. She proceeded on and reached the Tower, which was a royal dwelling as well as a prison, and it was customary for the sovereign to make it one of his first dwelling-places. But Queen Elizabeth did not now enter it by the Traitor's Gate; nor was she forbidden any pleasant recreation.

Sports, and feasting, and revels, were provided for her, and all expected with impatience the day of her coronation.

It took place on the 15th of January, 1559, just three months after the death of Mary; but it was not so much the coronation, it was the splendid



Elizabeth's Barge passing along the Thames.

water-procession attending her majesty from her palace in Westminster to the Tower, and afterwards her passage back through the city, which interested the people.

It was a beautiful sight to see the broad river Thames covered with gay barges, filled with splendidly dressed ladies and gentlemen, and rowed by rowers in showy liveries of various colours and fancies. Elizabeth no longer set herself against the passion for dress. She was always richly adorned herself, and liked to see all around her look gay and bright. So they glided along the river, to the sound of pleasant melody.

Then followed her passage through the city, when she rode in a sumptuous chariot, with trumpeters and heralds before, and lords and ladies, and gentlemen of every degree, beside and behind her.



Elizabeth's Passage through the City.

In general, Elizabeth preferred riding on horseback, (though on this occasion she departed from her custom,) and when she rode she was always attended by a number of ladies splendidly habited, on horseback also: as they gathered round her,

apparelled in crimson velvet, or cloth of gold, (with which their horses were also adorned,) they must have made a goodly spectacle.

While the queen thus showed herself to her faithful subjects, they took care to do their best in entertaining her majesty in return. In different parts of the city different shows were exhibited, and the Recorder presented her in Cheapside with a purse containing a thousand marks of gold. There was also a great deal of speech-making, both in Latin and English; to which Elizabeth replied very courteously; and many a nose-ga did she receive from hands too poor to offer any other present.

And now, when the people had given her this glad welcome, it made them angry to find that all the bishops refused to put the crown upon her head. The reason of this refusal was that they were Catholics, and dreaded the return of a Protestant government; and it was not without some difficulty that one of them, the Bishop of Carlisle, consented to brave the anger of his brethren, and perform the ceremony.

The day after her coronation, a singular petition was presented to her by one of her Protestant courtiers. You must know that it was the custom to release some prisoners upon the accession of a new sovereign: and this petition prayed that four or five more captives might be released; namely, the four Evangelists, and the Apostle Paul, who, the petition said, had long been shut up in a foreign tongue, as it were in prison; so that they could not converse with the common people.



Elizabeth receiving a Petition.

The queen heard the petition, but answered very gravely, that it was best first to inquire of themselves whether they wished to be released or no. She, however, immediately authorized the reading of the Liturgy in English; but forbade for a while public preaching: and many of the Protestants were disappointed to find that she was not inclined to depart as far from the old religion as they wished.

And now Elizabeth's first parliament assembled; and one of the first things the Commons did, was to move an address to her majesty, recommending her to marry. Elizabeth thanked them, but made no direct answer: she had already refused the hand of King Philip, who, almost as soon as her sister Mary was dead, had sent her an embassy on purpose to solicit her favour; but she knew him by far too well to think for a moment of marrying him. And the nation rejoiced in her decision, though her refusal was the

occasion of great anger and enmity on the part of the King of Spain.

Many were the great and wise men who gathered about the queen, and did faithful service to her as ministers, as clergymen, and as defenders of their country by sea and land. So that the English throne never stood more firmly, and never, perhaps, was so highly respected at home or abroad, ^{as} now, when it was filled only by a woman. Elizabeth had the wisdom to choose and keep excellent counsellors about her, and never failed to attend to their advice in all matters of importance.

She had many very popular qualities, which made her much thought of among the people. She used very often to make what were called *progresses* (or journeys) into different parts of the country, visiting the different towns and country places, and hearing the complaints and petitions of people of all sorts; and as, wherever she went, there were sure to be splendid revels and shows, these progresses brought much entertainment to the poor.

But it must be owned that the expense of entertaining her on these occasions fell very heavily upon the nobles at whose houses she visited, and the towns through which she passed. She constantly travelled accompanied by a vast train of lords, ladies, and gentlemen, foreign ambassadors, and their servants, all of whom were to be feasted and lodged. A few days' visit from the queen was therefore a ruinous affair to all who were not extremely rich; and it was observed, that though

Elizabeth was always willing to receive presents, she did not give much in return, nor did she ever think of repaying her hosts for the heavy charges the entertainment of her household entailed upon them.

Still the poorer and middle ranks of people did not suffer from this meanness of hers, but rather the contrary, because she did not burden them with any new tax to support her extravagance. But the courtiers, who were constantly expected to present her with costly New Year's Gifts, besides many valuable contributions to her private purse, were very weary of her covetous, grasping spirit.

The bishops and nobles gave her purses full of gold and silver pieces ; they also sent her jewels, robes, and even sets of linen. Nothing came amiss to Queen Elizabeth, who became more greedy as she grew older.

She had also some very foolish and absurd ways and feelings, quite unworthy of one who in many respects was so wise. She was very vain of her beauty and youth, and was pleased with any flattery ; even so far as that, during the latter part of her reign, when much advanced in years, she wished still to pass for a young and beautiful woman ; and people who came to see her on business, would find her dancing, or amusing herself in some girlish manner.

It was not enough for Elizabeth to please herself by remaining single ; she desired that all her women and her courtiers should abstain from marriage also ; and was once unjust enough to

send two of her servants to prison, because they thought proper to marry without her leave, knowing, as they did, that it would have been useless to ask it.

She was also very passionate, and was accustomed to use the most harsh language towards those who offended her; and, on the other hand, she was sometimes far too partial to some very unworthy people, and could with difficulty be led to see their true characters.

One of these favourites, the Earl of Leicester, for a long time stood thus undeservedly high in her favour: he was a bold, bad, ambitious man; but by flattering the queen, and entertaining her sumptuously at his house at Kenilworth,



Elizabeth at Kenilworth.

he gained favour; and had it not been for the earnest endeavours of some of her other counsellors, who were really good and able men, she might have been persuaded by him into some very wrong measures.

One of the best of her ministers was Cecil, Lord Burleigh. A prudent, honest, faithful servant, happily for her, he lived nearly to the end of her reign. Many other subjects also she had, of great worth in their different departments, all contributing to make her reign a glorious one: time would fail me if I were to number up the half of them. Her sea-captains were the bravest and most successful in the world, and when not employed in her defence, she sent them out to make discoveries. One of them, Sir Francis Drake, was the first commodore who ever sailed completely round the world: another went to Greenland; and another made his way round the coast of Norway and Lapland to Archangel on the White Sea, and opened a trade in that direction with Russia in furs and skins.

Some of the finest poets and prose-writers of England lived and wrote in Elizabeth's reign: Spenser, and Shakspeare, and Sir Walter Raleigh, and Sir Philip Sydney, who was a warrior as well as writer.

And though the queen was, as I have said, sometimes mistaken in those whom she favoured, she never, knowingly, promoted any very bad man to office; she required from all about her that they should be careful of their behaviour, and, as far as possible, do what was just and honourable to their fellow-creatures.

According to the fashion of those times, she made herself a judge of her subjects' religious opinions. She was very severe indeed towards some of the Catholics, and still more so towards

those among the Protestants who went, as she thought, too far in Reformation. Some of these men, called then for the first time PURITANS, were put to death, and some had their hands cut off, or were sent to prison by her judges, or at the order of her spiritual courts.

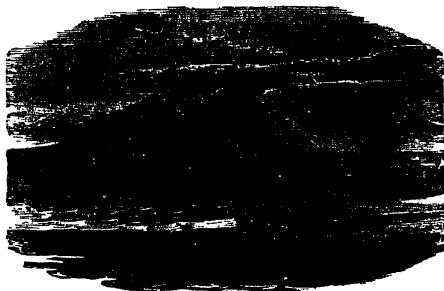
The worst part of her conduct, however, was that towards Mary Queen of Scots. England and Scotland had still separate governments; but Scotland being much the weaker of the two, its wisest sovereigns were glad to connect themselves in a friendly way with England, and to ensure so powerful a protector.

Mary, the present Queen of Scotland, was the presumptive heir to Queen Elizabeth's throne; and it was to be expected that Mary should look anxiously towards England, and dread lest Elizabeth should, after all, marry, and have children of her own, in which case there would no longer be any chance of her own succession to the crown.

Elizabeth, on her part, was childishly jealous of Mary, who was a most beautiful, graceful, and captivating woman; and she was ready, much too ready, to believe every evil report that was brought in respecting her. Mary had been married very young to the French king's son, who died and left her a widow: afterwards, she had married an English nobleman, nearly related to the queen, which gave fresh offence to Elizabeth.

Up to this time, the blame of their disagreements seems to have rested chiefly with the Queen of England: but Mary's conduct, after this, was calculated to give serious offence to her friends as

well as enemies. She did not live happily with her husband, and it was believed by many that she was, at least, not wholly ignorant of a plot to ensnare and murder him. It is difficult to say how far these suspicions were rightly founded; her conduct altogether was not such as to make her name respected, and some of her subjects rose in rebellion against her. They fought a battle with her partisans, and defeated them, taking many prisoners; and when they had done this, they proclaimed her infant son king, and set one of their own party as regent over him.



Lochleven Castle.

They then confined Queen Mary in the castle of Lochleven, which stood on a little island in the middle of a lake; but after some time her friends contrived her escape, and drawing together as many as they could of her party, they set themselves to construct a new government. But here they were again defeated, and Mary was obliged

to flee for her life. Then she bethought herself of the English queen; and though she had never received much kindness from her, she could not think it possible that Elizabeth would refuse her an honourable reception, when she, the lawful Queen of Scotland, was driven by her own subjects out of her kingdom.

No other home seemed so naturally to offer itself, as England; and accordingly, thither Queen Mary went. She proceeded no further, however, than Carlisle, without writing to Elizabeth, earnestly imploring her favour and protection. As soon as Elizabeth received the letter, she sent down one of her noble ladies and two gentlemen to attend Mary at Carlisle, and also wrote to her in terms of condolence on her misfortunes: but she refused to admit the Queen of Scots into her presence, till she should have cleared herself of the shocking charge of being her husband's murderer.

If Queen Elizabeth had gone no further than this, she would have been wise. There was no necessity for her to bring Queen Mary to trial, or to sit in judgment upon her. It would have been far more merciful and kind to have refused her an asylum in England altogether, rather than to make herself a party to proceedings against her.

Instead of acting in this way, she had the baseness to imprison the woman who, confiding in her honour, had come to put herself into her power. She sent her under a strong guard to Bolton castle in Yorkshire; would not permit her to have any intercourse with her Scotch friends;

and what was still worse, by many false promises enticed her to consent to an English trial.

But it was not on account of anything which was proved against her before the commission, that Queen Mary was condemned. It was on account of various intrigues in which she gradually became engaged while a prisoner in England: some of which were plots for her own escape only; some for her marriage to the Duke of Norfolk, in case she *did* escape; one for encouraging an invasion of the country by the Spaniards; and lastly, she was accused of having concurred in a scheme for the assassination of Elizabeth herself.

Some of these charges *might* be true. Mary was not a woman of principle, and would, probably, not have been scrupulous about the means of escape. She justly regarded Elizabeth as having behaved to her in the basest manner; repaying her confidence with treachery and cruelty; and therefore she considered every act of hers as but an act of self-defence. All these plots were but the fruits of Elizabeth's bad policy; she had brought them upon herself by undertaking the confinement and trial of the Queen of Scots.

But the meanest part of Elizabeth's conduct was to come. She wanted to have the credit of tenderness and generosity towards the unhappy woman whom she had treated so basely. She made fine speeches to the parliament, expressing her wish that some method might be found by which the Queen of Scots' life might be saved. At the same time, when the Scotch ambassador begged a delay of only eight days, she refused his request.

After signing the warrant for Mary's execution, she gave it to the secretary, (Davison,) to get it sealed with the great seal, desiring him also to tell another minister what she had done. Next day she sent however for Davison, and told him not to carry it for signature without further orders, and at that time she talked in a very hesitating manner about her intentions.

Davison told her the warrant was already signed; and when he left her, he went to Burleigh and several of the other ministers to know what he was to do. They persuaded him to leave the warrant with them, saying, they would be answerable for it.



Mary Queen of Scots beheaded

The queen had, before this, said that she begged she might not be troubled with any of the particulars of the execution; and all things being considered, Burleigh and the rest were convinced

of her intention to have the warrant executed; they therefore did not hesitate in sending it down, and Mary was beheaded the week after Elizabeth's signature had been given.

But when Elizabeth was informed that the Queen of Scots was really no more, she threw herself into the most violent fits of passion and apparent sorrow. She said her ministers had committed a crime never to be forgiven; that they had without her knowledge put to death *her dear sister*.



Elizabeth mourning for the death of Mary Queen of Scots.

She put on deep mourning, and for some days would not suffer any one to approach her. Still worse, she tried to throw the whole blame upon poor Davison, whom she sent to the Tower, stripping him of his office, and subjecting him to trial in the Star-chamber, where no one ever had a *fair* trial: there he was found guilty, and sentenced to pay a fine of 10,000 marks, and be imprisoned

during the queen's pleasure, though all the judges agreed in expressing a high opinion of his honour and integrity.

Davison soon after wrote an apology for himself, by which, as well as by other evidence, it is clearly proved that Elizabeth *did* mean the execution to take place, though it may be true that she expected to have been again applied to about it; for that two or three days after she signed the warrant, she sent for Davison, and said, she had dreamed that the Queen of Scots was dead, which had much disturbed her; and that with great earnestness he *then* asked her whether she did not intend the matter should go forward? To which she answered vehemently that she did; but that "*this mode would cast all the blame on herself,*" &c.

And now, having related the worst part of Queen Elizabeth's history, I must tell you what befell King Philip, who, ever after her rejection of him as a husband, had been trying to ruin her and England. At length, in 1587, it began to be known that he had prepared a very large fleet of ships, which he called "The Invincible Armada," and that it was his intention to invade Elizabeth's kingdom, and to win back England to the religion of the pope.

As soon as this purpose was clearly known, the English spirit was aroused, and the people flew to arms, begging the queen to accept of their money or their services to keep out the Spaniards from their coasts. An army was quickly collected, as also a fleet, commanded by Sir Francis Drake.

The queen went herself to Tilbury Fort to see the soldiers reviewed, and rode from rank to rank



Elizabeth at Tilbury Fort.

on a noble charger, with a general's truncheon in her hand, a corset of polished steel, and a white-plumed helmet; but better than her looks were the warm and kind words she addressed to her people.

The Invincible Armada did indeed leave Spain, and reach the coast of England; but a terrible storm, joined to the efforts of the English fleet, prevented its doing any injury. One great vessel after another was wrecked, and its crew drowned; some were captured, and not half the ships were ever seen in the ports of Spain again.

Great were the rejoicings on this occasion. On the queen's birthday there was a grand general festival all over the country; thanksgivings were offered in the churches, and the queen went in state to St. Paul's, to offer up her devotions to the

Great Being who had preserved the kingdom from such danger.

It was not long after this that Elizabeth lost her favourite the Earl of Leicester, who died, leaving a very bad name behind. He had a stepson, the Earl of Essex, to whom, after his death, the queen became as partial as she had been to Leicester. Essex was a proud, bold, ambitious young man, and so rash and foolhardy, that he was quite unfit to serve the nation in any important matter; but still, he was better than Leicester: he was generous, lofty-minded, honest, and at times deeply impressed by religious feelings.

His lot was a very hard one: for though, had he possessed more discretion and humility, he might have always remained high in the queen's favour, he had some crafty, cold-blooded enemies at court, who, on the one hand, spurred him on to provoke Elizabeth, and on the other, made the worst of his conduct in speaking of him to the queen.

Queen Elizabeth's pride and vanity were yet greater than her partialities for her favourites, and therefore it was very easy to make her violently angry with those she loved, by telling her of hasty and affronting speeches which they had let fall among their friends in confidence; and as poor Essex was as proud as herself, he was sure to take fire whenever she resented his conduct. His high spirit could not brook the manner in which she treated him. Once matters went so far that the queen, forgetting her dignity, gave him a box on the ear, and bade him "go and be hanged," which enraged him most violentl;

These quarrels were generally made up for a time; but as Essex grew more haughty, and the queen more sour, through age and declining strength, it was plain to all that the favourite would, at last, provoke his royal mistress beyond the bounds of pardon.

And so it proved. Essex was at length sent to prison: again he was set free. But, meantime, he had involved himself in a plot to bring in the young King of Scotland, the son of Mary, and dethrone Elizabeth in her old age. The plot was discovered, and Essex and his associates were shortly after put to death.



Earl of Essex beheaded.

Though Elizabeth had been a hypocrite in her grief for the Queen of Scots, it is quite certain she was not so in her sorrow for Essex. She would, with all her heart, have spared him, and nothing but the belief that her own life and kingdom were

in danger while he lived, induced her to sign the warrant for his execution.

In spite of all his follies and treasons, she was deeply attached to him, and not without reason, for Essex had many very fine qualities; and the queen never recovered from the grief she felt at his death.

She was the more afflicted, because, some time after he was no more, the Countess of Nottingham, a relation of Essex, being on her death-bed, sent for her to disclose a secret, which she said lay on her conscience; and, when the queen came, she produced a ring which Elizabeth well remembered having given Lord Essex, with a promise that



Elizabeth and the Countess of Nottingham.

whatever circumstances he might be in, if he would send it to her, she would either pardon him, or at least admit him to her presence.

Now Essex had given this ring to the Countess of Nottingham, begging her to take it to the queen; but the countess having informed her

husband, he had persuaded her not to comply, for he himself was an enemy of Essex. The queen meanwhile had been expecting the ring, and was indignant at Essex's pride in not condescending to use it.

As soon, therefore, as she had heard the countess's confession she was transported with rage and grief, and, shaking the dying countess in her bed, she flung herself out of the chamber, saying that God might forgive her, but she never could.

It was then that Queen Elizabeth ceased to find any more pleasure and pride in the things of this world. She drooped her head in sorrow, and gave vent to floods of tears; nor could she be persuaded to take food or medicine.

Her long reign of glory ended in sadness; and they who saw her now, and remembered her happiest days, could not but feel how poor a thing is earthly glory, and how sad it was that *she*, who had been the pride and stay of England, should be sunk in dejection, and unable to find peace.

And yet they were, towards the last, cheered to find that she took comfort in prayer; and that when unable herself to speak, she made signs that her chaplains and those around her should pray for her.

They complied, and the queen made frequent signs that she was sensible and joined with them. Thus she passed away, early in the morning of Thursday, the 24th of March, 1603.

Should you ever visit Westminster Abbey, amid all the noble and affecting things which will fix your eye, do not omit to let it rest on the tomb

of Queen Elizabeth. It is a lofty, magnificent monument, though the painting and gilding are not suitable to the place nor the occasion.

Turn, then, and look at another tomb. There lies Elizabeth's rival, the unhappy Queen of Scots. Death has brought them near, and there is no rivalry in the grave.

As you look at the graves of the first and the last Tudor, some of the mighty changes which took place between the time when Henry VII. mounted the throne and the death of Elizabeth, cannot fail to present themselves.

I have already spoken of the most important of all these changes—the Reformation of Religion, and I will now mention other movements among the people.

In writing of the first Tudor, Henry VII., I observed that female education was greatly advanced; Sir Thomas More, and several other fathers of families, having set the example of family instruction.

The invention of printing, as far as it had operated in England, did not, indeed, contribute greatly to the improvement of the English till a later period than this; not much had, as yet, been gained by the printing of *English* books, Caxton having chiefly printed romances and extravagant fictions.

The learned languages were therefore taught to females at this time, principally because in no other way could they obtain access to valuable books. The Romish religion also greatly promoted acquaintance with Latin literature.

But later down in point of time, namely in the reign of Elizabeth, good English writers poured in apace; after that period we do not hear so much of classical scholarship among the ladies, though we find that the love and knowledge of general literature were far more widely diffused.

It appears that in the Tudor reigns young ladies used to learn needlework, and tapestry, and good breeding, by going into families of higher rank than their own, paying for their board.

In like manner, the noble and gentle youths of England were educated in the families of great men; and when we read of the immense establishments of servants in the houses of Morton and Cardinal Wolsey, we must remember that many of these were young gentlemen, placed there by their parents for education.

Thus, Sir Thomas More served an apprenticeship under the Chancellor Morton. He waited at his master's table, carried his train, and performed many inferior offices: but while engaged in these services, the young men had before them the best models of courtly manners, and opportunities of listening to the best conversation.

A distinction was made between them and the menial servants: they had always a table to themselves, and were waited upon after they had done service at their patron's table.

A great change took place in the behaviour of parents towards their children after the Reformation. An old writer says, "The gentry and citizens were as severe towards their children (before this time) as schoolmasters, and schoolmasters as

the masters of the house of correction : the child as perfectly loathed the sight of his parents as the slave his torture.

“ Gentlemen of forty and thirty years old were used to stand like mutes and fools, bare-headed, before their parents ; and the daughters (grown women) were to stand at the cupboard side during the whole time of the mother’s visit, unless, forsooth, leave was desired that a cushion might be given them to kneel upon, brought them by the serving-man, after they had done sufficient penance by standing.”*

The arts, painting, music, and architecture, were warmly patronized by Henry VIII. He it was, who, on Sir Thomas More’s recommendation, caused Hans Holbein to paint his portrait and the portraits of very many of his courtiers.

Music he well understood, and even composed several pieces. In his reign, many beautiful buildings of the religious kind were indeed laid waste, and, where not destroyed, they were made ready for destruction : but we must still remember him as the founder of Trinity College, Cambridge ; the completer of King’s College Chapel, at the same university ; and of Henry the Seventh’s Chapel, Westminster Abbey.

Many noble private houses were built during the Tudor reigns, and furnished in a stately and splendid fashion. There, gaudy-coloured tapestries decorated the walls, and abundance of gilding, with rich displays of plate, graced the rooms.

In the times of Henry VII. and his son, the

* John Aubrey.

favourite mansion was something between a castle and a private dwelling: there were generally a moat and a gateway, and one or two strong turrets; but they were not well fitted to stand a siege. One of these is Wingfield Manor-House, in Derbyshire.



Wingfield Manor House

In Queen Elizabeth's time, the use of tapestry was giving way to an abundance of fine oak or chestnut carving, as is shown at Hardwicke and other old places of that time.

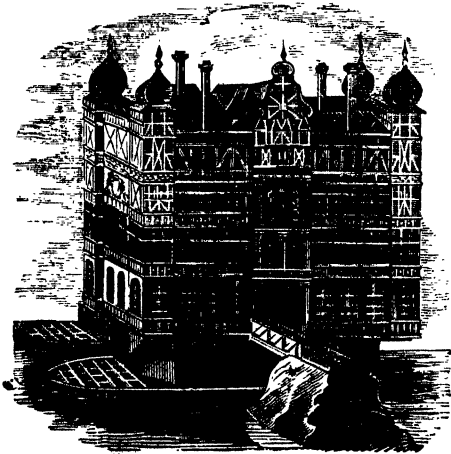
In the time of Edward VI., of Mary, and Elizabeth, the meals were generally served as follows:—breakfast, consisting, at the tables of the great, of butter and eggs, broiled beef-steaks, and a cup of ale, at eight or nine o'clock.

Dinner at eleven; supper between five and six o'clock.

Dining with hats on was usual : they were only taken off when grace was said.

As the dinner was so early, much public business was transacted after it ; and the parks of London were gay and crowded between one o'clock and four.

The city of London, of course, increased in size and splendour during the Tudor reigns ; but the streets were for the most part too narrow and crowded. London Bridge in the time of Elizabeth received several additions to the buildings which already occupied it. The most curious among these buildings was the famous *Nonesuch House* : so called, because it was constructed in



Nonesuch House

Holland, entirely of wood, and brought over in pieces, and was then put up on London Bridge, with wooden pegs only, not a single iron nail being used in the structure; while its whole front was ornamented with a profusion of casemate windows, with carved wooden galleries, and richly sculptured wooden panels.

It has, I am aware, long been reported that the first English newspaper—"The British Mercurie," was published in this reign. Strong evidence, however, has been brought forward to show that the specimen papers, purporting to be preserved in the British Museum are forgeries, and that our own national press did not send forth any production of this kind until twenty years later. The true era of British newspapers commences with the Long Parliament (1640), and in the space of nine years after that time, more than a hundred different papers were published in England.*

In the reign of Elizabeth, when news was wanted, or when people in London wished to advertise any matter, the usual course was to go or send to St. Paul's cathedral, then the grand mart for all intelligence.

Indeed, when we read the accounts of all the plottings, the cheatings, the iniquities of various kinds, which were constantly going on in "Paul's walk," as a part of this building was called, we can hardly help thinking of the language of Him who said, "My house shall be called a house of prayer, but ye have made it a den of thieves."

* See a letter to A. Panizzi, Esq., of the British Museum, by Thomas Watts, cited in the Penny Magazine, January 18th, 1840.

The appointment of Postmaster in England was first made in 1581, though the foreign part of that office was only established in the reign of James I. ; in whose time also a General Post-office was erected ; but, for long afterwards, the convenience of the English post was afforded only to a few of the principal roads, and there was no certainty as to the departure and delivery of letters. 4,

The Stuarts.



JAMES I. 1603—1625.

THE Tudor line of sovereigns ended with Queen Elizabeth ; but James Stuart, King of Scotland, now become King of England also, bore an ancient relationship to this family, his great-grandmother being the daughter of Henry VII.

James was thirty-seven years of age at the time

of his being called to the English throne. He had married Ann, daughter of the King of Denmark, by whom he had three children.

These he left for a time in Scotland when first called on to go to England. It was not a pleasant day to the Scotch people when he took his departure ; from this time they were no longer to have a king residing among them, and this was a humiliation.

When James arrived in London, he very soon showed that he had no great respect for the late queen, or any of her counsellors. It was no wonder that he should feel displeased with her conduct towards his mother ; but to hold her cheap as a sovereign was no proof of his own good sense.

The queen having followed him from Scotland, notwithstanding that the plague was raging dreadfully in London, a grand coronation took place, far unlike that of Queen Elizabeth, who, you may remember, could persuade but one bishop to place the crown on her head.

Now, however, a full attendance of all these dignitaries graced the splendid ceremony ; and the queen, by her pleasant manner towards the people, speaking to them as she passed, and receiving their prayers with thanks, made herself everywhere popular.

It was otherwise with James, whose manners were wanting both in dignity and courtesy. He seemed afraid of his people, and to dread the approach of any stranger, lest harm should be designed him. Yet had he so high an idea of what

was due to him as a king, that he seemed to think everything in England was to be ruled according to royal judgment only, and lost sight of the fact that Parliaments were as much a part of the English constitution as royalty.

Two years after King James came to the English crown, the famous Gunpowder Plot took place.

The history of this wicked transaction is this. There was a gentleman named Catesby, a bigoted Roman Catholic, who had long held traitorous counsels with some foreign priests of like mind with himself. To this man's mind it occurred that some great blow, which should deprive England of a Protestant government, and throw the whole nation into alarm, would prepare the way for bringing in the religion of Rome once again.

Day and night he turned over various projects in his restless thought, till on a sudden it darted into his mind that the king, and lords, and commons, would all be met together under one roof on the day of the opening of parliament. Could not the blow be struck then?

But again,—how was it to be done? It would not do to fall upon them openly with arms in their hands: there would be no chance of success so. Then there came to him the wicked and horrible thought of laying a train of gunpowder under the floor of the parliament-house, setting fire to it, and so blowing up the king and all the assembled peers and commons.

A good many Catholics, some English, some foreign, were concerned more or less in this plot: it was a year and a half before any opportunity

occurred for executing it; but, in the meanwhile, Catesby and his associates had hired the vaults under the parliament-house, which just at that time were empty.

They had first taken the house next to the parliament-house, not knowing that they could have the vaults, in which coals were generally kept. On finding this, however, one of the party was employed to hire them, and there they lodged barrels of gunpowder; and they also engaged a man of the name of Guy Fawkes to set fire to the train when everything should be ready.

At length the time drew near. On the 5th of November, 1603, the king was to open parliament: the queen, the Prince of Wales, and the whole court were to be there; and all these persons, whether innocent or guilty, were to be put to death by an unseen hand in a moment.

This terrible stroke was not permitted to be given. There was a lord among those to be destroyed, who had a friend, some say a sister, among the plotters; and a letter was written by this friend, strongly advising this lord not to go to the parliament. The letter was a very dark, perplexing one. Something was said about a sudden blow that was to be struck, and nobody was to see the hand that gave it. Lord Monteagle, to whom it was addressed, could not tell what to make of it, no name being given; and thought it best to show it to King James and the council.

King James and one of the lords of the council were both struck with the words in the letter about an unseen blow, and Lord Suffolk was

ordered to make a very strict search in the vaults and buildings beneath the parliament-house.

This was done, and there they found Guy Fawkes, with a dark lantern in his hand, and soon after discovered the barrels of gunpowder.

Matches and flints for striking fire were found in Guy Fawkes's pocket; and when he saw there was no escape, he mentioned the names of some of the authors of the plot.



Guy Fawkes.

Several of them were immediately secured, but others concealed themselves about the country, and were not discovered for some time afterwards. Catesby and two others were killed in the attempt to take them prisoners, and some were almost starved in their hiding-places. . .

You would have supposed that this plot was confined to desperate, ignorant, wicked men; but there certainly was one man, at least, among those concerned in it, who, on all other occasions, had

proved himself a noble, knightly, generous character, but was so carried away by bigotry and false religion as to think this shocking deed was an act of praiseworthy zeal.

His name was Everard Digby. He died, however, deeply penitent, and convinced of the wickedness of the intended act.

King James's eldest son was named Henry. He had been early placed under the care of the Earl of Mar and his lady, both very worthy people, and when he was six years old had a learned tutor; afterwards, the king, who was a good scholar, superintended his education, and spared no pains to give him instruction.

Henry was a very clever, animated, spirited boy, and, better than all this, appears to have had a devout mind. He could not endure the habit of profane swearing, which was so common with his father and the court, and on one occasion exclaimed, "All the pleasure in the world is not worth an oath."

He was of a very honest, upright mind, and very quick-sighted; so much so, that he soon discerned the bad character of one of his father's favourites, the Earl of Rochester, and could hardly repress his indignation at seeing his promotion.

But this fine promising youth was suddenly taken ill of a putrid fever, of which he died, to the great grief of the whole nation, just as he had attained his nineteenth year.

And now his brother Charles was made Prince of Wales, and besides these two princes, King James had a daughter, married to a German potentate.

King James was himself a zealous Protestant, and there was nothing he relished better than arguing with the different religious parties of that time. We are indebted to him for our present translation of the Holy Scriptures; and the large circulation of the Bible in his reign was the greatest blessing he conferred on his subjects.

But there were many of the Protestants whose religious views differed much from those of the king,—there were those who thought the Church still retained too many of the ceremonies of the Romish Church, and who did not like the use of the Book of Common Prayer so well as prayers uttered by their own ministers in their own chapels.

These men were in those times generally called Puritans. They were a severe, but devout set of men, thoroughly in earnest in their principles, for the most part, and greatly scandalized at the habits of profane swearing and irreverent jesting common to the king and some of his favourites.

They were inclined to be somewhat scrupulous and precise in small matters, but they were for the most part highly conscientious; they were much grieved to find that the king had some thoughts of marrying his son Charles to the sister of the King of Spain, who was a Roman Catholic. And this grief was not confined to the Puritans only, for many of the sober Protestant church-people were shocked at the dangers of this marriage.

They knew that the Spanish court would interfere in the religion and politics of England; and that the princess sent to be the wife of Charles must have Catholic priests and attendants of her

own, and that her children would probably be early brought up to follow this religion.

Therefore, when King James called a parliament, he was earnestly entreated by its members to be careful on this point, and to let the prince be married to one of his own religion.

James was extremely angry at this interference of his parliament. His pride would not let him entertain the thought of connecting himself with any but royal families; and as the principal sovereigns of Europe were Catholic, his Protestantism was made to give way to his vanity.

His behaviour to the parliament, which had on this occasion given him honest counsel, was most tyrannical and unjust. He committed several of the members to prison; he tore with his own hand a paper, which the House of Commons had drawn up, protesting against the marriage, and then he dissolved the parliament.

And now came sad proceedings. As the king had dismissed the parliament, he could not get supplies in a legal manner, and thus he was tempted to extort it from his subjects in a mode which was unlawful. This, indeed, he had too often done before; being a very bad manager of money, he had often been in distress for want of it.

The king's grand favourite, during all the latter years of his life, was one George Villiers, a very handsome youth, whom he had loaded with honours, and at last made Duke of Buckingham.

This man was ambitious and crafty, and seeing that the king was growing infirm, and falling into

bad health, he determined to do all in his power to make himself of consequence to Prince Charles, so that whenever the father died, the son might continue to befriend him.

He thought it would assist him in his desigus if he made himself useful and important in the affair of the prince's marriage; and one day he suddenly proposed to the young man to go over, without any previous notice, to Spain, and settle the matter for themselves on the spot.

The prince was pleased with the idea, and both he and Buckingham so earnestly importuned the king, that he consented, though not a little alarmed at the scheme; for he had sense to see, that when the Spanish court had the young man in their power, they would perhaps persuade him to consent to their terms.

But all that James could say was overruled by his favourite Buckingham; a reluctant consent was gained, and the prince and the duke set off, disguised, that no one might know of their departure.

When they reached Madrid, the capital of Spain, they went first to the English ambassador's house. It was almost dark in the evening, and he was extremely surprised at their arrival.

But the King of Spain was soon told of it, and he came to see the prince, and paid him a great many compliments. Charles suited the Spaniards very well, for he was grave and decent in his manners; but they did not at all like the Duke of Buckingham, who was light and gay.

Soon they began to discuss the conditions of the

marriage; and then it proved, as James had foreseen, that one difficulty arose after another, and it seemed likely that the prince would be kept in Spain very much longer than he had ever intended.

The Spanish court wished, in truth, to convert him to the Catholic faith, and they persisted in it that the young princess should not come to England till the next spring, hoping to keep Charles there all that time. This, however, he positively refused.

They gave up the point, and all was made ready for the marriage and departure on the twenty-ninth of August. Just at this moment, to the surprise of the court, the prince gave notice that he must immediately return to England.

This seemed an extraordinary thing, but the King of Spain behaved in a very dignified and proper manner; nor did he seem in the least to suspect that the prince could mean to break a treaty he had so often and earnestly pressed forward.

It was therefore settled that the lady should follow in the spring, and Charles solemnly confirmed by oath the different articles of the treaty: many presents were given on both sides; and when the Prince of Wales left Madrid, it was with the love and regard of all his Spanish friends.

It is lamentable to find that all this was deceit; and that almost as soon as Charles was out of Spain, he expressed a dislike of the court and of the match, and sought pretexts for breaking it off.

The fact most probably was, that Buckingham

had made himself odious to the Spaniards, and found that if his master married the Spanish king's sister, he should not gain the point he desired; therefore he used all his influence over Charles, and persuaded him to break off the match.

The English nation, however, having always been averse to this marriage, rejoiced so heartily at its being given up, that the perfidy of Buckingham and the prince was hardly attended to; and the new parliament joyfully gave its judgment against continuing any treaty.

But it was soon found that they were not at all nearer than before to a desirable royal marriage; for the daughter of the French king, also a strict Catholic, was now the lady proposed.

This marriage, however, King James did not live to bring to a conclusion. His health, long declining, gave way, and he died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after reigning twenty-two years in England.

These years had been peaceful, and in many respects prosperous. The nation had increased in wealth and luxury; commerce had been extended; many voyages of discovery had been made; resources from other countries had been introduced. The potato came from America first by means of Sir Walter Raleigh, who brought the roots to Ireland, though they were for a long time very scarce in England, and were provided for the royal table in 1619, as a dainty, at the price of two shillings per pound. Tobacco, also, was introduced by the same voyager.

The food of the lower people was still coarse:

rye-bread and oatmeal were much consumed ; the price of linen, of woollens, &c. was very high, and wages were *not* high : for we find that a farming bailiff had only 52s. a-year ; a chief woman servant, who could bake, brew, &c. 26s. 8d. per annum. A mower was to have 5d. a-day, and his meat ; a hedger or ditcher, 4d. ; a woman reaper, 3d. a-day, and so on.

London, small as it then was, if we compare past things with present, was becoming a troublesome city to manage ; and in vain did King James issue edicts that no more houses should be built. In vain did he tell the noblemen and country gentlemen that they should live on their estates, and not crowd up to town. The filthy narrow streets, where there was no proper supply of water, continually occasioned disease ; and it was observed, that “ a plague in London happened once in twenty years.”

Many attempts were made to improve the sewerage, but the supply of water was deficient ; and to the reign of James, London owes “ the New River.” One Hugh Middleton, citizen and goldsmith, was the benefactor who carried through this great work, in the course of which he encountered many and heavy difficulties. He was refused assistance by the City of London ; he had to meet opposition from many of the persons through whose grounds he had to pass. He had to carry his canal through thirty-nine miles, the original springs being in Hertfordshire.

His own private fortune was soon exhausted in the thankless labour, and no skilful workmen,

no well taught engineers were then to be found ready to aid him. But for the good sense and firmness of King James, the work must have been given up in despair; but the king on this occasion was wiser than most of his people. He aided Middleton liberally, and in 1613 the task was ended. We do not know if the persevering man who brought this useful work to its completion was ever repaid his heavy losses. A single share *has been* sold for 14,000*l.*! but for a long time no profit accrued to any one.

Few new books of merit appeared in any foreign language, which were not soon translated into English. We have already mentioned the great work, the translation of the Bible.

There were forty-seven translators employed, who were divided into six companies, each taking a portion of the Scriptures; and rules for their proceeding were drawn up by the king himself with great skill and prudence.

They were nearly three years employed on the work, and it did not appear in print until 1611.

You will perhaps be surprised at hearing of so many different translations of the Bible; but you must bear in mind that the great changes which the English language underwent in the space of only a single half-century, were sufficient to make this necessary.

From the time of James to our own period, these alterations have not been of sufficient consequence to create any difficulty, though some of the words contained in our version are not now used in conversation or common writing.

It is always considered as a very able translation, though not a faultless one, and the language is beautifully simple.

The king did not show himself to be possessed by a narrow spirit on this great occasion, for he called in the aid of the Puritans to assist the Churchmen.

Though there was a great deal that was wrong in King James's government, he had the happiness of being served by some very excellent men ; among others by the good Bishop Andrewes, who was one of the most Christian characters of the time.

Before he was made a bishop, he was Dean of Westminster, and it fell to his lot to superintend Westminster school. Besides seeing to the studies of the boys, he was so fond of their company, that he seldom took a walk into the country without having two or three of them with him.

He used to say, even to his dying day, that " to see the grass, the herbs, trees, cattle, the earth and all its creatures, was to him the greatest recreation that could be ;" and he delighted to encourage the same tastes in these youths.

Then, sometimes two or three times in a week, he would send for the upper scholars to his lodgings, and keep them several hours with him, helping them with their Greek and Hebrew ; and never was he heard to utter a sharp word towards them.

He was kind to the poor, devout and charitable in the highest degree. This good man had King James raised to a bishopric, and never was one better bestowed : afterwards he was Bishop of Ely, and at last, Bishop of Winchester.

There were also Hooker and Hall, two fine writers and excellent men, the latter of whom also was one of King James's bishops ; and of private clergymen, there were many of excellent renown, and of such fervent piety, that no Puritans could possibly exceed them in sanctity of life and heart.

The Second Stuart.



CHARLES I. 1625—1649.

I AM now coming to a melancholy history, painful alike to read and to write ; but more especially trying to those who undertake to relate it, because the same story has been told in such a different manner by very excellent men, that it is really difficult to find where each is right or wrong.

You will see by what was said of the Tudors, that the power of the kings of England was become very great indeed. A whispered word from the sovereign was sufficient, during the latter part of Henry the Seventh's and the whole of Henry the Eighth's reign, to take away the life of the proudest noble in the land.

No one was safe. Jurymen who had given a verdict according to their consciences, if that verdict did not please the king, were called up to the Star-chamber, (a very arbitrary court of justice which had grown up under the Tudors into power almost unknown before,) and there they received sentence of death, or fine, or imprisonment, without any means of appealing to a just and equal tribunal.

In order to meet this overgrown power, which was highly dangerous, there was now no band of nobles, as in John's reign, strong and united enough to stand between the king and people when necessary.

These nobles had been broken down, as we have seen, in the Wars of the Roses, and by the extortions of Henry VII.; and, in truth, their fall must always be regarded as a blessing, since no country can have peace while there are in it a number of powerful men ready to make war upon one another at all times, with large bands of followers.

But neither can a country be happy when all depends upon the will of a single person, except so long as that person has virtue and wisdom enough to govern all its affairs with discretion,

which, from the vast extent of the work, it seems hardly reasonable to expect.

It was therefore well for England, that at the time we mention, towards the close of the Tudor reigns, the gentry and people of respectable education and station, perceiving how the old nobility failed to shield the nation from the too great power of the crown, began themselves to interpose, by means of the House of Commons.

This they did in a bold and courageous manner throughout the reign of King James. Indeed, they had, even then, if not too high an opinion of their own importance, which was indeed great, yet rather too consequential and haughty a way of showing it.

And when Charles I. came to the throne, they went on exactly in the same spirit. They seemed to consider that the most important duty of a member of parliament was to assert parliamentary privileges.

Charles, on the other hand, considered it *his* part to maintain the privileges of the crown; and in defending *these*, he endeavoured to uphold and defend every usurped and tyrannical usage which had been built up by the Tudors, and which it was the grand aim of the parliament to overthrow.

The king was free from the vices which had degraded the private character of Henry VIII. and several of those kings who had reigned here in England as they pleased, and with little check to their will and pleasure.

But, unfortunately, being bent upon keeping for the crown all the power which it had possessed

at a time when the other branches of the legislature were unable to cope with it, he was led, on several occasions, to be very insincere in his dealings with his people. He promised fairly, but evaded his promises whenever he could.

You will remember how the Duke of Buckingham persuaded him to give up the Spanish match, and that, not long afterwards, another plan was formed for marrying him to the daughter of the King of France.

This treaty proceeded with no interruption from the death of King James; and it was thought not a little unfeeling, that even the very morning after his father's decease, letters were despatched about it, and that the marriage was celebrated by Charles's proxy in France, while the body was still lying in state, before the funeral.

Henrietta, the new queen, did not, however, come to England till five weeks afterwards, when Charles met her at Dover, and conducted her to his palace at Whitehall. She was not much more than fifteen years of age, and very small in stature.

It was not at all with the goodwill of the parliament, that their king was married to a Catholic princess; more particularly as there came with her a number of monks and a bishop, and a large train of attendants, all Catholics; and Henrietta was particularly ordered by her mother to do all she possibly could to convert her husband, and bring back the English nation to the Romish faith.

Scarcely, however, was she landed, when that dreadful disorder, the Plague, broke out in London. The parliament sat, in consequence, at Oxford; and, while there, the accounts daily received of the ravages of this terrible scourge were most shocking.

In one week there died in London 5,000 persons; in some families, masters, and servants, and children, were all swept off; and such was the fear of infection, that people did not dare to receive any money from their neighbours without first putting it into a tub of water.

After some little time, when the accounts were better, and only 2,500 died weekly, it is recorded that a judge had to go to Westminster Hall, from Buckinghamshire, and that on his way through London, he drove over streets which were all overgrown with grass, and empty of people; and he and his company dined on the ground in Hyde Park, on such provisions as they brought with them.

On the whole, the deaths in this fearful plague were estimated at 50,000.

In the next year, the disease having stayed its ravages, it was proposed that the coronation of the king should take place; but the queen would not be crowned, because the ceremony was performed by a Protestant bishop.

Very little harmony at this time subsisted between the king and queen, and it was plain that Charles was quite out of patience with the French attendants, who ruled their mistress in everything, and were continually putting her upon measures very offensive to the English nation.

Henrietta, being young, and liking her own people and customs better than the English, was much to be pitied; but it was clear things could not go on thus, and one day the king, being much provoked by these French ladies and gentlemen, turned them all away, and desired them to go back to France.

In vain did they rebel against this order, while the little queen broke the window in her passion; the king was obstinate; at the same time behaving very handsomely to them, giving them all their full salaries, in return for which, it was said, "they got possession of all the queen's wardrobe, except one old satin gown, which they returned her."

Then, as they still lingered, loth to go, the king sent to say, it was his pleasure they should at once depart; if not, his yeomen had orders to turn them from the gates of Somerset House.

It may be supposed what a commotion all this change made in the queen's household, since the whole number of French servants, and officers, and hangers-on, was little short of three hundred.

Not one of these would Charles ever allow to return again, except the queen's physician; but he, at length, was prevailed on to admit forty-six persons in their stead. The queen was also to have a bishop and confessor, and several other priests of her own persuasion, and from this time the king lived much more happily with his wife.

The *first* parliament which met the king on his accession to the throne, occasioned him great vexation, and not without some reason; it was certainly the Commons who had urged King

James to a war with Spain, and now that money was required to carry it on, they showed themselves very reluctant to give it.

The king did not indeed ask for supplies graciously; and with regard to any concession, "he wanted a way of giving," they said, "to make it pleasant:" thus they did not *begin* happily. The Commons saw at once, that if they were ever to regain the rights which had by degrees been taken from them, they must fight for every inch of ground; and they therefore refused to give large supplies, in order that the king might be obliged to comply with some of their demands.

But this plan proved the occasion of other evils; for the king, provoked with their conduct, dissolved one parliament after another, and tried, at length, to do without them altogether, by raising money in oppressive and illegal ways.

The parliament was, for the most part, composed of well-educated, and very able, honourable men; the private characters of most were without reproach, and nothing could exceed the steady and manly dignity with which, long before they knew their own power, they asserted what they thought right.

Nay, there is every reason to believe, that they felt grieved to the heart at the king's proceedings, and would willingly have sacrificed much to set him right; but it was utterly impossible to make him sensible that *rebellion* is one thing, and to contend for the just and chartered liberties of the people, another.

And the king sometimes sent the offending

members of the House to prison, and sometimes inflicted the most cruel punishments on those who dared to write in favour of the people; yet still new parliaments pursued the same course.

At length the quarrel became so serious, that for eleven years no parliament at all was summoned in England, and the people were rendered indignant by the illegal manner in which money was extorted from them for the king's necessities.

Charles was always decent in manner, grave, and attentive to the forms of religion: he was also, as he grew older, a more and more confirmed Protestant. There is no reason to doubt his sincerity on these points.

But one of his grand advisers, Archbishop Laud, gave great alarm to the people by his love of ceremonies, which they thought Popish, and by his severity towards the strict Puritans.

A very large number of the people, particularly among the respectable well-educated classes, were now Puritans; and during the first years of Charles's reign, they petitioned only for their just rights as peaceable subjects. But afterwards, when parties ran high, they became unreasonable, and it was extremely difficult to know where they would stop.

They were often very tyrannical in their practices, and ridiculously precise in the smallest particulars: for instance, they mostly adopted the fashion of cutting their hair very close all round the head, so that they got the name of Round-head; and if any one of their party wore his hair long, according to the usual custom of the

times, it gave rise to doubts of the sincerity of his religious profession.

Charles's party were called *Cavaliers*; and, because the Puritans were so precise, the Cavaliers were much inclined to the other extreme. They prided themselves on their freedom and ease; used bold and often profane language, (though the king set them no such example,) and sported and revelled freely on the Sabbath.

Of course this is given merely as the general character of the parties; for some there were among the parliament party, who were far removed from bigotry or vulgarity, while some of the king's friends were sober, upright, and religious characters, following him out of a loyal feeling, because they disapproved of the measures of parliament.

At length, after reigning without a parliament for eleven years, the king found it necessary (in April 1639) to assemble one: this, however, he dissolved in anger; but three months after, on the 5th of May 1640, summoned another, and its members, being afraid that he would dismiss it as others had been dismissed, passed a bill, resolving that it should not be dissolved without its own consent: hence it was called the Long Parliament. Its work was heavy, but its diligence and zeal were great. It attacked and put down the Star-chamber, and some other grievances; and next attainted the Earl of Strafford, Charles's favourite minister, and sent him to prison to take his trial for high treason. This man resembled the king in his love of power, and also in his pride, and

obstinacy of disposition; but he was more able and sagacious than Charles, and would have saved him from some troubles, had all his counsels been followed.

Strafford was, however, brought to his trial, and though the king tried at first to save him, yet, when both the houses of parliament judged him guilty, and called on Charles to sign the bill declaring him so, he did it.



Charles I. signing the Earl of Strafford's Death Warrant.

This was an act for which he can never be excused. Strafford was his most faithful, attached minister; and Charles had promised him, in a letter written during his trial, that "upon the word of a king, he should not suffer in life, honour, or fortune."

Strafford, when he found all the people bent on his destruction, nobly begged his master not to let the thought of this promise trouble him, but to pass the bill for the sake of peace.

Yet, to his eternal dishonour, the king yielded, and gave him up to die, all the time knowing that the deeds of his minister had been mostly prompted by himself; and when Strafford heard of his master's weakness, he exclaimed, "Put not your trust in princes, nor in the sons of men, for in them there is no salvation."

The next day, he was beheaded on Tower Hill.

At last it came to open war between Charles and his parliament. The queen went abroad, and brought money and fire-arms from Holland; for the parliament, having possession of London, had all the guns and weapons in the Tower and Arsenal, and so began with great advantage.

And now England was involved in a civil war again, and people thought the days of the Roses were to come once more; but the parliament did not for a long time go so far as to think of deposing the king.

After the war had lasted some little time, Charles summoned a council of all those parliament-men who were on his side, to meet at Oxford, and refused to acknowledge any other parliament than this.

This Oxford assembly voted that the Lords and Commons remaining at Westminster, who had raised forces against the king, were guilty of high treason; and also it sanctioned a loan of one hundred thousand pounds for the king's present necessities.

But still, even this very parliament of the king's own selection showed itself distrustful of him; and its last act, before the session closed,

was to petition his majesty, "that the present irregular levies of contributions, loans, and taxes, for the maintenance of his armies, may not be drawn into precedent," with many other cautions, with which Charles was by no means satisfied.

The London parliament, meantime, had not been idle. The Puritans were now divided into two great parties, the Presbyterians and the Independents. Of these, the Presbyterian was by far the most intolerant.

Popery itself could not be more tyrannical. The holders of this system of religious doctrine and discipline in England, had suffered themselves and their country to be domineered over by the Scotch, who were bigoted adherents to it, and who made it a condition of their aiding the English against the king, that the London parliament should subscribe to a Covenant, renouncing the episcopal form of Church government, which had hitherto prevailed in England, and that this covenant should be imposed upon all classes, as far as possible.

Very many of the clergymen of England, who, nevertheless, were sincerely desirous of reformation both in Church and State, refused to take this covenant, and were reduced to beggary by their honesty.

English history has scarcely a more humbling page than this. • Cranmer, no doubt, was a persecutor as well as the Romish bigots of his time; but the world was grown older now, and ought to have been wiser.

Not long afterwards, Archbishop Laud, who had

particularly provoked the nation by his cruelties towards the Puritans, and his Popish practices, was brought out of the prison where he had now lain nearly four years, untried ; and the Commons proceeded to hear evidence against him, and to bring up a bill impeaching him for treason.

The Commons were in such haste to condemn the bishop, that they required the Lords to vote upon the bill against him without having heard any evidence ; and though the judges said none of Laud's acts amounted to treason within any statute, they insisted upon his condemnation, and the poor old man was beheaded in the seventy-second year of his age, when his time for doing injury was gone by, and when there was no excuse for such an act of cruelty.

The day after his death, the Liturgy of the Church was abolished ; and, besides that the Presbyterian discipline was established instead, an ordinance was made to the effect, that there should be a fast one day in every week, and the money spared by the family by fasting should be paid in support of the common cause.

The Independents made great efforts to resist the establishment of Presbyterianism. They were opposed to all attempts to oblige states or individuals to conform to any doctrines or modes of worship not fully approved by their consciences.

They said, " that the Christian religion, as contained in Scripture, shall be held forth and recommended as the public profession of the nation ; that none should be compelled by penalties

or otherwise to the public profession thus held forth, but that endeavours be used to win them to a sound doctrine, and the example of a good conversation ;”* and that, further, “all who profess faith in God, by Jesus Christ, shall be protected in the exercise of their religion, *provided this liberty be not extended to Popery or Prelacy.*”

Oliver Cromwell, who afterwards became the most powerful man in England, was of the Independent party, and struggled against the tyrannical Presbyterians, at first with little success, but afterwards gained many to his side, though the parliament was still much opposed to him.

However, his power over the army was supreme, and by means of it he succeeded in getting quit of the greater part of those members who would not come into his designs.

He was a bold, ambitious man ; at first, perhaps, as desirous as many others of obtaining what was right and fair, and no more ; but the times were now such that most men had allied themselves with one party or another, and they seemed to forget the common good in their eagerness to advance the interests of those different divisions.

Also, there was such a spirit of fanaticism abroad, that many persons really deemed they were acting for God, in the midst of their injustice towards men.

The king was now the prisoner of the parliament, having lost all his army, and most of his friends, and the queen having taken her flight also. It was a hard case ; for nowhere could he

* Cromwell's Ordinance for the Government of the Commonwealth.

look for help. None of the neighbouring kings assisted him, and he was left to be tried and judged by his offended subjects, without a voice being lifted up for him.

There can be no doubt that he had deeply provoked them. Some of his letters, which had fallen into the hands of the parliament, showed that he had no real intention to keep the different treaties which had been proposed. He seemed to have settled it with himself that the circumstances justified his making false promises, which he might afterwards break.



Trial of Charles I.

He stood before his judges with the firmness of a martyr, and throughout the whole of the business he behaved with great dignity and composure. The charges that were brought against him were, that he had been a "*tyrant*, because of his desire to reign as an arbitrary monarch; a *traitor*, be-

cause he had made void his trust towards the people; a *murderer*, because all the bloodshed of the civil war was to be attributed to him."

Upon all these points he was judged guilty, and condemned to die.

Many of those who had all along fought against the king, were very far from approving of his death. Indeed, it was but a small party of them who did so; the rest would have wished him to be deposed and banished, but nothing more.

Yet so it was, that a court of less than eighty persons, being confident that the people and the army were with them, prevailed over the opinions of all the rest, and carried through the whole sad and evil business.

And now that Charles found he was indeed to die, he put from his mind all thoughts but of his near approaching end; he saw the only two of his children who were in England, and parted with them, giving them advice, and sending kind messages to their mother and brothers; and he gave them a few jewels, all he had left, besides his blessing, to bestow upon them.

He obtained the attendance of Bishop Juxon, and spent the greater part of his time in devotion. When the fatal morning came, he went to his death, (the scaffold being erected in front of Whitehall,) endeavouring to the last to vindicate his conduct; but saying that he had suffered an unjust sentence (against Strafford) to take effect, which was now punished by an unjust sentence against himself.

He made a declaration of his adherence to the

Church of England. "There is, Sir," said Bishop Juxon, "but one stage more, which, though rough and troublesome, is yet a very short one. Consider, it will carry you a great way, even from earth to heaven." "I go," replied the king, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown."

He then laid his head down upon the block, and, after a few moments spent in prayer, he gave the signal by stretching forth his hands, and it was severed from the body at a single blow.



Execution of Charles I.

One loud groan burst forth from the multitudes below, who, a few days before, had been shouting, "Justice! justice! execution!" How many hearts repented and grieved for their desire of bloodshed, we know not; but among all those thousand people we cannot be wrong in saying, that there probably were few indeed who, a month afterwards, could undertake to vindicate the act which had sent an erring, mistaken man into

eternity, without the common forms of justice, even though some might still maintain the people's right to avenge themselves on a tyrannical king.



THE COMMONWEALTH. 1649—1660.

I TOLD you that the other sovereigns of Europe sat quietly by, during the trial and execution of Charles I., and that no one came forward to help him; but as soon as he was gone they were willing to share in the spoils of the monarchy.

For the Prime Minister of France, Cardinal Mazarin, bought the rich beds and hangings, and carpets, which had belonged to the late King of England, and furnished his own palace at Paris with them.

And the King of Spain's ambassador bought

the finest of his pictures, many of which were very valuable, as Charles had great taste in painting; and Queen Christina of Sweden was so kind as to buy the best of the medals, and some jewels, and also to purchase some pictures of the parliament agent.

And the Archduke Leopold of Austria likewise purchased with a large sum of money many of the best pictures which had adorned the royal palaces, so that art in England lost at this time some great treasures.

The parliament published a proclamation ordering that no person should presume to call Charles Stuart, son of the late Charles, king; also they said that it was found unnecessary and troublesome to have a king, and that all writs should henceforth run in the name of the Guardians of English Liberties under the authority of parliament. The House of Lords was abolished; but the Peers might be elected as knights or burgesses to sit in parliament.

It should be remarked that this great change wrought in the whole government of England was effected with a very small loss of life; and, although it was thought necessary to make a few examples of those disaffected to the Commonwealth, out of five noblemen brought to trial, only three suffered death.

The Prince of Wales, who in right of his father was now King Charles II., was staying, meanwhile, at the Hague, with the Prince of Orange, who had married his sister. His mother, Henrietta, was in France with her younger son, the Duke of York;

and she wrote to him, entreating him to come to her as soon as possible, and not to take any important measure without consulting her.

But her son was disinclined to go to France, having been somewhat affronted by the indifference of the French to his calamities; and as he was one who chose to act according to his own judgment, he did not wish to commit himself entirely to his mother's.

At the same time, he was in a state of great distress; for, though the Prince of Orange provided him with all that was necessary for himself, he had not enough to support his followers for even a day, and most of them were so poor they had nothing of their own to live upon.

While these exiles were debating how they should act, there came some commissioners from the Privy-council of Scotland, and also from the kirk or church of that country, declaring that, since the late king had been removed by a violent death, contrary to *their* protest, they were ready to give all allegiance to his heir and successor Charles Stuart, second of that name.

They acknowledged him for their true and lawful king; but still upon condition of his good behaviour and strict observance of the Covenant, and his entertaining no persons about him but such as were godly men and faithful to that obligation.

It was not very agreeable to Charles II. to accept of a crown from the Scots under these conditions; but he found himself encompassed by difficulties. He could not remain in Holland,

where the Government was reluctant to be involved in a war with the Commonwealth of England.

The Hollanders had called a meeting of *their* parliament, or states-general, and moved, "that it would be fit for the King of England to remove from thence." Charles having had a hint of this, immediately forestalled them, and announced his intention of departing.

It was then planned that he should pay his mother a short visit in France, and afterwards go to Ireland, where many of the people were friendly to his cause; and the Prince of Orange lent him twenty thousand pounds, which enabled him to pay his debts at the Hague and the necessary expenses of the journey and voyage, but not much more than this.

The young king and his mother had, at first, a sorrowful meeting, and had much to say of the melancholy changes in their affairs; but the queen's lamentations were soon changed into reproaches of her son, for the reserve of his behaviour to her; he did not choose to tell her all his plans, nor to give himself up wholly to her advice.

It was not without reason that he was cautious; for he well knew that the queen, his mother, was so very indiscreet, and so unpopular in England, that if he were thought to be governed by her, it would ruin him there for ever; but there was, besides this, a natural harshness and wilfulness about him, which made him very ungracious, at times, to those he ought to have conciliated.

Meanwhile, news came from Ireland which

altered his intention of visiting that country, Cromwell had been sent over by the parliament to subdue the Irish, and bring them into obedience to the Commonwealth, and those who knew him had little doubt he would succeed.

It was now August, 1649; and as Charles disliked being in France, and the queen, his mother, was disappointed in *him*, the difficulty was to know where he must dwell. All things considered, Jersey was decided upon, and there accordingly he stayed for a considerable time; the Scots sending to him every now and then, to know if he would sign the Covenant, and give up all his father's evil counsellors, and come and be their king.

Charles still disliked the terms of this proposal, and was unwilling to give up all chance of governing in a manner more agreeable to himself. Just at this time, also, a very daring Scotsman, called the Earl of Montrose, who had been a Cavalier during Charles the First's reign, and was a bitter enemy to the Scotch Puritans, raised an army in Holland and Germany, and invaded Scotland, and Charles secretly hoped to make better terms through his success.

But Montrose was soon defeated, and executed at Edinburgh. His enterprise, though a brave and gallant one, was inexcusable; for the Scots were already in treaty with Charles, and were only making such arrangements with him as they had a legal right to do.

Charles admitted this right, and soon afterwards went to Scotland on the terms they had proposed to him. Before he was allowed to land, however,

near Worcester, he fell upon the young king and the Scotch army, and was again victorious.

This Battle of Worcester took place on the 3d of September, 1651, and is a very remarkable one, as it caused the flight of Charles II., and the full



King Charles in the Oak.

establishment of the government without him. From this time England remained nine years without a king.

There is nothing in the history of wonderful escapes more wonderful than that of Charles II. after this battle. The parliament, immediately after it, offered a reward of 1,000*l.* to whoever would betray him; his enemies were numerous; and he was not well acquainted with the country.

The first day, he lodged in an oak-tree in Bos-

cobel Wood, on the borders of Staffordshire; he saw several soldiers hot in pursuit of him ride by; but by good fortune, a gentleman who was attached to his party was the only one who saw *him*; and this gentleman concealed himself also in the thick boughs, and when night came they got down.

They had to walk nine miles before they came to a poor cottage, the owner of which was known to Captain Careless, as the gentleman was called. The king had suffered greatly from the walk, his feet being hurt by his heavy boots; and when they arrived at this place, the owner could give them only some buttermilk and a lodging in the hayloft.

This poor man knew Captain Careless, but not Charles; and when Careless had seen him safely there, he thought it best to leave him, and seek out some way of further escape, while Charles remained two days in the hayloft.

At the end of that time, Captain Careless sent a man to conduct him to another house, above twelve miles off; and he changed clothes with his landlord, who, though he did not know him, suspected him to be a person of rank.

After great hardships and dangers, Charles was at length brought to the house of Mr. Lane, a devoted Royalist in Staffordshire. Here he received every possible attention; but still it was deemed necessary to get him quickly out of England, and for that purpose to take him nearer the sea coast.

Mr. Lane had a relation living near Bristol, which was a very convenient station to send him

to; but then, from the state of the roads, it was several days' journey, and they dreaded discovery.

After consulting together, it was thought best that Mr. Lane's daughter should go on a visit to her relation, a Mrs. Norton, and that she should ride thither on horseback behind the king, who was furnished with proper clothes, &c. for the journey.

As all ladies travelled on horseback at this time, it seemed nothing extraordinary: they were also attended by a servant in Mr. Lane's livery. When they came to a house, Mrs. Lane always introduced him as a neighbour's son who had had an ague, and was recommended to try change of air.

Nobody had the least suspicion of the truth; and they even rode quite through Bristol, where many people had formerly known him, with no remark; but when they got to Mr. Norton's house it was a holiday, and there were people on the lawn before the door, and the first man the king saw was a chaplain of his own.

He went with the horses to the stable, and meanwhile Mrs. Lane told her cousin the same story about his ague, and begged a chamber might be got ready for him. At dinner, the butler was sent up with something for William (as Charles was called) to eat, and while he was speaking to him, looking hard in his face, he suddenly fell on his knees.

The king at first tried to turn it off, but finding himself discovered, asked him who he was, and found the butler was a man well known to

the late king, his father, and himself; so he only charged him to be cautious.

Then the chaplain, whom he had seen before, having heard about William's ague, could not resist the desire to go upstairs and prescribe for him; and accordingly he did so, sat down by him, and felt his pulse, but did not know him.

These were some of his escapes; but before a vessel could be found to take him over to France, he had to pass through many more such. On one occasion, he went through a body of the parliament's horse, close by Desborough, one of the chief of Cromwell's friends.

He owed his life in a great measure to the poorest of the people, who would not betray him when they knew him, and also to some of the Catholic persuasion; in all, not less than forty people were privy to his concealment and escape.

Brighton was then a small poor fishing-town, and at this mean place Charles was, at length, so fortunate as to procure a little bark, which took him over to Normandy, from whence he soon made his way to his mother at Paris, after having been in Scotland and England one year and about three months.

It cannot be said all this time that the English people at large were averse to a monarchy, supposing that the oppressions they had heretofore complained of were to be done away; but Cromwell, the army, and the more violent of the Puritans, had force enough for the present to maintain a government of their own, and they knew well that in restoring the monarchy it was hardly possible

but that some of them would be called to a severe account for the late execution of their king.

There was not any one among this reigning party who could compare with Cromwell in ability, and in consistency of conduct. He loved power, no doubt; but also knew that, unless by taking some bold step he placed himself above control, not only must he be sacrificed, but the whole nation would be plunged into anarchy.

He had, not without reason, become dissatisfied with the present parliament, which was neither performing its promises to the nation, nor to himself; and full of wrath, and stirred up by the belief that a great blow must be struck then, or all would be lost to his cause, this extraordinary man entered the house with a few officers, leaving a body of soldiers at the door, and, addressing himself to the members, rated them severely, all the time walking up and down the house with his hat on, and after a short time, calling in his troops, desired them to clear it of all those traitors, pointing to the members.

Afraid for their lives, the members departed, and Cromwell declared the parliament dissolved, and locked the doors, carrying away the keys in his pocket. This occurred on April 20th, 1653.

At a council held no long time after this, it was decided that a select parliament of 139 persons should be called together by writs issued in Cromwell's own name, to sit only, however, for about fourteen months from that date; but about five months after its first sitting, this "Little Parliament" dissolved itself, and then a council of

Cromwell's chief officers and friends decided on electing him to be LORD PROTECTOR of England, Ireland, and Scotland.

The parliament elected under this new form of government, was not a servile or complying one: it did not allow of Cromwell's title without some difficulty, and decided that the protectorate should be elective and not hereditary. It was soon after dissolved, after about five months' sitting.

Cromwell soon found, in fact, as most usurpers have found, that it is more difficult to keep power than to gain it. Plots were forming against him: the royal exiles had their friends in England; and several attempts were made to assassinate him. He thought it necessary to take bolder steps still.

He gave up the idea of governing England by its old laws, and devised new ones. He divided the kingdom into districts, and placed one of his own military friends at the head of each, investing him with powers to collect an arbitrary tax levied on all who had in any way sided with the king in the late wars, provided their estates were worth more than a hundred pounds a-year.

As the late king had never done anything more harsh or illegal than this, it was to be expected that many would rise up against him: and Cromwell had indeed many enemies; and he deserved to have them, if ever the author of oppressive acts deserved a people's indignation. Among other things, what must we think of the man who could send Englishmen to the West Indies as slaves,*

* See here a note in Mr. Hallam's *Constitutional History*, vol. ii. p. 368. No less than fifty gentlemen were sold for slaves at Barbadoes.

merely because they were disaffected to his government ?

Yet, by his abilities, and especially by his foreign policy, he procured more respect for his country during his short reign (for though not a king he had all the powers of one), than it had possessed since the days of Elizabeth. He was courted and feared by all the sovereigns in Europe; and had his son possessed his talents, he would probably have continued in the same station.

It should also be said, that Cromwell's influence was most valuable to foreign Protestants: wherever they were oppressed by the Catholics, he succoured them, and generally succeeded in procuring better terms for them.

Cromwell's designs, good or bad, were, however, early cut off; a short and sudden illness ended his days in his fifty-ninth year, after about seven years of nearly supreme power.

His son Richard, who was allowed without any immediate opposition to succeed to the protectorate, was an amiable, peaceable young man, whose character and wishes would have disposed him to retirement; but when his father died, several of his most experienced friends and counsellors came round him, and some, who had for a time kept aloof, thought they could not now do better for their country than maintain the government as it was, since they found Richard Cromwell ready to listen to any suggestions for the benefit of the people.

They considered this as a far less dangerous course than that of calling back the Stuarts; but

it proved that their power was not equal to their wishes. The army was not willing to submit to a young man who knew nothing of war; and several of Cromwell's officers revolted against the government, and obliged the young protector to dissolve the parliament, soon after which he himself resigned the protectorate.

There was at this time a man in the army, of great reputation, who was yet in some degree suspected of an attachment to the royalist party; this was General Monk. It was true, he had steadily adhered to the parliament; but still the royalists had always some hopes of him, on account of his early connexions, and also because he was a moderate man in religion.

There is no reason to suppose he had any thought of restoring the Stuarts so long as young Richard Cromwell was protector: but after he had retired, his thoughts turned to them. He did not like the proceedings of the men who remained behind, but he did not immediately declare himself; and though he had a fine army under his command, he remained in London for some weeks, only sounding the opinions of different people and parties.

He behaved during this time with the greatest possible dissimulation: neither party knew on which side he was; but after a time, it was found that he had determined on seconding the wishes of those who desired Charles's return.

They who desired it were certainly very many. A vast number of the people, tired of the uncertainties of the government, and disliking the

power of the army, were heartily wishing for the old form of king, lords, and commons.

The parliament had, they well knew, given them great security against past evils. The Star-chamber was done away with. The Bill of Rights was the law of the land. They were not now, as in the beginning of Charles the First's reign, exposed to the evils which these reforms had remedied.

These considerations satisfied many of the moderate men; and as to the Cavaliers, they were too happy to have the old order of things restored.

Such of the people as were of a lively temper, not inclined to Puritanism, were also sure to be on Charles's side; and these were indeed so violent in their joy at the prospect of having a merry and pleasure-loving king among them, that their voices drowned those of the Puritans, who were far from easy at the thought of the change.

On the whole, General Monk found the people more disposed than might have been looked for to receive the king; and this being the case, he would not lose time, but sent to advise his addressing a letter to the parliament, which the king did, promising indemnity to all offenders, (except some, hereafter to be specified,) and to govern strictly according to the laws and customs of the kingdom.

The parliament willingly received this letter, and sent a reply full of compliments; they seemed to have passed at once from distrust to the most unbounded confidence: but it must be remembered that this parliament was a newly chosen one, and

that the people who selected its members were decidedly inclined to the Restoration.

Thus the civil war and the period of the Commonwealth came to an end; and Charles II. was placed on his father's throne on May 29th, 1660, being then thirty years of age.

You may feel some curiosity to know what became of young Richard Cromwell. He was not molested after Charles the Second's return, but thought it better to travel for a while.

On one occasion, when he was in France, he was introduced under a feigned name to a great man of the country, who talked with him about English affairs, and at last broke out into praises of Oliver Cromwell.

"But as for that poor, pitiful fellow, Richard," said he, "what is become of *him*? How could he be such a blockhead as to make no better account of all his father's successes?"

Richard probably held his tongue, and kept his secret; but he does not seem to have regretted his high station. His quiet life was lengthened to an extreme old age—till the latter end of Queen Anne's reign; and he seems to have gained much of the peaceable renown of "*the good Lord Clifford.*"

THE RESTORATION.

The Third Stuart.



CHARLES II. 1660—1685.

I HAVE already told you of the prodigious joy of the Cavaliers at the return of the king. He seemed so welcome to the nation, that, as it was said by himself, "the wonder was why he had not come before, since all seemed now so delighted to see him."^c

But some there were who went silently to their homes, and uttered no words, but waited to see what would next ensue; and some were shocked

at the thought of the risk the nation was about to run in taking back the exiles, without making stricter conditions that all the best provisions of the Long Parliament should continue in force.

Some, too, there were, who dreaded that religious men would now be oppressed, and that the king, and the Duke of York his brother, who had lived so long in Catholic countries, would return disposed to favour that religion rather than the Protestant.

There was one man in those days, now old and blind, who had proved himself one of the most useful and active friends of the people. He was a learned, liberal, noble-minded man, and in his younger time, when his education in England was finished, had gone over to Italy, to see Rome and Naples.

While enjoying the sight of all the fine buildings and libraries, and the beautiful country, news came to him that his countrymen were struggling to regain those liberties of which they had been deprived by the Tudors and their successors. And though this young traveller was reckoning on a still longer and more interesting journey, yet, when he heard what was going on in England, he could not indulge his tastes abroad; and he came home to help, as far as he could, by his writings, the cause he esteemed right.

And besides this, he gave up his whole estate to the use of the parliament; taking only in return the office of Latin Secretary to Cromwell, and a present of a 1000*l.* for a work called "A Defence of the People of England."

He entirely lost his eyesight in consequence of his diligence in preparing this work ; his enemies then taunted him, and said it was a judgment upon him.

But MILTON (for that was his name) replied, "that he neither repined nor repented ; that he had not found God was angry ; that with regard to this calamity, He it was who comforted and upheld him."

When Charles II. returned, great efforts were made to ruin Milton ; but he escaped, and was afterwards pardoned. He retired, however, to a private life, and there it was that he began and finished the poem of "Paradise Lost." Being blind, he could not write it himself, but used to call his daughters when he had composed a number of lines, and they wrote what he told them.

When he had sent out this wonderful work, almost the finest poem in our own or any other language, it brought him in only 15*l*. But Milton did not murmur, either at that or anything else. It did not matter much to him that he was not read or admired by the gay witlings of the court, whose poetry was as different as possible from his.

For his mind had been framed for heaven by contemplation. Though brought up among the Puritans, yet he was not sour or morose : he could not bear the tyrannical endeavour to bind the consciences of his fellow-creatures, and wanted all to be free.

This man was one of those I have mentioned, who said nothing, but thought much, when their

countrymen recalled Charles Stuart. There may have been but one Milton; but many there were who, like him, felt apprehensive of evil days to come.

Nor were their fears vain. All were to suffer in turn. Charles II., though in himself he was neither malignant nor tyrannical, was unfeeling, profligate, and had no belief in the sincerity or virtue of any human being.

He was clever and shrewd, and acted with a good deal of prudence towards the nation at first, and paid some regard to the Puritan party as well as to the Cavaliers; but the latter having gained a large majority in the parliament, proceeded to act with great harshness towards the former.

You remember that the Long Parliament in the civil war took away the Book of Common Prayer, and required the clergy either to sign the Covenant, or lose their livings, and that many *did* lose them on this account; one-fifth, however, of the profits of these livings was settled on them for their lives by the parliament.

But the Cavaliers were not so indulgent. *Their* parliament required that all the clergy who were in possession of livings when Charles returned, should be again ordained, (if they had not already been ordained by a bishop,) should abjure the Covenant, and express their assent to everything in the Book of Common Prayer, by a certain day, or else give up *the whole* of their livings.

Accordingly, about two thousand ministers of religion, who could not conscientiously do what was required, gave up, in one day, all their means

of support, and, in consequence, underwent the greatest hardships.

But this was not enough ; for the next year the Cavalier parliament passed an act declaring, that wherever *five* persons above those comprising the household assembled for religious purposes, every one above the five was liable to pay five pounds, or to be imprisoned three months ; higher fines and transportation were to follow a second and third offence.

So that now no congregation of worshippers could meet but in a church, and under the control of the Episcopacy. And, in the end, any poor minister who had tried to evade this act, even *once*, was forbidden to come within five miles of that place.

And these seceders could not be accused of any disloyalty. On the contrary, there were none who prayed more heartily at all their meetings for the king and the government. The harshness of the government towards these scrupulous men occasioned sorrow to many who differed widely from them. It was, indeed, as contrary to charity and true religious liberty, as those wars against the Albigenses, of which we read in the days of Henry III. ; the only difference being that the government did not now condemn those who differed in faith and worship to the sword or torture, but to fine and imprisonment, which will no more than the former^s weapons convert the heart, or make men to be of one mind.

And if the government of Charles II. was cruel towards the Puritans in England, still harsher was

it in Scotland, for there the people were almost all devoted to their own form of Church government, and their dislike to the English Church was quite a ruling passion; and yet this form of worship was imposed upon them in despite of their parliament, and under the severest penalties.

There, indeed, the means taken for enforcing submission were nearly as cruel as any of which history tells us in its past pages: a son was put to death for aiding the escape of his father, a wife for refusing to give up her husband, and tortures were inflicted in many cases on the innocent.

The people at length, goaded into rebellion, appeared in open arms, and then new cruelties took place, of which, and of much that ensued in Scotland, there is not room here to speak; but the most remarkable part of the whole is the attachment which the Scots manifested, through all this ill treatment, for the house of Stuart, their own ancient line of kings.

It might have been expected, after all the distress Charles had suffered in his younger days, that he would be somewhat the more thoughtful and provident now he was a king; but perhaps no monarch of England was ever so shamefully profuse, or neglected the payment of his just debts with so little remorse.

He was a splendid dresser, and lavished stores of wealth on banquets and horses, and women. No regard was paid to decency at his court. Drinking, swearing, gaming, and rioting, filled up the Sabbath evenings; and when the plague broke out worse than ever in London, (1665,) the king

and his courtiers were in such haste to have their jovial meetings again, that they ordered a General Thanksgiving to be offered up for the disappearance of the disease, when it was well known still to prevail.

Another calamity followed close on the plague, and this was the great fire of London, A.D. 1666, which broke out in a baker's shop near London bridge, and spread so rapidly as to burn down in its course no less than thirteen thousand two hundred houses, and to occasion a loss of property amounting to nearly eleven millions of pounds.



Great Fire of London.

The streets of London were at this time very narrow, the houses chiefly of wood; it was a dry season too, and a strong east wind prevailed, so that no efforts could save the closer part of the city; and the only way by which the flames could at length be stopped, was by blowing up houses in various directions with gunpowder, so as to leave

intervals between the burning houses and other dwellings.

The king and his brother were, on this occasion, very kind and active in assisting the people; and as several thousand citizens were turned adrift into the fields without clothing or food, they exerted themselves to provide them shelter and necessaries.

Nothing could indeed be more distressful than the sight of these sufferers. "I went," says one who was a spectator of the whole, "towards Islington and Highgate, where one might have seen two hundred thousand people of all ranks and degrees dispersed and lying along by the heaps of what they could save from the fire, deploring their loss; and though ready to perish from hunger and destitution, yet not asking one penny for relief, which appeared to me a stranger sight than any I had seen before."

Only eight lives were lost in this fire, strange as it may seem, while the late plague had swept off 68,596 persons. The cathedral church of St. Paul, eighty-nine parish churches, the Royal Exchange, the Guildhall, the Custom House, many schools, hospitals, &c., were destroyed. The ruins covered four hundred and thirty-six acres, while the part of the city left standing covered only seventy-five.

The closeness and unwholesomeness of London before this trying event, have already been mentioned; but it is not easy to persuade those who are suffering from very great and present losses, to dwell much on the future good which may result from their calamity. Thus when London was to be

rebuilt, the citizens were clamorous for a complete and exact restoration of their old homes, even with their old inconveniences ; their shops, their warehouses, all were precious in their eyes, and it was difficult to resist their eagerness.

The king and government had a hard duty to perform ; allowance must be made for their difficulties ; but had they been somewhat more firm, it would have been better for the city. Sir Christopher Wren, one of the greatest men of his time, quickly surveyed the whole of the destroyed part, and designed a model of a new London, which, had it been carried out, would have been very superior to the plan adopted. It was found impossible, however, to accomplish it, on account of the opposition and haste of the citizens ; but in spite of this it was certainly improved in the re-building. Brick and stone, instead of wood, were employed, and the plague from that time disappeared.

Many of the finest public buildings in London which bear date soon after this time owe all their beauty to Sir Christopher Wren : where he was not permitted to *finish*, he so far planned and began that others merely worked after his designs.

The greatest of his works however, by far, was St. Paul's Cathedral. About this magnificent building Wren was occupied thirty-five years ; the first stone was laid in June 1695, the *choir* was finished, so as that Divine service could be performed in it, by December 1697, and in 1710 the whole building was complete. When it was finished, Wren rested from his labours ; but so long as he lived, that is, five years, he was carried by his own request once

every year into this great church, to feast his eyes on the sight of his work.

The churches built in whole or in part by Wren, under his directions or from his plans, were fifty-one in number.* He built the Royal Palace at Greenwich, (afterwards enlarged and converted into the present Hospital,) the Monument, the Royal Exchange, part of Hampton Court, and Chelsea Hospital.

Other artists were busied during the reign of Charles II. in public and private works. Vanddyke, the great painter, was gone; and Sir Peter Lely was his inferior successor. Gibbons, whose beautiful carvings in wood are to be seen in many of Wren's churches, and also at Chatsworth and Burleigh House, and numerous other places, was now at work. In music we had Purcell and other fine composers.

The habits of the people throughout the country had not been very much changed since we last adverted to it; the bulk of the middle classes retained the old early hours and their English fare, though the court and nobles adopted many of the French fashions. Tea was still expensive, two pounds and two ounces of that article having been procured by the East India Company for Charles II. in 1664, at forty shillings the pound; but it was considerably lowered after twenty years. Holidays and sports, which were forbidden in the time of the Commonwealth, were revived in the reign of Charles II. The numbers of the absolutely poor

* Among these are St. Stephen's, Walbrook; St. James', Piccadilly; St. Andrew's, Holborn, and the spire of St. Dunstan's in the East.

and unemployed seem to have been great. The yearly wages of a bailiff in husbandry were now fixed (A.D. 1682) at 6*l.*, a chief husbandman 5*l.* a dairymaid or cook 2*l.* 10*s.* About this time, mutton was considered to be worth 1*s.* 4*d.* the stone of eight pounds. Iron-works and coal-works employed many hands, also the woollen and linen manufactories, and the spinning of flax and hemp, all done by the common spinning wheel.

Benevolent men, anxious to improve the condition of the people, established schools and factories in various places, where children were taught spinning and knitting, essential arts in those days.

In a book called *The Complete Tradesman*, published in London in 1684, there is a curious account of the public conveyances of that time.

It says there was then not more than *one* vehicle sent out to any one place in England, and there were not on an average more than *forty-one* departures in a day from London. There were about eighty-two Inns at this time in London, Westminster, and Southwark; *now* there are upwards of five thousand.

The latter part of the reign of Charles II. is chiefly remarkable for the great efforts made by the parliament to exclude his brother and heir, the Duke of York, from the succession.

As a Catholic, the Duke was most unwelcome to the nation, and Charles himself had no son; but the king conquer'd the resistance of the people, and dying after but a short warning of illness, James II. mounted the throne without immediate opposition.

The Fourth Stuart.



JAMES II. 1585—1688.

THE brother of Charles II., who now came to the English throne, was a Catholic. A sincere one, for he never disguised his faith, nor wished to appear other than he was.

He had married, for his first wife, the daughter of Lord Clarendon, and had, by her, two daughters, Mary and Anne. These daughters were well and carefully educated; and, though both father and mother were Catholics, while *they*, as heirs to the English throne, were brought up by Protestant teachers, they lived in great peace and harmony, so long as they remained under the same roof.

When these daughters grew up, the people of England were of course anxious concerning their marriages; feeling it to be of great consequence

that they should marry Protestant princes. Mary, therefore, was married to William, Prince of Orange; and Anne, some years afterwards, to George, Prince of Denmark.

But, their mother being dead, James II. married again, and had a son, who was brought up a Catholic, and was never called by any other name than that of "the *Pretender*" to the English throne.

The Princess Mary, who had married the Prince of Orange, went to Holland with her husband; but Anne remained living in London with Prince George, and had several children, though only one of them survived his infancy. Two years after Anne's marriage, her uncle, Charles II., died, and her father came to the throne.

You know that the nation had expressed great dread of his bringing in Popery, and had even wished to exclude him from the throne on that account. But during the last years of Charles the Second's life, when he reigned without a parliament, that king had so far got the mastery over the people, that they submitted to his brother James without any difficulty; and his first parliament was a very complying one, its members trusting every thing to the king's word, and giving him all the money he asked for.

Not long afterwards, the Duke of Monmouth, who was a natural son of the late king, took occasion to build some hopes for himself on the knowledge of the dread the nation entertained of Catholicism, and, landing in Dorsetshire with some soldiers, many of the common people joined him.

Very soon, however, were they defeated, and Monmouth, being taken prisoner, was beheaded ; but this invasion, and the knowledge that some of the people had joined the rebels, were made the excuse for a most terrible and severe inquiry.

Many who were but suspected were put into prison ; and a savage and corrupt judge, named Jefferies, being sent down to try them, behaved in so violent a manner towards the juries, that they were often led to return a verdict of guilty, in order to escape ruin to themselves.

Women of rank and fortune were treated in the most cruel manner. One venerable old lady was burned alive, merely for having given shelter to a rebel ; and it would be a weary business to mention half the cruel and oppressive acts which marked the four years of James's reign.

It cannot be denied that the people were disposed to be too bitter and intolerant towards Catholics ; yet it was happy that the bare idea of the Protestant religion being in danger, had so strong an influence ; for, but for this strong feeling, it is probable that our civil and religious liberties would have been entirely lost at this time.

Through means of the king's zeal for the Romish faith, and the nation's zeal *against it*, the danger was averted. James had roused up a spirit which was too strong for him ; and the people, who had allowed him to set their laws at defiance, broke loose at once when he sent seven of the bishops to the Tower, because they could not obey him by reading an act of indulgence to the Catholics.

At this time the king's daughter Anne, writing

to her sister Mary in Holland, said, "Things are come to that pass now, that, if they go on much longer, I believe no Protestant will be able to live." * * * "But I am resolved to undergo anything rather than change my religion ; nay, if it should come to that, I had rather live on alms than change."



Seven Bishops sent to the Tower.

Soon after the affair of the bishops, and after the birth of a son to King James, the nation being thoroughly convinced that a Catholic king was likely to overthrow all their Protestant institutions and liberties, began to turn with great anxiety to the Prince of Orange ; and several of the chief men in the kingdom wrote to entreat him to come over to England and save them from their perilous situation. *

William, Prince of Orange, was an upright, prudent, brave, and honest man. He had saved his own country from ruin, and now he was ready

to do the same for England, showing the utmost regard to the laws, and wishing for no more power than these would fairly give him.

James was extremely alarmed when he found that one loud cry for William was sounding from one part of England to another. He had been completely deceived by the complying temper of his parliament with regard to the measures of his government, and seems to have thought that a little more firmness only was necessary for the conversion of the English from the Protestant to the Catholic faith.

He turned pale and trembled. He tried to undo all his late acts: to restore the cities their charters, to replace the churchmen he had turned out of their livings, and even to caress the bishops.

But these measures came too late; all saw that he was in heart and soul a Stuart as to arbitrary political principles, with the additional evil of being a bigot in religion.

The prince of Orange, meanwhile, published a declaration, in which he set forth the oppressions of England, and said, that, by the request of most of the people of rank and consequence, he was coming over with an armed force, out of necessity, lest the king should set him aside; but that his aim was to see a free and legal parliament assembled once more to provide for the safety and happiness of the realm.

The prince soon followed his declaration, and landed at Torbay on the fifth of November, 1688. The people pressed to welcome him; and a petition for a free parliament was signed by twenty-

four bishops and peers of great distinction and presented to the king.



William III. landing at Torbay.

James, on hearing of William's landing, called together his army, and marched to resist his son-in-law; but so many of the soldiers and officers deserted to the prince, that he took alarm, and returned to London.

There a more bitter mortification awaited him, for there he learned that his favourite daughter, the Princess Anne, and her husband, had fled from his court, and were gone over to his enemies.

At this news, James's fortitude wholly deserted him. "God help me!" said he, bursting into tears, "my own children have forsaken me!"

As James had not been a bad or unkind father, he had a right to reckon on the affection of his daughters; but the separation from their parent in religious faith and feeling from their earliest childhood, and their hatred of the Romish faith,

had conquered, in a measure, their natural feeling for him.

Anne, indeed, never lost her filial reverence ; years afterwards, we find her entertaining scruples about reigning instead of her brother ; but Mary seems to have been easily decided to think only of her husband, and, as far as possible, to forget her unhappy father.

James, on finding himself thus alone, fled in a panic from London, and remained concealed in a ship on the river ; again he appeared, and made some attempts to gain over some to his side ; but finding all in vain, he yielded to his queen's advice, and made his escape to France.

The Prince of Orange was now the choice of the nation, as he had been the heir of the throne before the birth of James's son ; but he was not satisfied with the idea of coming in by conquest, or by the invitation of a party. Still further, he wished the government to be settled at once upon a good and right footing.

For this purpose it was thought best, as there was now no parliament sitting, and the parliament chosen in this reign had not been a free and legal one, to call together all those gentlemen who had sat in any of the parliaments of Charles the Second's reign, and also the Lord Mayor of London, the aldermen, and fifty of the common council.

Ninety of the peers and bishops had, before this, addressed the prince, requesting him to summon such a convention, and they declined reading a letter which their late king had sent them.

When this convention met, they voted that King James II. had broken the laws, and withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, had deserted the government, and the throne was therefore become vacant. They then settled the crown on William and Mary; and after their death, upon Anne: in case neither of them had children, it was afterwards arranged that the kingdom should go to the Electress of Hanover, and to her children.

Thus was this great revolution brought about without strife or bloodshed; and James II. ceased to be king.

WILLIAM AND MARY. 1688—1694.



WILLIAM (ALONE). 1694—1701.

AFTER the first fervours of joy at the arrival of the Prince of Orange had subsided, he proved not so popular a king as might have been expected.

One of the reasons for this, was a great coldness in his manner ; another was his being a foreigner, and having a too partial affection for his native subjects and country. He was a well intentioned and honest man, and it hurt him to find that the English had acquired the habit of mistrusting their kings, so that they did not give him credit for his honourable intentions.

He was very distasteful to his Scotch subjects, who retained, in spite of all their sufferings, a strong interest in their old line of Stuart kings ; and William was particularly hateful after the shameful massacre of Glenocoe, when a whole clan was treacherously murdered.

Nor was William for some time acceptable to a large number of the English clergy ; even although the resistance of the bishops had been one grand means of driving James II. away, yet in this they were governed by their dread of Roman Catholicism, and when the time of alarm was gone by, many of them scrupled about taking another oath to a new sovereign.

Eight of the bishops refused it absolutely, and so did also about four hundred of the clergy, who lost their livings in consequence ; and these *Non-jurors*, as they were called, having many friends among the people, formed a strong body, and were for years afterwards ready to join the partisans of the Stuarts.

I am afraid too that King William lost favour with many in consequence of his being of a tolerant mind, anxious to relieve the good of all parties from tyranny and hardship. It is very long

before a people which has been at war on religious grounds learns to admit the sacredness of conscience.

The Dissenters had been subjected in preceding reigns to great hardships; penalties were exacted from them if they did not go to church: the Quakers in particular were treated as traitors because they scrupled to take *oaths* of allegiance; but now an Act was passed, called the Toleration Act, exempting sectarians from pains and penalties. Yet still not all were included in the Act; Roman Catholics and Socinians were excluded.

The king pressed this Bill forward, for he was a just man, and he thought compulsion on religious subjects cruel and unwise; and it was duly passed, to the great relief of many persons. Yet still a Dissenter, before he was admitted to any public office, was obliged to receive the Holy Sacrament at church, and this was the means of much profanation of that sacred rite. The laws against Popery were also made very severe, and even cruel and unjust.

The Scots, meanwhile, though they had grievances to complain of, were favoured by a return to their old Presbyterian mode of government, and the abolition of Episcopacy.

James II., after a time, made a desperate attempt in Ireland to reseat himself on the throne; and William was obliged to go thither and fight against his father-in-law. After gaining a great victory, called the Battle of the Boyne, he succeeded in firmly establishing himself, and James

was obliged to return to France, where he died in the year 1700.

Meantime Queen Mary and her sister Anne (who was next heir to the throne after the death of William and Mary) did not cordially agree. Anne's friend, the Countess of Marlborough, was thought to have persuaded Anne to demand of her brother and sister a settlement of 70,000*l.* a year, which both William and Mary thought a very unreasonable demand; and after much disputing, Anne agreed to be satisfied with 50,000*l.*

The Countess of Marlborough was much blamed for having urged the Princess Anne to make this demand; and the king and queen were so greatly displeased, as to deprive Lord Marlborough of all his offices, and banish his lady from the court.

Anne would not let her depart alone, but at once removed with her husband and children from the palace: and Lady Marlborough kept up the quarrel between the sisters, who were both, naturally, of kind and peaceable dispositions. Mary, who was a cleverer woman than Anne, and very exemplary in performing her duties, could not bring herself to be on friendly terms with her sister again, though she sent her a forgiving message upon her death-bed, and Anne afterwards went as usual to the court.

Upon Mary's death, Anne stood nearest to the throne after the king; but she had the grief of losing her own son, by Prince George of Denmark, the last born of six children, who died in his eleventh year, in consequence of over-heating himself when dancing on his birthday.

This was a heavy sorrow to Anne. Her son was a very amiable, promising boy, the delight of every heart; and in losing him she seemed to lose again all her other children. She never could mention him without bursting into tears, for years afterwards.

The nation, too, grieved; for the loss was great in every point of view. It may be sometimes necessary, but it is never agreeable or desirable to have to seek one's monarch in a foreign land; and this was what the people believed they must do, now that their own native prince was no more.

James II., however, the father of Anne and Mary, still lived in France; and the Catholics, (of whom there remained a great many in England,) and all those who were attached to James and his family, hoped that now the queen had lost her son, the crown would again revert to her father.

She appears to have written to James, informing him of her son's death, and very respectfully asking whether he would object to her accepting the throne, if it pleased Providence to remove King William; telling him at the same time what had been the decision of the English Houses of Parliament.

James answered this letter, desiring her on no account whatever, as she valued her duty to him and heaven, to seat herself on the English throne, which he told her would interfere with the rights of his son, her brother, who was afterwards called *the Pretender*.

How Anne might have acted if her father had

survived King William, I cannot pretend to say; but a few months afterwards he died in France, and shortly afterwards King William, whose health had been long declining, expired, in the fifty-second year of his age: and Anne was immediately proclaimed Queen of England, March, 1702.

The trade of England rather fell off in the reign of King William, but there were some branches of industry which only then began to flourish. Most of the hats worn in England had up to this time been made in France; but now we began making for ourselves; and nearly all our glass also, which had been imported till this time, began to be manufactured in England. The French king Louis XIV. having persecuted the Protestants in his dominions, many of them came to England, bringing with them their useful and beautiful arts; so that the manufacturers of ribbons, silk, cutlery, &c., all flourished from this period.

The Last Stuart.



ANNE. 1702—1714.

HAD Anne refused the crown, England would immediately have been involved in a civil war. One party would have called over the Electress of Hanover, and made *her* queen; and another (the Catholics) would have set up the Pretender, Anne's brother.

There were at this time two great parties in England; we can hardly understand what follows without knowing something of them.

One party was that which brought about the Revolution of 1688. They maintained that, the Protestant religion being the religion of the state, and the king being head of the Church, no Roman Catholic could lawfully be king; that the King of England ruled under the influence of certain laws,

and that, if he broke those laws, the people were justified in dethroning him and choosing another.

They said that James II. had forfeited his right to the throne, both by being a Catholic and by certain illegal acts ; and that as the parliament had chosen another monarch, and fixed the succession, he and his family had no longer any right of interference. This party was called the *Whig* party.

The other party was called the *Tory* party : its leading men maintained that the power given to a sovereign was derived only from God, and not from man ; they deemed the will of the king still more binding than the law of the land, in everything but religion ; that however wicked he might be, it was criminal to depose him, except when the religion of the state was endangered.

They thought the family of James II. reigned by Divine right. Most of these Tories were Protestants, but preferred the Catholics to the Dissenters. The immediate ground of strife was, that the one (the Tories) were constantly endeavouring to bring back the banished family, while the Whigs wished the succession to remain as parliament had settled it.

It was very natural that a woman like Anne, who was of an affectionate disposition, and not strong minded, should wish first to favour those she loved ; and she would have liked her husband to be proclaimed king, but that the nation overruled her.

George of Denmark was not ambitious himself, and was willing to remain merely the first subject

of the crown : all the queen's favours, therefore, were at her own disposal, and she showered them upon the Marlborough family.

The Earl was made Captain-General of the English armies. His lady was Mistress of the Robes, and Keeper of the Privy Purse ; and her daughters and their husbands were also promoted to offices of honour and trust.

Nearly all these people were of the Whig party. After these arrangements were made, the queen was crowned ; and her husband, very quietly and contentedly, walked in the procession, as first prince of the blood.

It is singular that Anne, who was herself very quiet and pacific, should have been engaged in one long war, during her whole reign : she was not expensive in her own habits, and yet more English money was lavished by her than had ever been spent in an equal time before in England.

This was owing in a great measure to her claim to the throne being a disputed one. The king of France, Louis XIV., who was the most powerful monarch of the day, had taken sides with her brother, the Pretender. And nearly all the powers of Europe, Anne among the rest, were obliged to unite for their common defence against the encroachments of Louis.

Anne was scarcely come to the throne, when she declared her intention to join these allies ; and all the Whig party approved of this war, fearing the power of Louis, and his success in forcing the son of James II. upon them.

Lord Marlborough proved himself one of the

greatest generals England has ever seen ; and after having done his duty well one season, was made a duke ; so that Anne's friend was now Duchess of Marlborough.

Meantime, the queen made herself very popular at home. She gave 100,000*l.* a-year out of her own fortune, to the service of the state ; and she settled also a certain sum to be divided among the poorer clergy, which sum is called even now "Queen Anne's bounty."

There must have been slow progress in the political requirements of the English people, even after the Revolution, if we notice the fact, that there was but one daily newspaper, (the *Orange Intelligencer*,) for the whole of William's reign, published in England ; but in Queen Anne's there were eighteen weekly papers, in addition to one daily one ; and in the reign of George I. there were three daily, six weekly, and ten three times a week.

You have heard that in the reign of Queen Elizabeth there were a great many very celebrated writers, as well as statesmen and generals ; so it was also in the reign of Queen Anne. There was then indeed no poet at all equal to Shakespeare ; but there were some very witty, clever, able writers, who exercised a great deal of influence.

One of these was Sir Richard Steele, who published a paper called *The Tatler*, which used to be printed in London, and published by breakfast-time in the morning.

It was quite a new thing in England, and was

thought a great deal of; and it certainly did a great deal of good, sometimes by severely remarking on the vices of the time, and sometimes laughing at its follies.

After it, followed another work, called *The Spectator*, which was published every day except Sunday; Saturday's paper being generally a religious one. Mr. Addison, another great writer of the day, conducted this: he was the author of several beautiful hymns; one of them, "The spacious firmament on high;" another, "The Lord my pasture shall prepare." The *Spectator* went on till there were six hundred and thirty-five papers, which, in old-fashioned libraries, are generally to be found bound up in eight volumes.

Some of these papers in the *Spectator* are beautiful sermons, and some, on the other hand, are very diverting; they give a curious and faithful idea of the manners of the people of Queen Anne's reign; and while you are reading them, you seem almost to see before you the ladies, in their large hooped petticoats, and their flame-coloured hoods; and the gentlemen, in their great periwigs and red-heeled shoes.

Addison says of the ladies of those days, "They let the hair of their heads grow to a great length; but tie it up in little knots, and cover it from being seen: while the men buy up an enormous bush of hair, which covers their heads, and hangs down in a large fleece behind their backs, with which they walk up and down the streets, and are as proud of it as if it was of their own growth."

The Spectator, however, afterwards commends the ladies of his time, for certain rational reforms in dress.



Costume of Queen Anne's Reign.

It seems that in the early part of Anne's reign, he "remembered several ladies who were once very near seven feet high, that at present want some inches of five," the fashion in these first years being to wear monstrously high heads and caps called towers and commodes; but the greatest novelty brought in by Queen Anne was the hoop, which soon grew to an enormous size, so that it is said of some country ladies, as a proof that they were unfashionable, that they could actually *walk* in their hooped petticoats without inconvenience.

Furniture was heavy and substantial, but very handsome; indeed, nothing now made is more beautiful, and the fashions of that day are eagerly

mitated now. Mahogany was first introduced into England about 1690, and became rapidly an article of great request. Tapestry was brought from France, and China and japanned articles from India were to be seen in every well furnished house; carpets also began to be made at Kidderminster.

With regard to more important matters, those connected with morals and education, the accounts we have of their condition, from the time of Charles II. to the reign of George III., are far from favourable. Doubtless, there must have been much of quiet and private worth, of which we hear little; but the days of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth must have been much more favourable, on the whole, to seriousness of character, than those of the period we are now considering.

The women were poorly educated; a fashionable lady was thought quite learned if she could write and read, and the books furnished for her were of the lightest, and often the worst kind. The stage-plays were very gross, so that a lady could not be seen at the theatre, if she wished to be thought respectable, without a mask. The fine lady's Sundays were very commonly spent in the park, or in card-playing; "and if she went to church, it was too often to see company, and make curtsies, rather than to pray."

The servants of such ladies were, of course, not likely to be wiser and better than those they served; every book of the time abounds with complaints of their laziness and luxury, pertness and pride. "Women servants are now so scarce,"

says one, "that from thirty or forty shillings a-year, their wages of late are increased to six, seven, and even eight pounds per annum; so that an ordinary tradesman cannot keep one."

There never was a time when parties were more violent than in the reign of Queen Anne. As a woman was on the throne, I suppose other women thought they had a particular right to meddle with the affairs of the court and the nation; and the Duchess of Marlborough set them a very bad example, from her great violence of temper and spirit.

The Spectator took great pains to bring the women to a feeling of the mischief they were doing by indulging themselves in saying all sorts of spiteful things, the Whigs of the Tories, and the Tories of the Whigs.

At that day, among a lady's *ornaments* were reckoned little black patches on her face. These patches, put on here and there, *we* should now think very ugly, unsightly things; but it was the fashion then, and almost every lady was *patched*.

The Spectator, in ridicule of this fashion, tells a story of the two rival parties of ladies going to the Opera; the Whig ladies with patches only on the left side of their faces, the Tories with them only on the right, to show which party they belonged to.

But, unfortunately, one of the Whig ladies had a mole on the Tory side of her face, which was very provoking, because it looked like a patch, and made her suspected by the Whigs; and one of the Tory ladies having a pimple on the Whig

side, was obliged to put on a patch there, which made her look like a Whig, to her exceeding great distress.

A great battle was fought, and a great victory gained by the Duke of Marlborough over the French King, at a place called Blenheim. In gratitude to Marlborough for his services in this battle, parliament built him a most beautiful palace, called Blenheim, at Woodstock, in Oxfordshire, near where the royal palace used to stand which Queen Elizabeth inhabited.



Blenheim House.

It is still one of the grandest nobleman's seats in England, and is surrounded by a very fine park and beautiful gardens.

Now you may suppose that the Duchess was in the height of her glory. Indeed she was; and well would it have been for her, had she known how to wear her honours with greater

meekness. The Duke, himself, though so great in arms, was of a peaceful spirit; he hated the calamities of war, and was ever anxious to soften its evils.

But his Duchess never tried to conquer her temper. Her behaviour to her husband, her children, and servants, was ever violent and trying; and though it might have been expected that deference for her royal mistress would be some restraint upon her, and prevent her giving way to such outrageous passions as she showed to her equals, it was not so; but instead of this, she became at length so insolent to Anne, as to oblige that queen to dismiss her from her service, which proved a terrible, though a just, punishment for her pride.

You are aware that, after the death of Mary Queen of Scots, and of Elizabeth of England, James I. was made king of both countries, and that from this time the sovereignty has been centered in one person. But, up to the year 1706, about the middle of Queen Anne's reign, Scotland had still a parliament of her own.

Now, however, it was thought better more perfectly to unite the two kingdoms, and to have but one parliament for all; and it was agreed that Scotland should send members to England, sixteen lords to the House of Lords, and forty-five gentlemen to the House of Commons.

And this was called the *Union* (with Scotland), and from that time the two kingdoms have been called Great Britain.

The queen's husband, Prince George of Denmark, was, as I have told you, much beloved by

Anne, and it was with great grief she saw him seized with a violent illness, in the autumn of 1709.

She watched over him with the tenderest care : no wife could more devotedly attend a husband. She sat up with him the last six nights, and saw him close his eyes in death with extreme sorrow. And it was at that time of grief that the duchess once more tried to get into favour again, still showing, however, her pride by sending a message to say she was willing to forget her majesty's "ill usage : " but the effort was entirely useless.

You remember that Anne had a brother, and that her father, James II., had forbidden her to wear the English crown, or stand in the way of his rights.

Her mind misgave her very much, respecting her own conduct in having accepted the throne ; and as she grew older, she became more and more uneasy. She did not like the family who were destined by the parliament to succeed her, and believed her brother to be the real heir.

But she had not courage to give up her crown while living ; and continued to trifle with her conscience, though all the time avowing to her intimate friends her belief that her brother ought to wear it. There are, indeed, some who say that she seriously proposed at one time yielding it up to him ; but, on consulting Bishop Wilkins, he told her that if she did, she would be in the Tower in a month, and dead in three months ; and upon this Anne dropped all thoughts of the matter.

She had a secret interview with this brother; but it was not possible for her, however well disposed to him, to alter the succession.

The war between England and France was finished, and peace was concluded in 1713; and from that time to the close of the queen's life there was peace in England.

In 1714 Anne's health rapidly declined. She, however, outlived the Electress Sophia of Hanover, who was the successor appointed by parliament; but this did not make any difference as to the claims of the Pretender, since the Electress's son, afterwards George I., was now the heir.

The poor queen's latter days were greatly disturbed by disputes among her ministers, who could not agree upon their measures: and at length, after a very fatiguing day and night of consultation among them, at which she was obliged to be present, she was seized with apoplexy, and died on the first of August, 1714, in her fiftieth year, having reigned twelve years and four months.

I do not think that any one can feel much respect for the character of Queen Anne. It had neither strength, nor amiable, engaging points.

She had no absolutely *bad* qualities, and some good ones; but she never steadily adhered to her most serious resolves, except when, as in the Duchess' case, she was made miserable by ill-behaviour, and then she showed little mercy or feeling. She deserted her father against her conscience, and repented, but did not act according to her impulse, for which England owed her a debt of gratitude, while it cannot respect her motives.

The House of Hanover.



GEORGE I. 1714—1727.

HISTORIANS have called Queen Anne “the last *Stuart* ;” yet George I., though of more remote descent, had no claim to the crown but as a *Stuart* too.

His mother, the Electress Sophia of Hanover, was daughter of the Queen of Bohemia, who was herself the daughter of James I.

Thus George I. was great-grandson, by the mother’s side, of the first *Stuart* who reigned on the throne of England ; but his father was also a prince in his own country, and after his death George governed Hanover as well as England.

He was fifty-seven years of age when Queen Anne died ; and as the act which had been passed

when King William and Queen Mary came to the throne made him the next heir, he repaired to England with his eldest son, Prince George, afterwards George II., and was speedily proclaimed king.

The great bulk of the English nation, devoutly attached to Protestant principles, and dreading lest any possible misfortune should seat another Stuart on the throne, gladly gave him welcome; yet much disappointment was occasioned by the manners and appearance of the new king, who was ungraceful in his person, had nothing princely or courteous about him, was subject to great and vulgar bursts of passion, could not speak English, and brought over, instead of a respectable queen, two coarse and ill-favoured women on whom he lavished all his favour.

It was soon found that the road to place and honour was best sought through the King's favourites, and yet, such was the position of the nation, that all its wisest men were glad to uphold the government of George I.; and as he was on the whole very ably served by his ministers, his reign was moderately prosperous abroad, and certainly promoted the peace of his subjects at home.

It was, however, disturbed by the endeavours of the Pretender and his friends, both in England and Scotland, (now called Jacobites,) to forward his claims to the crown, in which he was still assisted by France. The bravery and fidelity of the Scotch to the cause of the Stuarts brought down on themselves great calamities; many of the

Highland chieftains had embarked in the contest with a belief in its being the cause of right and loyalty, and when defeated and sentenced to be executed as traitors, they could hardly credit the fact of the fate that awaited them.

The prisons in London were crowded with these misguided rebels; and great was the severity with which their crime was punished; so much so as to occasion much discontent, and rather perhaps to aid than to weaken the affection with which the Scots, and many of the English, still clung to the banished Stuarts.

Meanwhile, George I. was far from happy in his own family. Continual quarrels between himself and his son the Prince of Wales, afterwards George II., made the Court a scene of turbulence and petty intrigue. The unfortunate queen, Sophia of Zell, the mother of this son, was the subject of more than one of these quarrels. Her son loved her and believed her innocent, but from the time of her being first confined by George I. in one of his castles, to the hour of her death, thirty-two years afterwards, he was never allowed to see her.

The wife of the Prince of Wales, afterwards Queen Caroline, who was a woman of great talent and very popular qualities, believed also in the innocence of her mother-in-law, and deeply lamented the cruel usage to which she was subjected. For, brought to no trial, and separated from every friend, she was doomed by George I. (in this one act more harsh and cruel than even Henry VIII.), to pine away all the years

of his royal rule in England, and death released her only a few months before his own decease.

The king divided his time between England and his own dominions in Hanover. He never learned to speak English even tolerably; and it is remarkable that his prime minister, Sir Robert Walpole, being unable to speak French or German, their conversations on business were carried on in Latin. Nor were they very ready in that language; so that Walpole used to say that, during the reign of George I. he governed the kingdom by means of bad Latin.

This Sir Robert Walpole was a man of strong sense and great ability, and he really loved his country, and desired its good; yet the means which he used to govern it produced much mischief, not to say crime.

For Walpole, finding the Court and its dependents in a very corrupt state, could think of no better mode of securing power, than by bribing and corrupting at a higher rate than had ever before been done. True it was, that the favourites of the Court had often before both taken and given bribes, but Walpole, as a regular minister of the Crown, made his influence felt all over the country; he accustomed Members of Parliament to receive payment for voting with the minister, and he taught the electors of members to sell their votes to the highest bidder.

He had, it is true, a very difficult part to play. It was of great importance to save the nation from French intrigue, and to preserve the Protestant line of succession; and in order to do this, he

required a great command of power in parliament. But, when a nation is led into habits of selfish buying and selling opinions and votes, its whole spirit is lowered and injured.

There was, indeed, during the whole of this reign, much public dishonesty ; there were several great gambling speculations in business, which ruined thousands of people ; but on the other hand, national industry increased, and the way was prepared for some of those valuable inventions which have added so much to human convenience.

I find that about eight years before the close of this reign, the first silk-mill in England was erected at Derby, by Sir Thomas Lombe. Until this time all the silk thread used by English weavers was brought from Italy ; but one of the brothers of Sir Thomas Lombe, who was a silk merchant in London, went over to Italy for the sake of learning the processes used in preparing the silk, and having succeeded, he obtained a patent for his machinery ; and so well did the new manufacture thrive in England, that, even in Italy, English-made silks were soon highly esteemed. Our mines were now worked better than before, and iron, copper, and brass became more plentiful. The steam-engine had not yet been set to work, but the way was in preparation through the means of many experiments.

The year 1727 witnessed the death of one of the greatest men England has ever known, Sir Isaac Newton, whose term of life had then extended to eighty-five years. He made most

valuable contributions to science, and was one of the early members of the Royal Society, founded in the reign of Charles II. Another great name of this period is that of John Locke, who died in 1704. Medicine also, the blessed art of healing sickness and lessening pain, made great progress in this and the two preceding reigns. It is scarcely possible to imagine any thing more absurd than the notions respecting the human body, its health and disease, which have from time to time prevailed among nations, even indeed among the most intelligent of men; and every great discovery has been at first scouted and abused.

Dr. Harvey, the first who ascertained the circulation of the blood through the arteries and veins, met with great opposition in this way from his medical brethren and others; but the truth he had ascertained took sure root, and the study of anatomy thenceforth flourished far more than before.

In literature, in the reign of George I., there were many clever, and some excellent writers. Daniel de Foe was one of these: his *Robinson Crusoe* appeared in the year 1719, (about eight years before the death of George I.) and his *History of the Plague*, about 1722. There are few English boys and girls who do not know the former delightful book.

Dean Swift, the author of many political books, some witty poems, and *Gulliver's Travels*, (which book was published during the last year of the reign of George I.) may be mentioned as one of

the principal writers of the time, as was also Pope, who survived the first George, and died in May 1744, about a year and a half before Swift. Young, also, the author of the *Night Thoughts*, and Thomson, the author of the *Seasons*, were living and writing at this period, though in their youth, and though not so fully known as in the next reign. Gay, also, the author of those *Fables* which most young people in England know, was a writer of George the First's time.

In painting, Hogarth was beyond comparison the most original genius of a period extending over both these reigns; but to him I may perhaps recur again.



Gentlemen's Costume.

Meanwhile, the manners of the higher orders of people seem to have retained much the same cast as those which prevailed in the reign of Queen Anne; nor, certainly, were the lower orders improved.

Though the population of London was so much less than at the present time, drinking houses appear to have been as numerous. *In Middlesex

alone, not reckoning the city and borough, there were 6,187 houses "wherein Geneva and other strong waters were sold." In some parishes every tenth, in others every seventh, and, in one, every

fifth house sold these drinks, besides the numerous street stalls, amply furnished.

The discomfort of foot passengers in our principal towns was great ; the streets even in London were mostly unpaved, or at least every tradesman paved the entrance to his shop in his own manner. The kennels were open on each side of the streets ; in rainy weather they were swelled so as to be nearly impassable, and there was only a narrow passage railed off by posts for foot passengers, which no one who had not some strength and courage could venture to take in foul weather ; for instead of allowing the weakest "to go to the wall," it was not unusual for the rough, rude passengers to drive them into the middle of the way. In the year 1736, London had only about a thousand lamps, and these were kept burning only till midnight, and for but one half of the year. Sedan-chairs for the ladies were much in use, and, indeed, could scarcely have been dispensed with.

The theatres were much frequented, but the kind of plays were extremely coarse ; and it is remarkable that the actors now, and until long after this period, always wore the dress, not of the time or country in which the scene of the play was laid, but that of the present fashion ; thus Cato was represented in a long wig and flowered gown, and Cleopatra in a hooped petticoat.

In the country, the gentlemen were, both during this and the following reign, devoted in an excessive degree to hunting, shooting, and drinking. The books of the day describe their manners in a very vivid manner, and we gather from them that

the squire in a country village was a person of almost as much actual power as formerly the lord in his castle had been. He was a magistrate, and enforced the punishments for every act of trespass; he was the owner of a stately pew in the country church, to which he walked every Sunday between rows of his bowing tenants; he kept open house at Christmas, and distributed, at that time, a pack of cards, and beer, to every poor family in the parish.

The Puritan part of the population were still separate from public diversions, cards, and holiday-makings, and though sometimes over-scrupulous, were undoubtedly the most respectable and consistent portion of the community; they rebuked the folly and profane swearing of the time, and stood firm in their rigid observance of the Sabbath.

In Scotland these severe manners were carried still farther; for there, among the strict Presbyterians, every cheerful game and recreation was forbidden. In the years 1719-21 the Presbytery of Edinburgh publicly denounced "all standing in companies in the street, (on Sundays,) all gazing out of windows and beholding vanities abroad, all walking through parks and fields," &c. This extreme minuteness of rigour had the effect of disgusting young people especially, and making them much less attentive to religious duties.

As the reign of George II. was much longer, we shall find it productive of many more changes than that of his father, which came to a close on June 10, 1727, while on a visit to his dominions in Hanover.



GEORGE II. 1727—1760.

THE Prince of Wales, now George II., was the only son of his father by Sophia of Zell, and was forty-four years of age when he came to the throne.

He was, as we have said, more liked than his predecessor in consequence of his greater familiarity with English habits and language ; and yet he was not by any means a popular monarch.

He was reserved, and cautious, and cold in his manners, yet both unequal and obstinate in his temper ; but he had the great advantage of a higher intellect, and a quicker perception of what was dignified than his father appears to have had.

He would not suffer his favourites to govern him ; and the sure way for them to lose their

influence over him, was to interfere with public matters.

He was, however, extremely covetous. This disposition was shown in a remarkable instance of meanness, not to say dishonesty, when he came to the throne.

The Archbishop of Canterbury gave him the will of his father, George I., soon after the death of that king. He thrust it into his bosom, walked out, and never brought it forward: it happened, however, that another copy was in the possession of one of the late king's mistresses, and she, knowing that it contained a legacy of 50,000*l.* to her daughter, consulted an attorney, who applied to the king, and he, dreading to have the will (which doubtless contained other legacies) brought forward, paid the money, which but for this, in all probability, would have been neglected.

George II. had the highest opinion of his queen, Caroline, who was a worthy, and also a clever and very intelligent woman.

She used to enjoy the company of men of learning, and particularly liked to converse with divines, as she was well read in her Bible, and extremely interested in all religious questions.

She was sincerely devout, and earnest in the performance of her religious duties; and in her last severe sufferings showed a patience and submission which impressed all hearts. She was also a good mother, and took great pains with the education of her children.

Sir Robert Walpole was a still greater favourite with George II. than with his father; and, though

many great and able men appeared during this reign, the reins of government were in his hands through nearly all of it.

He was not, if we may judge by the many riots which took place during his ministry, a favourite with the common people ; they disliked some of his acts very much.

The brutal manner in which these riots were conducted called for much temper and judgment in dealing with them.

Highway robbery was then, so common, that travelling without a number of attendants and arms was hardly safe ; and so low were morals, that many young gentlemen of respectable family were known to have joined in the schemes of robbers.

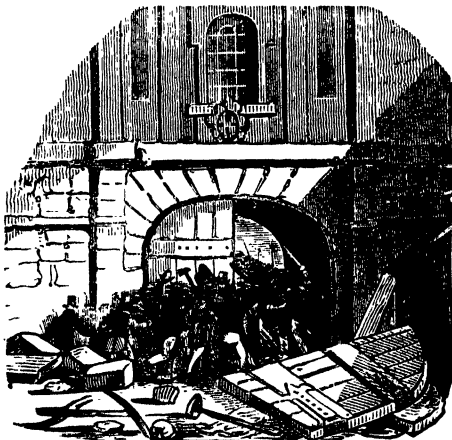
A man of the name of Wilson, who had been a daring culprit, was sentenced to be hanged at Edinburgh, and after the execution the mob threw stones at a Captain Porteous, who was appointed to superintend it.

Porteous hastily ordered his soldiers to fire, when five people were killed and several wounded.

As he had fired without any orders from the magistrates, Captain Porteous was, in his turn, tried for murder, and was condemned to death.

But as it was found that stones of considerable size had been thrown at him and his men, and the jury could not agree about the terms of the verdict, Queen Caroline, who was regent in the absence of her husband in Hanover, sent a respite for six weeks, for the purpose of giving time to inquire into the case.●

The mob, being greatly enraged at this delay, which they thought was the same thing as a pardon, determined to take the law into their own hands ; and, accordingly, they rose suddenly in



Edinburgh Mob breaking open the Prison.

the night, seized the city gates, drove out the magistrates, and proceeded to break open the prison where Porteous was confined.

Nothing could exceed the determination of these people. It was a long time before they could make any impression on the gate of the prison ; but, at length, one of them set it on fire, and as soon as they got admission, they released all the prisoners, except Porteous.

This unhappy man they dragged away with them, and having broken into a shop, they took out a coil of ropes, and hung him close to the usual place of execution.

They then dispersed quietly, and by the next morning Edinburgh was as peaceable as usual: no efforts could reach these offenders; so well was the secret kept, that no one was ever able to bring them to justice, though several persons were imprisoned on suspicion of being concerned in the business, and large rewards were offered.

It is remarkable that the Prince of Wales, the eldest son of George II., whose name was Frederic, was on no better terms with *his* father than George II. had himself been with George I.

Prince Frederic was born in 1707, and he had lived at Hanover till he was twenty-one years of age, which was by no means agreeable to the English, who, of course, wished their future king to grow up among them.

The king long refused to send for his son, being, it was thought, apprehensive lest some of the discontented party, who disliked Sir Robert Walpole's government, might tamper with him, and persuade him to join them.

In the mean time, the young prince fell in love with his cousin, the Princess of Prussia; but, unfortunately, the King of England and the King of Prussia could not agree; and George II. sent hastily for his son, and commanded him to think no more of the lady.

The prince came, as his father desired: he proved, however, not so submissive to the king's

future commands ; for when, after a little time, it was proposed that he should marry the Princess of Saxe-Gotha, he warmly remonstrated on the cruelty of being ordered to connect himself with a stranger, when his heart was already given to the Princess of Prussia.

Many difficulties occurred ; but at length the young man's resolution was conquered, and he married as his father desired : nor did he repent of this, for his wife was a pleasing and beautiful woman, and he was happy with her.

Still there were constant occasions of difference between himself and the king. Their *tastes* were entirely opposite : the prince loved the fine arts, and of course sought the society of men of letters, most of whom were of the party opposed to the king and his minister.

The prince and his friends also complained that the king did not allow him a handsome income ; and as his majesty refused to increase it, the matter was brought before parliament, which made the disagreement public, and part of the nation sided with the father, while the other part went with the son.

At length so high did the quarrel run, that the king ordered the prince to leave the royal palace at St. James's with all his family ; and when he had accordingly removed, his majesty forbade all persons who paid their court to his son from being admitted to visit himself.

The quarrel to which I have alluded took place in 1737 ; and in that year the nation sustained a loss in Queen Caroline. She died on

the twentieth of November, after long and severe suffering.

The king's grief at her death was extreme : on no other occasion was he known to have shown much feeling ; but he could not for a length of time afterwards see Sir Robert Walpole without bursting into tears.

She had earnestly recommended the king on her death-bed never to part with this minister, to whom she was much attached.

She sent her blessing to the prince, and a message of forgiveness ; and said she would have seen him, but that she feared it would only distress and irritate the king.

She was, perhaps, too severe towards this son ; and many persons thought that she did not do all that was in her power to reconcile him to his father : but it is very difficult, in all these quarrels, to find out the exact truth ; and it is probable there were many meddling persons, who misrepresented the prince's conduct to her.

The year after her death, (1738,) the Princess of Wales had a son, who was baptized by the name of George, being afterwards our King George III. This event, however, made no difference in the treatment which the prince received from his father. He still remained in banishment from the court ; and he constantly voted against Sir Robert Walpole's measures.

The next year (1739) was remarkable for the beginning of a war with Spain, the occasion of which was in a great measure the cruelties and depredations committed by Spanish merchants

resident in South America upon English merchant-vessels.

It was found that many English vessels on these coasts had been plundered, and the English crews sent to work in Spanish mines.

After several attempts to negotiate, war was declared, and a brave English sailor, of the name of *George Anson*, was sent with a fleet of ships, to protect the English on the American coasts, and to attack the Spaniards.



Commodore Anson's Voyage.

Commodore Anson left England in September, 1740, and sailed towards Cape Horn. He and the brave crews of his fleet underwent many hardships; and, at length, only the vessel in which he himself sailed was left. But in this ship, and with a very diseased crew, he made some valuable

prizes, and returned to England after an absence of three years and nine months.

Anson brought some fine fruits and flowers to England from the islands of the South Sea; among these, the fine apricot which is called the *Anson* apricot, in memory of him, and which grew on the island of Juan Fernandez.

The son of James II. who had made an attempt to excite rebellion in Scotland and England in the reign of George I., was now too old to engage personally in such plots; but his grandson, Charles Edward, who was called the *Young Pretender*, felt the strongest ambition to mount the throne of his fathers. (A.D. 1745.)

He had no great expectation of support from France; but he was deceived by the reports of several adventurers in Scotland, who persuaded him that if he were but seen there, numbers would flock to his standard.

King George was at this time in Germany, and the Duke of Cumberland, who commanded the English forces, was in Flanders, which afforded a favourable opportunity for the enterprise.

The Scots who live in the more mountainous northern parts of Scotland are, you know, called Highlanders; and these people were a bold race of men, passionately attached to their country and the old line of kings, while they held the Hanoverian government in detestation.

They had also great reason to complain of the manner in which they had lately been treated by the English: a regiment of Highlanders had been formed for the defence of Great Britain generally,

but under a promise that the men should not be sent abroad.

This promise was not kept : the poor men were embarked, in spite of all their remonstrances, for Flanders ; and others, finding how their comrades had been deceived, took the liberty of setting out for Scotland, instead of following them into the vessels.

The poor creatures were ignorant of the roads, and their dress and dialect made it impossible to disguise themselves; they were therefore very soon overtaken by a body of horse sent after them, and were brought back to London, where they were regularly tried for desertion, and three were shot, while the rest were sent to work in the plantations.

The fate of these Highlanders was a most pitiable one. They seem to have had no idea that they were doing anything wrong in deserting. They said, they had promised to act as soldiers to King George provided they were not sent abroad ; and as soon as they found this promise broken, they thought themselves at liberty to return.

To punish people so ignorant of the rules of warlike discipline, after having committed an act of deception towards them, was generally thought, by those who thought at all, a cruel act.

These men, too, were of some consequence in their own country, and their relations and friends vowed revenge against the English government. To this, in a great measure, may be attributed the eager welcome they gave to the Young Pretender.

Charles Edward landed in Scotland early in the month of August, 1745, with a very small number of friends and followers; but in a few days he was joined by as many as twelve hundred men, and these gained several advantages over the English troops, which they used very generously.

At first, the English government would not be persuaded that there was any real danger from this conspiracy; but it was soon found to be a more serious thing: and a reward of 30,000*l.* was offered to any person who would apprehend the Pretender. The Pretender, in his turn, offered the like reward for the head of King George.

The king was sent for, and soon returned from Germany; and preparations were made to conquer the Highlanders and Charles Edward. The bulk of the English nation was steadily loyal to the House of Hanover.

Meantime, however, the Pretender's army was greatly increased, and he had actually taken Edinburgh, and had his father proclaimed king, and himself regent.

Not *all* the Highland chiefs, however, were attached to the Stuarts. Some were in the interest of King George: and the Duke of Argyle, who possessed great power in Scotland, exerted himself to bring back the people to their allegiance. In fact, it was soon found, that even in Scotland the Pretender's friends had much less influence than he and his father had supposed.

Had Charles Edward, however, confined himself to that kingdom, he might have maintained a very

long and perhaps successful struggle. But having resolved to attack the King of England in his own country, he pushed on too rashly, and when within a hundred miles of London, was obliged to retreat with great loss and disadvantage.

His Highland soldiers behaved with wonderful gentleness and humanity towards all their captives, and to the people of the towns through which



Battle of Culloden.

they passed; and it was a disgraceful fact, that these barbarians, as they were called, proved themselves, on this occasion, far superior to the English in every noble and generous quality.

They committed no outrage: they were restrained from all acts of cruelty: they carried off

all their sick. It was plain they must now be conquered; yet still they remained faithful to Charles Edward.

At length, after various other defeats and losses, the whole Highland army was completely beaten at the battle of Culloden, which took place on the twelfth of April, 1746, and Charles himself was obliged to fly alone from the field.

He wandered about for five months, during all which time he was constantly in danger of capture: often surrounded by the English troops, sometimes escaping in female attire, and obliged to depend on the fidelity of the poorest of the people. Yet though 30,000*l.* were offered for his head, not one of these poor creatures betrayed him, and at length they enabled him to escape to France.

No words can be too strong for the occasion, when the cruelty of the English towards the Highlanders is our subject. Perhaps there is not such another blot on our national history as this.

The only crime of these poor people was in following their leaders to support an unfortunate prince, whose claims to reign in *Scotland* seemed to them very strong; yet they were dealt with in the most ferocious manner.

Women and children, after being subjected to every barbarity, were turned out to starve, half-naked, upon the barren heaths. Every habitation belonging to some of the hostile clans was destroyed, all the cattle and provisions carried off, the men hunted like wild beasts on the mountains.

In a few days there was not a dwelling, nor a

human being, nor an animal, to be seen in the compass of fifty miles: all was ruin and silence.

This was dreadful retribution. The *heads* of the people, meanwhile, were not spared; and it must be owned they deserved severity far more than their poor clansmen. Several of them perished on the scaffold. Many were fined and banished.

So ended the last attempt of the Stuarts to reign in Great Britain. The old Pretender, son of James II., did not, however, die until the year 1765, in the fifth year of the reign of George III.

The quarrels between George II. and his son were terminated by the death of Frederick in 1751. The prince's eldest son then succeeded to his title, and, at the death of his grandfather in 1760, was proclaimed king by the name of George III.

The thirty-three years of the reign of George II. had not been without profit to the people of England. Although, as I have said, the state of morals was generally low, and there was great need of improvement in education, and still more in the earnest application of religious principle, a great and remarkable attention to serious subjects was excited through the means of Wesley and Whitfield, who began their career about the year 1729.

There cannot be a doubt that, under Providence, these zealous and fervent men were the instruments of very great good in England. The English Church was but too negligent of its duties to the nation, and the Clergy, having lost the Puritan earnestness and simplicity, were not well

adapted to the real wants of the people. Many of them were learned students, who could not readily condescend to address poor villagers; many were fox-hunters, like the Squires. The solemn and holy truths of religion were not brought home to the hearts and lives of the great bulk of the people.

We say this in no disrespect towards a number of excellent clergyman who lived in this day—still less as disparaging to a Church we love; but it is nevertheless true, that the wants of the poor were not met; there was not provision for the numerous bodies of men, who began to be congregated in mines and in factories; and when Whitfield preached to the poor colliers near Bristol, he found numbers in a state of deplorable ignorance of the great truths of the gospel.

The good done by these wonderful men was, however, mixed with evil. Many hypocrites and many fanatics appeared. The lower orders were encouraged, by the example of their leaders, to criticise and find fault with even the most pious of the clergy. They also introduced great breaches of discipline into the Church; for, while professing still to be ministers of that Church, they would not submit to its rules, or only so far as they pleased.

In this reign the wages of daily labour were on the increase. About thirty years before, a farmer's man-servant was paid from four to six pounds per annum, with *board and lodging*, but such a servant would, towards the close of the reign of George II. be paid as much as twelve, or even fourteen pounds.

The difference in the price of food was, however, at least equally great, so that about the year 1730, a quarter of mutton might be bought at Carlisle for about 1s., whereas in 1760 it would be 2s. 4d., or 2s. 6d. The use of wheaten bread among the people in the north of England was by no means common. "It was only," we are told, "a rich family that used as much as a peck of wheat in the course of a year, (in 1747,) and *that* at Christmas." Oat-cakes and barley-bread were the general food. In the south, wheat was more used; still it is computed that not more than half the people of England used wheat bread in 1764.

In 1755, the first navigable canals were commenced in England; and in 1758, the Duke of Bridgewater's celebrated canal was begun by Brindley, who superintended all the best engineering works for a considerable time afterwards.

This great work, more properly belonging to the next reign, I will not now dwell upon, but a few words should be said about our high roads in the time of George II. Writers of the day speak of even the turnpike-roads as having ruts four feet deep; and one is mentioned as being only "a rocky lane, full of huge stones and abominable holes." The fact probably was, that the roadmakers of those days used the track followed by the old pack-horses, which often led over steep hills and down into hollows, quite unfit for carriages. These were patched up, and made to serve the purposes of wheel traffic, for which they were very unfit. In like manner one sometimes in the course of travel, even now, meets with the remains

of an old bridge over some stream, steep and very narrow, fit for a train of pack-horses only, and on either side there will be a triangular space over the abutments, for foot-passengers to stand back and let the horses pass.

I have not entered into any particulars of the wars of George the Second's reign, because our history is of England and its people, and there is little to interest in accounts of battles fought to extend our dominion in different parts of the world.

It is enough here just to say, that the English arms obtained very great honour during the latter years of this king, and were everywhere triumphant.

* * * *



GEORGE III. 1760—1820.

THE reign of George III. was the longest English reign, extending from 1760 to 1820. He was twenty-three years of age when his grand-

father's death placed him on the throne; and he married, a few months afterwards, Charlotte, princess of Strelitz-Mecklenburg, by whom he had a large family, two of his sons having since worn the crown, and our present queen being the daughter of the fourth son.

Our large possessions in North America had till this time been governed entirely by English laws, and our parliament taxed these colonies just as it taxed English subjects at home, without giving the colonies the advantage of being represented in our House of Commons.

One of the first difficulties in the reign of George III. arose from a resolute determination on the part of these Americans to submit no longer to pay tribute to, and be involved in, the wars of the mother-country. They conceived themselves able to govern themselves, and declared that taxes should no more be levied on them *without their consent*.

There was a time in which, had the Government yielded to this just and reasonable demand, the period of separation might have been long delayed; at all events, war might have been avoided; but George III., though a good man in private life, was too obstinately bent against allowing any change, however desirable; he would not yield with good grace, and was therefore obliged to give up at last, without credit and with great loss.

Thirteen of the American provinces, thence called the United States, were led by this obstinacy to throw off the English yoke altogether, and

to sign a Declaration of Independence on the Fourth of July, 1776.

This declaration was drawn up by some very able and noble persons, and it was not lightly assented to, nor without great pain and struggles. But the event has proved that the people of America had not overrated their own strength; and the long and bloody war which followed was far more injurious to the English than the colonies. It impoverished our nation, it obliged the Government to borrow more money than it will be ever able to repay, and it led to the loss of thousands of lives.

George III. had chiefly been brought up by his mother, a princess of the House of Saxe-Gotha, who, though a clever and sensible woman, entertained some ideas which were not suitable to the kind of mixed government which England enjoys.

She was accustomed, in her father's little court, to see his subjects treated like servants: he was the master and magistrate over them. And when she found that her father-in-law, George II., was obliged to consult his parliament and ministers on every public occasion, she hardly allowed the English monarchy to be a real one.

Hence, she laboured to persuade her son to be his own minister, and to keep as much power as possible. "George, be KING," she often said to him; and he endeavoured to obey her.

He was only a boy of thirteen at the death of his father, the Prince of Wales, and, consequently, was easily governed by those around him. Though his governor and tutor were excellent men, and,

had they been allowed, would have guided him right, they were soon wearied of their office by finding that his mother surrounded him with associates whom they could not approve of.

The principal of these was the Earl of Bute, a man of no ability, and of bad political principles; who misled the young prince's judgment, and to whose wrong counsels may in a great measure be imputed his errors.

Another unfortunate circumstance was, that he had been early thwarted in his attachment to a lady of the English court.

He had been told by his father, when only a child, that if he pleased he should have an English wife when he grew up; and though the law was against one of the royal family marrying a subject, it is probable, had his wishes been made known to parliament and the nation, the difficulty would have been overcome.

The Earl of Bute, however, and his mother were warmly opposed to the idea, and prevailed with him to give it entirely up, without taking the sense of the nation on the question at all; and the prince yielded.

The queen he afterwards married was blameless in her conduct as a wife, and she and her husband lived for many years in harmony; but she did not agree with the king's eldest sister, who afterwards married the Duke of Brunswick; and it was supposed to be a consequence of this, that Queen Charlotte always disliked this lady's daughter when, many years after, she became the wife of her son, George IV.

It was during the continuance of the American war, namely, in 1780, that the peace of the city of London was disturbed by some of the worst riots ever known to have taken place there.

Nothing could show more strongly the evils of ignorance and bigotry to a nation than these riots. The occasion of them was as follows.

A bill had been passed in parliament for the relief of Roman Catholics. Ever since the reigns of the Stuarts, the nation had retained so great a dread lest the Romish faith should ever be again the ruling religion, that very severe laws had been passed against Catholics.

Priests were visited with the severest penalties; the heirs of Catholics, if educated abroad, were to forfeit their estates; and there were several other most oppressive statutes aimed at the followers of the ancient religion.

Now that Protestantism was firmly established, it seemed but just that these rigorous laws should be softened; and that if a Catholic were a good subject, he should no longer be treated like a traitor.

Parliament, therefore, abolished the worst of these statutes. But some bigoted men, out of doors, took it into their heads that the Protestant religion was endangered by this act of clemency; and one of them, Lord George Gordon, a man of some enthusiasfn, and alike violent and weak, took it upon him on all occasions to excite the apprehensions of the ignorant multitude, and make them believe that Catholicism was going to be brought in; thereby inflaming them in the most

desperate manner, both against the Catholics and those who advocated their cause.

Lord George Gordon had probably no intention of leading the people to deeds such as followed; but he who inflames the passions of an ignorant mob cannot be called innocent of their after acts.

On the second of June, 1780, Lord George Gordon carried up a petition to parliament, signed by an immense number of persons, members of an association, calling itself the Protestant Association. He was not content with taking it himself, but chose to be accompanied by 20,000 persons, all wearing blue cockades: these all stationed themselves round the houses of parliament.

While the petition (which, of course, was against the late act of relief to Catholics) was under discussion, Lord George often went out to tell the people what was going on, and who were its principal opponents. It was soon thrown out, one hundred and ninety-two members being against it, and only six for receiving it.

At first the people had been tolerably quiet; but they soon became inflamed by what they heard of their want of success, and urged one another to attack different members of the houses as they passed through the streets. They then demolished two Roman Catholic chapels, and dispersed for the time; but two days after, London presented a most dreadful scene of outrage.

Thirty-six fires might be seen burning at one time. Catholic chapels and private dwellings were destroyed by the mob and pillaged, and

many lives lost. Lord and Lady Mansfield's house, among others, with all the valuable library and furniture, were wholly consumed, and they themselves only escaped by a back door with the utmost difficulty.



Riots in London.

The mob then went to Newgate, broke it open, and set the prisoners at liberty. The government soon, however, summoned troops from all quarters; and the people being wholly undisciplined, were easily dispersed. And so ended the famous "No POPERY" riots.

As for Lord George Gordon, he was sent to the Tower, and afterwards tried for high treason; but it did not appear to the jury that his crime answered that description, though no doubt he had been guilty of exciting the people to these excesses, and he was acquitted of the capital charge.*

* There is no doubt he was deranged. He afterwards turned Jew.

And now occurred some events in France, which are so closely connected with English history that they cannot be passed over; though, in order to make them intelligible, I must go back a little way, and give an account of the state of France before the Revolution, as it is called.

The French had been for a number of years an exceedingly oppressed people. The middle and lower orders were worn out by the exactions of their rulers. I will mention one of these in particular.

In earlier times the number of *Nobles* in France was not large; there were not more than between two and three hundred families of the old nobility in the best days of that country.

But as the court grew more corrupt, it became a practice to *sell* the honours of nobility, and also to attach its privileges to a great many employments in the State; so that, only a few years before the time of which I am writing, it was reckoned that there were four thousand employments purchasable, all of which gave the privileges of nobility to those who held them.

When we come to inquire what those privileges were, we shall soon see how much reason the *ignoble* part of the people had to complain.

All the nobles were exempt from the payment of taxes; and the more they were to share this exemption, the heavier was the burden of *the people*, who had still to raise the same sums for taxes, though the richer persons did not help them in paying.

The king was enriched by selling titles of nobility; the nobles were enriched by being freed from payment of taxes, and by many other privileges, such as having the power to call for the services of the peasantry as freely as if the latter were slaves; but the people were grievously burdened.

They might, indeed, have supported two or three hundred families in freedom from payment of the taxes to the state; but when the number amounted to thirty thousand, it became a burden too heavy to be endured.

You may easily conceive the grievance, when you know that, besides the purchase of employments conferring nobility, *the sons* of these men of rank, being too proud to enter into trade, or law, or medicine, all stations of rank, in the army or the church, were reserved for them.

Thus, however meritorious the *ignoble* class might be, they could not rise, but by becoming *noble*; they were cut off from all other honourable distinctions: and the consequence was, that, as they became intelligent and refined, their hatred towards the nobles, whom they regarded as drones, only eating up the stores of the hive, grew stronger and more settled.

This was one of the grievances of which the nation justly complained; another was, that the king had the power to tax his subjects, on his own sole authority,

The parliament of Paris was composed entirely of nobles; and till the middle of our George the Third's reign, whatever taxes were proposed, the

nobles were always exempt from the payment of them.

At length, the government being much distressed for money, from the extreme difficulty of raising the taxes, a new kind of parliament, or *convention*, was summoned, at Versailles, on the twenty-second of February, 1787; and an attempt was made to impose a general and equal land-tax.

But the nobles prevailed, and shook the burden once more from off themselves. At length, after much quarrelling, it was agreed that there should be a grand meeting of the States-general, an assembly which had never been summoned in France since the year 1614: it was composed of three bodies, the nobles, the clergy, and deputies from the people.

The latter, a thousand in number, soon proved themselves too strong for the other parties; and at length the three were blended in one, called the National Assembly, which became in the end the representative of the people, wholly, by degrees doing away with all the distinctions of nobility, and even of royalty itself.

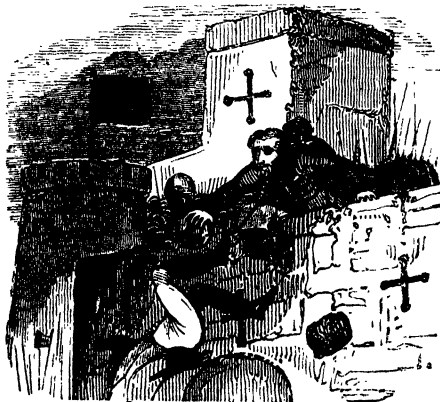
While these events were taking place, the King of England and his people looked on, surprised, not knowing what would next ensue.

The king, indeed, and those who were of the Tory party, were always inclined to look with dread on the attempts of the people to obtain a more just distribution of public burdens: and it could not be denied that there was great danger from a passionate, ill-disciplined nation, long oppressed and suffering, breaking loose from its

fetters all at once, and burning with anger against those who had kept it in bondage.

Others, however, who looked on both sides of the question, rejoiced in the French Revolution, as it was called, and hoped the wisest and best of the leaders in it would be able to conduct everything to a happy issue.

But the lower orders of the French people, who had been hardened by long oppression, and debased by ignorance, now began to assume more and more power.



Pul'ing down the Bastile.

One of the first acts was to pull down the Bastille, a gloomy prison in Paris, where many cruelties had been committed; and they now took

every occasion to assemble in large bodies, carrying terror wherever they went.

They were led on by men of some talent and influence, who managed the popular violence so as to obtain advantages for themselves; and the friends of good government in England, who had at first rejoiced in the French Revolution, began to tremble, and to recall their approbation.

Though I have, hitherto, said so little of foreign nations, it is impossible to give you any idea of the state of England and its people, in the reign of George III., without taking the French Revolution into the account.

For the English government was, for a length of time, influenced in a remarkable degree by this event: the Tories, with whom were a great part of the lower and higher orders of the people, being warmly opposed to the Revolution, and rendered particularly hostile to any free expression of sentiments by their dread of what was passing in France; and the Whigs, too much inclined to palliate and make excuses for the wicked things which were done in the name of liberty.

Thus these two great parties were violently opposed to each other. The leader of the Tory party, in the House of Commons, was Mr. Pitt; the leader of the Whigs, Mr. Fox.

When we look back at what passed a number of years ago, it is not difficult to understand why very good men have differed extremely on some great political questions: and we can often see pretty clearly where each was right and each wrong.

It would have been very strange, indeed, if humane and religious men had not been greatly shocked, when they found what wicked actions were perpetrated at this time in France; and in their zeal to prevent any inroads of the same spirit here, nothing was more natural than that they should become suspicious of any of their own countrymen who were friends to the chief agents of this great revolution abroad.

But they did not draw the distinction between rejoicing at the overthrow of a bad form of government, and rejoicing at these wicked deeds. They communicated their fears to ignorant and violent men, and *these* thought they had a right to abuse and ill-treat every one who was a friend to the French Revolution.

Thus at Birmingham, in the year 1791, a furious mob of people, little better than those low French whom they so much dreaded, attacked the houses and chapels of several Dissenters, and particularly of Dr. Priestley, (who was a man of the greatest private worth and extraordinary talents,) merely because he was known to be a Dissenter and a Whig.

They burned his chapel and house to the ground; and all the noble library and fine philosophical instruments which he had been for many years gathering together, were destroyed at once by these misguided creatures.

The magistrates scarcely interposed to stop the progress of the havoc that was going on; and Dr. Priestley and several others were obliged to fly for their lives. Nor could Dr. Priestley bear

to remain in England after this usage: so he took his departure, in his old age, for America, where several other individuals went also; and there they found a distant grave.

Good men, on the Whig side, were much afraid at this time that, out of mere apprehension of danger, the Tories, who were in power, would draw the reins of government here so tight, that there would be little liberty left in England; and as for any reforms of abuses, it was in vain to propose them, for whoever did so was regarded as an enemy to his country.

Yet, in that sad time, there were many noble and dauntless spirits, who, through evil and good report, pleaded that everything really bad in our government should be cleared away, lest, if abuses were left to accumulate, there might come a time when the people would attack them as violently as the French had done.

Among other things, they desired to see all British subjects left free to worship God according to their own consciences; and they contended that it was great oppression not to allow a good citizen to serve in any office of State, without compelling him to go to church, or take the Sacrament there, when he was perhaps a Dissenter.

Year after year they asked for this simple act of justice; but they were met only by refusals or taunts: and it was not till so late as 1828 that the Test Act, which thus endeavoured to keep a Dissenter from performing useful and honourable service to his country, was repealed: so long did

fear prevent a government from withdrawing an oppressive law which could only make it odious.

Very hard battles were fought also between the Whigs and Tories on several other questions; and there was one subject which occasioned much division, and which was not so much a party question as a question of *interest*: this was the African Slave-trade.

For a long time, England had been disgraced by partaking in the shameful traffic in African men and women, who were sold in the West Indies as slaves to the best bidder.

English ships and captains used to go to the coast of Africa, to pick up these poor creatures, and carry them to the West Indies. Here they were obliged to work, and often died miserably, or lived very unhappily.

It was in the year 1788 that the subject was first brought before parliament.

Many excellent men, as Granville Sharp, and Thomas Clarkson, had laboured, before this, to open the eyes of their countrymen to the guilt of the traffic; but, among the merchants who made much money by it, it was very difficult to obtain even a hearing.

However, Mr. Wilberforce (who was the parliamentary leader on this question, though many others worked in the cause with equal diligence) was not deterred, but year after year he brought forward the subject.

He was not *openly* OPPOSED, at any time, by the ministry, whether Tory or Whig; but the aboli-

tion of the Slave-trade was not carried at last till Mr. Fox was in power, in the year 1806.

Slavery, however, was still not abolished, though the Slave-trade was declared illegal. It was reserved for another Whig ministry, in the reign of William IV., to take a further step in the matter.

The French Revolution, meantime, became more fruitful in wicked deeds every year. I mentioned that the order with which at first it had been conducted, was very much impaired by the lower people, who had completely overpowered the more moderate men.

The unfortunate king, Louis XVI., had no other wish than to see his subjects happy and at peace. He was, like our Henry VI., of an amiable, gentle temper, and had not that obstinate love of power, or that want of sincerity, which was complained of in Charles I.

He granted with readiness, and, there is no reason to doubt, with good faith, the wishes of the people in the beginning of the Revolution; but when foreign powers interfered, and especially when the Prussians and Austrians marched a large army against Paris, avowedly to take his part against his people, such conduct furnished the excuse which violent men wanted, to attack the person of the king, under pretence of providing for the public safety.

A large mob, commanded by some ferocious leaders, attacked the royal palace on the night of August the tenth, 1792. Happily, the king and queen had notice of their approach, and escaped to the Hall of the Assembly, then sitting. But the

faithful Swiss Guards, and a number of gentlemen attached to the royal family, were nearly all massacred by the mob, who penetrated to every part of the palace, furious at the escape of the king and queen.

It seemed as if one universal spirit of madness had seized the Parisians. Meantime, the Austrian army advanced, and it was well known that no mercy would be shown by foreign powers to the Revolutionists. The heads of the people ordered all persons suspected of attachment to monarchy to be put under confinement; and all citizens, capable of bearing arms, were commanded to hold themselves in readiness at a moment's warning.

In reply, the people exclaimed, they were ready, but that the nation must be first purged of the traitors within before they defended it from without; and from this determination they went from prison to prison, gave a sort of mock trial to the numerous prisoners confined there, (most of whom were merely imprisoned because they were not so violently opposed to monarchy as the rest,) and in the course of two days massacred no less a number than 1,085: among these were many priests, and some women, particularly a friend of the queen's, the beautiful Princess de Lamballe.

The Prussian and Austrian armies were not meanwhile successful; and their commander retreated, taking a more humble tone towards the Revolutionists.

On the next meeting of the National Convention, it was agreed that royalty should be abolished, that the common titles of respect,

Monsieur and Madame, (Sir and Madam,) should also be laid aside, and that the people should only be called citizens. All their elegant customs were abolished: everything was to be slovenly, coarse, vulgar, and uncivil.

After this, all restraints failed. Religion was thrown aside as a needless thing; and now they proceeded to try and condemn their guiltless king.

He was brought to the bar of his subjects, on the eleventh of December, 1792, and was publicly executed on the scaffold, January 21, 1793.

The French ambassador was immediately ordered by the English court to quit London, and a message from the king informed both Houses of Parliament shortly afterwards, that the National Convention had declared war with England.

The people of Great Britain were certainly eager for this war. Just indignation against the French had taken deep root; and they considered themselves bound to attack a nation which had, as it was said, shown itself hostile to every sacred and social principle.

The Whig party, however, represented, that a large number of the French were as averse to the wicked actions which had lately been committed, as the English could be; that the question of the king's death was, in fact, carried by not a large majority, even of the Convention; and that, though for the present these bad counsels had prevailed, there was danger that, by going to war, we should rather promote disorder, than do good.

They said, people were very much mistaken, if

they thought a few months would be sufficient to conquer the French, (Mr. Pitt having confidently said, they would not be able to maintain a war more than six months.) The probability was, that it would be a very long, expensive contest, which, instead of checking human misery and crime, would extend them prodigiously.

Whatever may be thought of the necessity of the measure, the event proved that this last view of the case was right.

In fact, no sooner did the French turn their minds to foreign war, than it became plain that the resources of the nation were much more vast than our minister, Mr. Pitt, had expected. It was then found, not only that there were generals and armies ready to oppose ours, but that the wealth of the country, in spite of all the violent interruptions to trade, was much greater than Englishmen had suspected.

During the long war of twenty-five years, which ensued, Great Britain put forth, also, wonderful strength, having sometimes to sustain a contest with all the great nations of the Continent; and, could our minds be satisfied with the thought of being at enmity with so many of our fellow-creatures, there would have been enough to make us proud of the courage and success of our countrymen.

But, besides the uncomfortable feeling of being shut up in one's own little island, without intercourse with other nations except in the way of combat, the commerce and condition of the people of England suffered very much in this war.

In order to maintain it, an immense debt was incurred; money was borrowed which will probably never be repaid; and a vast number of expenses were created, which never would have been thought of had we been in a state of peace.

Heavy taxes were laid on, many of which have not to this hour been taken off, because there are still war debts to pay.

The prices of some commodities, which were prodigiously raised in war, suddenly fell at the return of peace, and occasioned the ruin of whole classes.

In short, war is so terrible a state, and attended with such a multitude of crimes and evils, that it may well be doubted whether a good man of that time was not right when he said, "There never yet was a *good war*, nor a *bad peace*."*

During the course of this war, there arose in France that very extraordinary man, Napoleon Bonaparte, who, by great talent and ambition, managed to get the whole French nation into his power, and was elected emperor.

He ruled the people with very despotic sway: indeed, had he not been a most resolute and even tyrannical man, he probably would soon have been overthrown; and it was better for the French to be under some government, however harsh, than to remain in the state of anarchy which had lasted so long.

Fortunately for them, Bonaparte, though a selfish, warlike, ambitious man, was too clever not to see the importance of giving them good laws;

* Dr. Franklin.

and he formed a code, and many institutions, which improved the people, and made them more fit for a better state of things.

He conquered Italy, and wherever he went he managed to secure the best of everything for Paris. All the finest pictures and statues were sent to adorn his capital. He was proud of gathering together everything splendid.

He made the grandest roads, over the most difficult mountain-passes; he erected splendid buildings; all his works were magnificent.

But, with all his conquests, he never could subdue England. That little strait which divides us from France was never passed by his troops, though they conquered nearly half the world besides.*

At length, this proud emperor pushed his conquests too far: he raised up enemies, who united their arms, and obtained a grand victory over him; upon which, he sent in a renunciation of the sovereignty of France for himself and his heirs, and retired to the Island of Elba.

Then the Emperors of Russia and of Austria, the Prussians, and English, who had joined together in this war, sent for the nearest relation of the former king, Louis XVI., who was living in exile in England, and they made him King of the French, under the title of Louis XVIII.

The French received him quietly: not that they were much rejoiced at the return of their old

* Our brave Lord Nelson, Lord Collingwood, and many others, guarded our coasts, and we were saved the horrors of invasion.



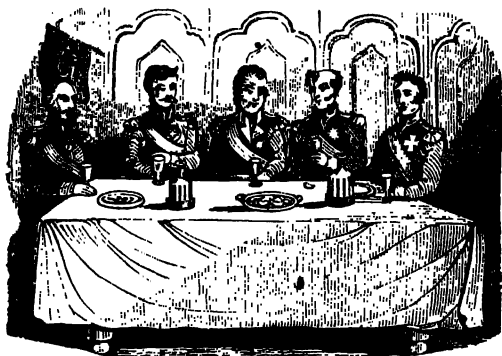
Return of Louis XVIII.

race of kings, but they had become tired of Bonaparte's ambition; and, as they had now obtained a better government, free from the abuses which existed before the Revolution, they were well pleased to make a trial at least of a limited monarchy.

When the allied sovereigns had seated him on the throne, they came over, all but the Emperor of Austria, to England, to pay a visit to our island.

It was in the summer of the year 1814: a time that must always be remarkable as having been the commencement of a state of peace, after a long war; and also as having seen the grand spectacle of two monarchs (one of them, the Emperor Alexander of Russia, the most powerful in Europe) visiting a brother monarch in friendship.

But George III., though alive, was unable



The Allied Sovereigns in England

to welcome his guests: for four years before this time, he had laboured under the affliction of mental derangement; and as he was incapable of performing any of the functions of a king, parliament had made his eldest son, the Prince of Wales, regent.

From one end of the kingdom to another, there was only one burst of joy at the conclusion of war. People could hardly believe it possible that they might now again enjoy the pleasure of intercourse with their fellow-creatures.

The French and English, in particular, who had long been taught to look upon one another as natural enemies, were almost surprised to find in how friendly a manner they could meet.

The English tried to remember that their neighbours no longer held out to them hands embued.

in their brother's blood. Many of the old Revolutionists were either dead or softened by time; and though the habits of the two nations will always probably differ, it has been found very possible for them to be mutual blessings to one another.

But the peace which began in 1814 was not suffered to last without an interruption. I told you that Bonaparte had renounced the sovereignty of France; but he had not been sincere in this; he had merely taken shelter for a time in the little Island of Elba, and was watching for an opportunity of return.

He had many friends in France, particularly among the soldiery, who had been accustomed to follow him to victory, and were not well pleased at the thoughts of having a peaceful government.

He landed again in France in February, 1815, and was soon joined by some regiments of soldiers. The king, however, still remained at Paris, when he received the astounding intelligence that Marshal Ney, on whom he chiefly relied, was gone over to Bonaparte with all his troops.

Upon this, Louis dared no longer remain. He fled from the capital, and Bonaparte returned to his former palace, without having had occasion to fire a single musket.

Great was the astonishment in England, when it was found that the French had sent away their king, and received back their emperor, in so sudden a manner. But all the allied monarchs came to the resolution that they would not suffer this ambitious man to rule again over France.

They said, truly, that he had broken the condi-

tions on which alone he had been allowed his life and liberty; that he had shown himself the destroyer of European tranquillity, and must now be dealt with as a criminal.

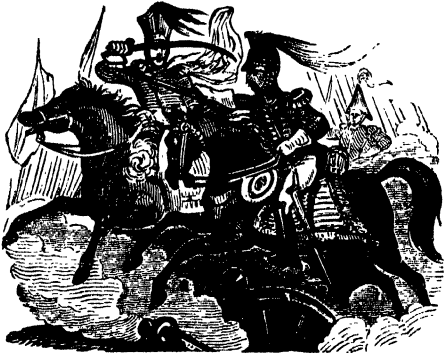
He, on his part, complained of them, and not wholly without justice. They had resisted the payment of his pension, which had been agreed upon in the treaty. They had divided his private property and that of his family. Such a want of honesty, though towards an enemy, was not to be excused, and furnished one pretext for retaliation.

Bonaparte, then, came back. His journey to Paris, as we have said, was beyond all example, under such circumstances, prosperous. Every soldier sent against him joined his force; and in twenty days he was again on the throne of France, without having spilled a drop of blood.

The most formidable preparations were immediately made by the allied sovereigns against him. The Duke of Wellington went over to Belgium to take the command of the armies, which were chiefly British and Prussian, the Russians and Austrians not having yet arrived.

It was on the twelfth of June, 1815, that Bonaparte left Paris in order to make an attack on this army before it received the important help of the other allied troops; and on the eighteenth was fought the terrible and decisive battle of Waterloo, when the French were completely defeated, and Bonaparte was obliged to fly.

This was his final ruin. He tried for several succeeding days to make his escape from different ports of France; but all being narrowly guarded,



Battle of Waterloo.

he determined to throw himself upon the protection of England, and, accordingly, surrendered



Bonaparte surrendering himself.

himself and his suite to Captain Maitland, of the *Bellerophon* man-of-war.

He imagined, by this measure, that he should be regarded solely as an English prisoner; but it was considered that it belonged alike to all the allied sovereigns to decide on his doom: and they decreed that he should be kept under the strictest guard, and conveyed as a state prisoner to the Island of St. Helena, where all hopes of escape would be vain.

Thus ended the *public* history of this remarkable man. He lived in his appointed place of banishment for nearly six years afterwards; unhappy always, and deeply disappointed that his appeal to the English had brought him no better doom.

The long wars in which England was engaged during the reign of George III. were attended with many evil consequences. Among them must be first mentioned that spirit of national hatred and those many narrow prejudices which are sure to grow up in a country separated from the rest of the world, and knowing other nations only in the field of battle.

Thus, those brought up in the reign of George the Third, can remember the anger and hatred which was occasioned when the Americans declared their independence, when we long unjustly strove to re-conquer those powerful young states, and at length were obliged to own that our cause was a bad one.

And again, in our long and terrible conflict with France, begun under the idea of punishing

her disloyalty and her revolutionary crimes, it is very certain that English children were brought up in a spirit of anger against France and Frenchmen, which is bad for any people to indulge towards others. Sometimes, indeed, we made noble exertions, and protected weaker nations from tyranny; but often our strength was wasted and our bad passions fostered in the contest: and though we can number up a long list of great naval and military conquerors, we are better pleased in recording the peaceful triumph of art and science, and far more of moral and religious principle. When peace at length came, we were ready to carry our arts all the world over; and the fame of our scientific and commercial enterprise circulated far and wide.

In the early part of this reign we had the discoveries of Herschel, whose noble telescope brought the starry heavens near to our gaze,—Priestly, eminent in chemical discovery,—John Hunter, the celebrated anatomist, and Dr. Jenner, who introduced vaccination. We had Captain Cook, the celebrated voyager, Sir Joseph Banks, the great naturalist, who attended him, and many others.

In useful inventions we had Hargreaves and Cartwright, whose united labours brought the cotton manufactory into a state of great advancement. The first cotton goods (wholly so) were made in England, a little after the accession of George III., for hitherto what were commonly called *cottons* were made chiefly of wool; but in 1764, Hargreaves invented a machine for spinning the cotton in a more rapid manner than by the

usual single wheel, and Arkwright followed, by introducing a much more complicated piece of machinery worked by water-power, and, of course, in the end producing the material wanted with far greater cheapness and certainty.

But what beyond all comparison contributed the most to the advance of manufactures and the progress of art in many departments, was the application of the power of steam.

The steam-engine was an idea that had been long floating in the minds of philosophers; and, as in its place has been shown, it is probable that Roger Bacon made a very near approach to its invention; steam-engines of imperfect construction were used in mines from the year 1711; but the name of James Watt is still that which Englishmen now universally turn to, when speaking of the grand practical improver of this most powerful engine. To give you an idea of what the real value of the discovery and management of *steam* has been and is likely to be, would take volumes. A bushel of coals, properly applied, may in its consumption, and the conversion of a certain quantity of water into steam, be made to raise *seventy millions of pounds weight* a foot high; and this is the calculated average effect of an engine now working in a Cornish mine!

“The great pyramid of Egypt is composed of granite; it is 700 feet in the side of its base, it is 500 feet high, and it stands on eleven acres of ground: its weight, therefore, is 12,760 millions of pounds; at a medium height of 125 feet, it might be raised by the effort of about 630 chaldrons of coals.

“The Menai bridge consists of a mass of iron not less than four millions of pounds in weight, suspended about 120 feet above the sea. The consumption of seven bushels of coals would suffice to raise it to the place where it hangs.”*

In like manner may the steam-engine be employed in draining lakes, in working vessels, in land and water carriage, in the mightiest and most delicate operations of art. Exquisite carvings, executed with all the beauty of those by Gibbons, can now be produced by machinery worked by steam, and with a certainty which no labours of the human hand could ever have produced.

In the later period of George III. discovery was busy still. Then two men, each eminent in his way, invented, apart, the safety-lamp used in mines; one of these was Sir Humphry Davy, to whom the invention is usually assigned; the other was the late Mr. George Stephenson, who seems to have had at least an equal share in the merit of a first discovery. He was born of poor parents, at a little village near Newcastle-on-Tyne, where he was employed as a boy in watching the steam-engines used at the mouth of the coal-pits. With no education, except the commonest knowledge of reading and writing, he rose to the first rank of mechanical engineers; constructed our first public railroad, and was the greatest improver of the locomotive steam-engine. He died, aged 68, on the 12th of August, 1848.

This, however, is bringing the application of steam to a late period. How does it enhance our ideas of the patient labours of Hugh Middleton

* Taken from Sir John Herschel, in LARDNER'S 'Cyclopædia.'

with his New River, when we reflect how little aid he had then from mechanical discovery!

Brindley, too, with his Bridgewater canal, had not the advantages which have resulted from modern improvements in steam application. His undertaking was regarded, at the time, as one of the most absurd speculations ever made. In order to accomplish it, aqueducts, tunnels, and various works had to be constructed over what seemed little short of impracticable places. But it was soon found that the speculators were right; the cost of the carriage of goods was reduced one-half, and no one could doubt of the profits that were accruing to the projectors.

Agriculture came in for its share in the spirit of improvement; the late Lord Leicester receiving an estate, half of which was a salt marsh, reclaimed it, and left his lands in exquisite cultivation. Machines of various sorts took the place of the old cumbrous tools; new species of grain were introduced; new breeds of cattle; new modes of cultivating the earth: and chemistry taught the nature of soils, and the best remedies to apply to such as were bad.

Every science, every art had some light cast upon it; and, if the question be asked respecting the moral and religious state of the people of England in the reign of George III., although we must see abundant reason to lament over the quantity of evil, there cannot be a doubt that improvement, though slowly yet surely, was taking place.

It is very difficult at all times to know how

much of profession turns to practice; but this we can say, that after the time of Wesley and Whitfield, a great improvement was to be observed in the clergy generally, and in the teaching on religious subjects. Sunday schools were established, Bell and Lancaster's plans made it more easy for all to learn reading, and writing, and arithmetic; and afterwards, the Bible Society brought the Scriptures within reach of all.

Some most benevolent men, as we have seen, laboured in the cause of prisoners and slaves; and we had writers of a very high kind, who made religious truth their subject. Dr. Johnson, Lord Littleton, Mrs. More, Mrs. Elizabeth Carter, Cowper the poet, and many more.

* In painting, Sir Joshua Reynolds carried away the prize from all competitors; his portraits of the Ladies of the earlier part of George the Third's reign are often alike beautiful, as portraits and as pictures. You have there most of the celebrated men and women of that time,—Garrick, and Dr. Johnson, and Admiral Keppel, and Mrs. Sheridan, and Burke; and these pictures, though the colouring is often faded, have yet a manner and a grace which will awaken admiration as long as the faintest traces of them remain.

When we come to the question of the condition of the lower orders, not only their wages must be considered, but what quantity of food those wages would now buy.

Now the price of bread nearly doubled in the course of seventeen years of the reign of George III.: namely, from 1784 to 1802. All other

kinds of provision also rose in price ; only clothing and some manufactured articles were cheaper. Thus a labourer's three shillings would not certainly go farther at the last year of the series than his two shillings would have gone at the beginning.

But every man who had two shillings to spend in 1784, was *not* master of three in 1801. The farming labourers in particular were far below this mark. It was reckoned by fair calculators that the wages of such labourers in 1801 could not purchase more than a third part of the provisions which they had done in the first period. Some sorts of labour, however, seem to have been very highly paid. In 1805, masons, for instance, had five shillings per day, and bricklayers four shillings and ten-pence. A very great increase in the numbers of paupers occurred in these seventeen years. In the year 1784, about 2,190,000*l.* were expended on the poor rates and county rates ; but, in the year 1801, the sum expended for the relief of the poor had amounted to *four* millions and upwards. Doubtless the great increase of population, together with the small opening for commerce during the long wars of George III., contributed to this result.

The government of Ireland has always much perplexed English legislators ; and, after a long and calamitous* period, during which rebellion there was met by much cruelty and*hardship on the part of some of those concerned in putting it down, a proposal was made to unite the two countries more closely ; and, as was hoped, more amicably. It was proposed by Lord Castlereagh

that the Irish members of parliament, who were to be one hundred in number, should sit in London with our English house, so that all might form one great deliberative body. It was also proposed that there should be always four Irish bishops and twenty-four Irish peers sitting in the House of Lords; and thus the Union finally passed into a law on the 2d of July, 1800.

In concluding the little I have been able to say of this reign, in comparison with the quantity which *might* well be told, I must observe how strong, and, on the whole, how good an influence was given to domestic life in England by the sober, quiet, moral tone of the Court of George III. He had no *bright* qualities; neither in himself nor in his queen was there much of taste or talent, excepting, indeed, for music, which the king passionately loved, and with a real appreciation of what was good—witness his great admiration for Handel.

As to the rest, farming, field-sports, and gossip seem to have been his chief pleasures. Both he himself and the queen possessed very strong wills, and their minds went in a narrow track; but they were sincere,—they were exact in their duties, and religious in their habits. They discouraged all light, immoral conduct, and the drawing-room was a scene of severe decorum. During the long fits of mental disease to which the king was subject, public compassion was perhaps only the more excited, and his infirmities were respected, while his good qualities were remembered.

Domestic duties and quiet home influences

became, more than ever before, valued in England ; and amidst all our different changes, and in the sight of some decided improvements, the influence of George III. ought, I think, to be ever regarded with gratitude by all who prize the homely and the religious habits of daily life.

In the year 1816, the Prince Regent's daughter, the Princess Charlotte, who was the heiress of the British throne, was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg.

This princess was popular, and the marriage was approved by her people, and raised many hopes of a reign that might bring blessings upon the nation. But the prospect was soon overclouded ; for, to the inexpressible grief of all, she died the following year, 1817, after giving birth to a dead son.

No event, not immediately affecting the private happiness of individuals, ever was met by deeper concern than this. Every one was a mourner, in heart as well as in dress, and it was long the theme of every tongue.

The prince, who had thus fallen from domestic happiness and the hope of future dignity, bore his fate with resignation, but with keen feeling. He has since become King of Belgium.

Towards the close of the year 1818, the aged queen also died ; and on the twenty-ninth of January, 1820, King George III. breathed his last at Windsor, in the eighty-second year of his age, and the sixtieth of his reign, the last eight years of which had been passed in a state of entire seclusion and incapacity.



GEORGE IV. 1820—1830.

THE long reign of George III. left his son advanced in life when he came to the throne.

He had been Regent for the last nine years of his father's life, and was now fifty-eight years of age, being the eldest of fifteen children.

George IV. was always a dissipated man, and, unfortunately, having no affection for his wife, (the daughter of the Duchess of Brunswick, his father's sister,) he never enjoyed any domestic happiness.

They had one only daughter, the Princess Charlotte, (of whose death we have spoken,) and after her birth, her father and mother had scarcely any intercourse. c

The old king was still kind to his daughter-in-law; but the queen extremely disliked her, the more so, because some letters which the princess

had written to her father's family at Brunswick, fell into her hands, and there, unfortunately, the princess had spoken very freely of her mother-in-law and sisters in England.

She felt the great difference between the English court and that she had left : she felt she could not love those who surrounded her ; more especially there were two or three women whom her husband had himself placed near her, whom she knew to be of bad character : and these things made her very unhappy.

During several years she remained separate and secluded, living at Blackheath ; but, in the year 1814, tired of this life, she went abroad, and travelled in the East, and in various countries of Europe. It must be said to her credit, that she was not extravagant or encroaching ; for when, on occasion of her going abroad, the nation offered her 50,000*l.* a-year, she accepted only 35,000*l.*

While living abroad, her manners were certainly not decorous nor governed by prudence. And when her husband became king, on the death of George III., and she resolved, unhappily for herself, to return to England, it was not difficult for George IV. to find matter of grave accusation against her.

The charges preferred against her on the trial were very serious, and the whole nation was roused ; many who did not believe her innocent, thought her most cruelly and wickedly treated, by one who ought to have been her protector : but there was a want of dignity and lady-like demeanour about her, which rendered it difficult

to those most favourably disposed to do her the homage they wished.

The feelings of the people against the king were very strong ; perhaps there never, in modern times, has been a monarch more generally unpopular than George IV. during the two years which immediately succeeded his accession to the throne.

Prince Leopold, the widowed husband of the Princess Charlotte, visited Queen Caroline ; so also did one of the king's own brothers, the Duke of Sussex ; and several of the most respectable of the nobility came forward, braving the royal indignation, and ventured to pay her the respect due, as they conceived, to a queen.

The coronation of her husband was appointed to take place on the 19th of July, 1821 ; no room, even as a spectator, was reserved for her. Indignant at this, she went on that morning to the door of Westminster Abbey, and demanded admission, which was refused.

She seems to have sunk under this last effort and disappointment, being taken ill a few days after. Her mind was calm and peaceful, though her bodily sufferings were acute. She died on the 7th of August, protesting her innocence to the last, forgiving her persecutors, and desiring that the inscription on her coffin should be "Caroline of Brunswick ; the injured Queen of England."

She was buried at Brunswick ; and the circumstances of her funeral will long be remembered by Englishmen. The people, who had been for some

time in a state of violent ferment on her behalf, would not suffer her body to leave the land without testifying their indignation at the disrespectful manner in which she had been treated.

They congregated in crowds, and obliged the funeral procession to pass through London, instead of through by-roads, as had been proposed by the government.

A desperate contest took place, and blood even was shed. The people, however, carried their point; and the body was accompanied by tens of thousands of spectators through the city, and afterwards embarked at Harwich.

In all the enthusiasm of public feeling on this occasion, there was much mixture of mere party-spirit; but no one could forget that it was the king himself who had aroused indignation by his attack upon a defenceless woman, whom he had placed in a situation of danger and neglect.

He was himself, doubtless, an unhappy man, and deserving of great pity; but, as he could not but feel that he was unfit to be a guide and help to such a woman as the queen, the people said, justly, that he should have been the more tender and forbearing towards her.

The king's next brother, and the heir of the throne, was the Duke of York; but this prince fell into bad health, and died on the 5th of January, 1826.

There was now a time of great agitation in England, on account of the claims of the Roman Catholics to be freed from their disqualifications for sitting in Parliament with other British sub-

jects, and holding offices of trust in the government or the service of the country.

We have seen the anxiety in past times to exclude them, from a fear lest our Protestant liberty should be again endangered. Our kings being bound by their coronation oath to maintain the English Church as by law established, George III. never would consent to the removal of these restrictions.

But now, it was said, there was no such necessity—Protestantism could stand its ground without dealing harshly with any good and loyal subject; and it was argued, that we had no right to degrade an honest citizen, because his religious views differed from our own.

Many and vehement discussions, both in and out of parliament, arose on these points. The Duke of Wellington, who had been the greatest conqueror in war, was now to gain a victory in peace for a large class of his countrymen. He, as prime minister, in 1829, brought the Catholic Relief Bill into the Houses, where it was carried by large majorities, and received the Royal assent, April 13, 1829.

In the year following, on the 26th June, 1830, George IV. closed his reign, (if we include the period of his Regency,) of nearly twenty years.

As we approach our own times, events which perhaps a hundred years hence will seem much less important, look large in our eyes, and it is always difficult to make a selection of such as will be truly great in their consequences. But there

are some events to which this remark does not apply. All those movements in a nation which concern its *religious* character—those which affect its moral being—those, in a great degree, which assist its mental culture, will and must TELL, not now only, but for ever.

When such deeds are done as will bring the knowledge of the Gospel near to every man's door, (as when the Bible Society was formed, and when religious education was brought within the reach of a much larger portion of the population than before,) we know that such acts and provisions must remain and be of value, to all who will use them, for ever.

In like manner, all wise and good measures for increasing knowledge, for weaning people from drunkenness, and low, bad habits, must be valuable to the end of time.

Splendid shows and games, such as rulers used to set before the people in former times, were *then* the best they could give them; they had their good effect—they brought rich and poor together to a pleasant spectacle—but they perished with the day and hour of their exhibition.

It is otherwise when a National Gallery of fine pictures, when a Museum of noble and curious works of nature and art, when healthy and beautiful parks are opened freely for all the citizens of large towns during the greater part of every week, so that refreshment and pleasure may be found at any moment.

It is otherwise, too, when libraries are cheap, and books of sound information plentiful, and

when knowledge is not made difficult of attainment.

We may fairly say, that England owes a good deal to the reign of George IV., and still more to that of his successor; but you will observe, that many valuable measures for the health and improvement of the people have not been begun by the government, but by the people themselves, and that the increase of these things will always be in proportion as they are earnestly desired and sought for.

No instance is ever known in a country so governed as ours, of a people anxiously wishing for an improvement, and year by year making known its wishes in Parliament, without gaining it at last; and some delay is far from being an evil, as it gives time for due consideration, and for making the measure as good as it can be made.

London is certainly indebted to George IV. for some considerable improvements, and for much of its external beauty. He liked splendour; and the Regent's Park, Regent Street, and several of our West-end improvements, were his design.

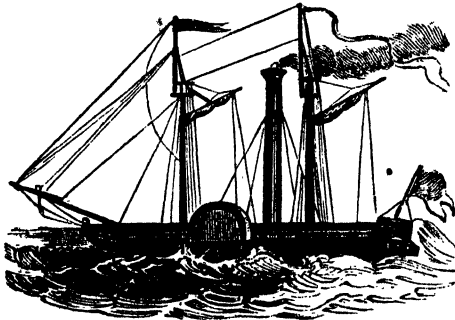
The regency and reign of George IV. were also remarkable for the number of new works ministering to the comfort of travelling all over England. The late Thomas Telford, who afterwards constructed the beautiful suspension bridge over the Menai, was the person who most improved the art of road-making in England. He made that remarkably fine road through North Wales to Holyhead, which is not only in itself so perfect in its firm foundation and absence of all roughness, but is conducted in so skilful a manner

as to avoid steep ascents and descents, though passing through a most mountainous tract.

Then followed Mac Adam, who by his peculiar mode of breaking up the material of which his roads were made, produced what is often considered as even an improvement on Telford.

Gas lights were only becoming general in London in 1816 and 1817; they quickly, however, took place of the old street oil lamps in most of our large towns.

In 1819 the first steam-packet was placed on the Holyhead passage to Dublin; and in 1821



the post-office packets to Scotland were regularly impelled by steam.

Three of our bridges over the Thames, namely Waterloo, Southwark, and London Bridges, were erected between the years 1811 and 1831; the two former by John Rennie, whose son completed

the latter after his father's designs; the Menai bridge, by Telford, being actually begun and completed in rather less than twelve months, namely from 1819 to 1820!



Zoological Garden in the Regent's Park

The Zoological Garden, and the Colosseum, were formed and raised during this reign, to which also we owe the introduction of Bazaars; the Soho Square Bazaar being formed in the early part of the regency, and the Pantheon some time afterwards.

Some capacious and handsome churches were also built in the regency and reign of George IV.; but it must also be owned, some of the most ugly erections of this kind in England sprang up in this period. The taste of the man who constructed the Pavilion at Brighton could not be good; yet the beautiful church at Stepney was completed in 1822, and that at Chelsea in 1824.



Old Watchman.



New Policeman.

The Thames Tunnel was begun by Brunel in 1825, and the work completed, so far as the main object of securing a dry passage under the river is concerned, in 1841. The multitude of the works only now in progress, and completed in the next and the present reign, will oblige us to recur to them in their proper place.

The management of prisons was also improved in this reign; a new police force was introduced; and, to the great joy of many wise and good men, the statutes which prevented Dissenters from belonging to corporations, &c. were repealed.



WILLIAM IV. 1830—1837.

ON the death of George IV. the crown descended to his third brother, William, Duke of Clarence, then in his sixty-fifth year, who had married Adelaide, Princess of Meiningen.

Great part of the life of this prince had been passed at sea. He was of a very kindly disposition, and a certain sailor-like undignified frankness added to his popularity. He had the good sense to see what were the most reasonable wishes and wants of the nation, and willingly aided them in carrying out measures, the delay of which might otherwise have been attended with serious ill consequences.

It was reasonable that the people should wish for reform in parliament, though many men may have overrated the blessings it was to bring.

It was not to be supposed that vast towns like Manchester and Leeds could be satisfied to send

no members to Parliament, while little old borough towns sent perhaps two members each, and were the property of some wealthy man in the neighbourhood, who put forward his own relations, or *sold* his interest in the borough to the highest bidder.

People of all parties allowed that these things were wrong; but some, who opposed reform, said that it would do no good, that parliament would not be better nor more independent, that the people would allow themselves to be bribed or treated, and all the care in the world would not make those do right who wished to do wrong.

This is very true; and in many instances it is to be feared that more general wickedness has resulted from elections than before; but it may be hoped that this is because people have hardly learnt how to use their privileges, and that they will in course of time feel the meanness and wickedness of bartering a vote for money or bribes of any kind.

The Reform Bill, brought in by Lord Grey, was not successful in this year; it was thrown out by the House of Lords, and had to be introduced again the following session; and it finally passed and became the law of the land in June, 1832.

The year before, 1831, had been remarkable for the first breaking out of Asiatic Cholera in Sunderland and Newcastle, from thence spreading over the country, and making fearful ravages in some places, but particularly in Ireland, where the poor diet and unfavourable circumstances of the people rendered them an easy prey to any

form of disease. This fearful disorder, however, was by a merciful hand soon stayed in England, and nearly died away in a few months. Good food and cleanly habits were considered as most important in warding off its attacks.

In the year 1832 a measure was passed in Parliament, by which our West Indian slave population was declared free, and a compensation of twenty millions of money was granted to the planters; a most magnificent price for their personal loss in the doing of an act which the nation considered as a bounden duty.

A Poor Law Amendment Bill was passed in August, 1834, and in 1835 a Bill also passed for reforming the Municipal Corporations of England and Wales. In 1836 the Dissenters' scruples were relieved by an alteration in the Marriage Act, enabling any who wished it to be married in their own chapels instead of going to church.

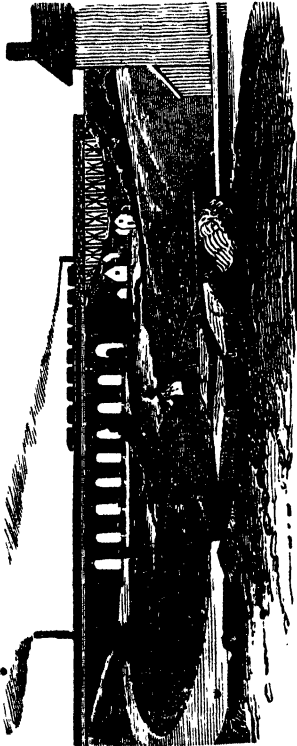
King William IV. was now attacked, May 1837, by a disease of the chest, which made rapid progress, and brought his short reign to a close on the 20th of June in the same year. His surviving partner, Queen Adelaide, who had secured the respect of the country by her exemplary and benevolent character, had borne him no son, though they had two daughters, both of whom died in infancy.

The Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III., having died in 1820, had left one only child, Alexandrina Victoria, and to this princess, then seventeen years of age, the crown at once descended.

Many remarkable occurrences were crowded into the short reign of William IV.. but perhaps it is made still more remarkable by the progress of invention, or rather the application of invention to useful purposes.

In this reign our first railway for the purposes of travelling was completed; it was that between Liverpool and Manchester, and its opening, on September 15, 1830, was made painfully memorable by its being the occasion of the death of Mr. Huskisson, one of our ablest statesmen. He

had gone down with numerous other gentlemen and noblemen to see this new and grand



Manchester and Liverpool Railway

sight, at which also the Duke of Wellington was present. Mr. Huskisson, who had not learnt the precaution so necessary on railways, had got out of the carriage at a place where they had stopped to take in a supply of water. He was standing and holding the door of the carriage, when another engine came up; the open door was struck by it, he fell, and his leg was crushed. All that skill could do to save him was done, but in vain; and he died, after severe suffering, most nobly borne.

Other railways succeeded, and more were opened in this reign, but the number has been prodigiously increased since our present Queen's accession.



New London Bridge.

New London Bridge was opened by William IV. and his queen in 1831.

On the 16th October, 1834, a fire broke out in

the house of Lords, and destroyed both houses of Parliament. This has brought upon the nation the necessity of providing other buildings; and the magnificent pile, the work of Mr. Barry, now in process of erection, will be, when complete, one of the grandest objects in London.



VICTORIA.

BORN, MAY 24, 1819, BEGAN TO REIGN, JUNE 20,
1837.

OUR present Queen was carefully educated by a good mother, sister to Prince Leopold, the widowed husband of our Princess Charlotte, and now the King of Belgium.

In her childhood and youth our Queen was

not secluded from the knowledge of her people and the country over which she was to reign, but made, with the Duchess of Kent, frequent visits to the houses of the most respectable noblemen and private gentlemen; seeing much of the daily life of the people of England in the course of these quiet "progresses."

The calm self-possession with which this youthful Queen met her first council, and the manner in which she opened her first Parliament, justly excited admiration. She married Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg early in 1840, and it may be truly said, that the Court has now been for eight years a scene of peaceful enjoyment, a place where kind affections flourish, and where none but pure tastes and good morals prevail.

As a mother, our Queen has been much favoured. Six children gather round the royal pair, all healthful and promising.

The Princess Royal, born November 21, 1840.

The Prince of Wales — November 9, 1841.

Princess Alice — April 25, 1843.

Prince Alfred — August 6, 1844.

Princess Helena . . . — May 25, 1846.

Princess Louisa . . . — March 18, 1848.

The year after the accession of Queen Victoria, London sustained another loss by fire. The Royal Exchange, rebuilt from designs by Sir Christopher Wren, after its destruction in the great fire of 1666, was again burnt down on the night of January 10th, 1838. It has since been rebuilt, and many other City improvements, have taken place:

the Hall of Commerce in Threadneedle Street; King William Street, leading to London Bridge; a noble continuation of Oxford Street; the Great Dover and Brighton and North Kent Railway Stations; and the Great Northern Station at King's Cross, are all instances of the progress of City improvement.

Trafalgar Square, opening from the National Gallery, with numerous beautiful streets and squares, towards Pimlico; and above Hyde Park, between Oxford Street and Bayswater, some noble squares and terraces, have been commenced or completed in this period. New parks also, as the Victoria Park, toward the east of London, and Battersea over the river, are in process of formation.

The above narrative brings down our story to the middle of the year 1848. We must now (in 1853), being permitted to add five years out of the store of our own remembrance, supply some few facts among the many that crowd upon us. And first for our good Queen. Two more princes have been added to the royal house,—

Prince Arthur born May 1, 1850.

Prince Leopold G. Duncan . — April 7, 1853.

The beginning of 1848 was a remarkable time. France then once more changed her rulers,—she broke out into rebellion against the House of Orleans, and the king, Louis Philippe, came, an exile, to England, where, three years afterwards, he died.

Great alarm was occasioned by this and other revolutions on the continent. Numbers of our English workmen and manufacturers were turned out of France at a day's notice, and many quiet natives of France, dreading new scenes of strife, came over here. Some, who had been rich and great in their own land, came to occupy small houses, and live and die in poverty.

In the midst of the commotion which these events excited, news came to England that a vast buried city had been discovered by a traveller of the name of Layard, in Assyria. Bit by bit, marvellous objects were disinterred: enormous animals, great stone creatures, with bodies like bulls or lions, but winged, and with the heads of men, were dug out of deep mounds on the site of what was believed to be the ancient city of Nineveh. Long inscriptions, in an unknown character, covered these animals and the rocky chambers in which they were found. By the research of learned men, who have devoted their lives to these studies, many of these inscriptions have been made tolerably clear; and it is known that a great number of the antiquities brought to light, are older by many centuries than the oldest Egyptian relics we possess. These are now safely lodged in the British Museum.

In its proper place we have omitted to mark some of the steps by which that wonderful invention, the Electric Telegraph, was brought to its present state of vast and extended usefulness.

It is not our part, however, to explain in a scientific manner the way in which this beautiful

instrument does its work, and carries messages thousands of miles with almost the speed of thought; but we must briefly relate, that the wires of the first electric telegraph used in England, that of Messrs. Cooke and Wheatstone, were laid down in the year 1839, on the Great Western Railway.

Various improvements in the mode of working have been made: and its advantages are extended to nearly all our railways: but the crowning conquest is its having been found possible, by means of a covering of gutta percha, to convey the wires across the sea; and thus messages are now sent all over the continent, and answers returned in a very short time. A gentleman at Munich, this summer, found it necessary to communicate with his family in Norfolk, and in four hours after sending his own message from Munich, received news of them. From France, from Italy, and Germany, communications are always passing. News of battles, of births, of deaths and marriages; questions of business, respecting the price of articles, and the state of the weather at any particular place, can be asked, and in an hour or two's time the answer is returned.

These notices come translated through two or more languages; but they *do* come: and though brief, and sometimes in small points liable to error, they can soon be corrected. Mountains, seas, deserts are thus overpassed. Man himself cannot overcome space and time at this rapid rate; but his *thoughts* are travelling with the speed of light; and it seems scarce possible to

say where this communication may come to a close. It *may* be carried across the Atlantic; and thence beyond America, over even the great Pacific!

We have more than once noticed the progress of our maritime discoveries, and noted the slow steps by which some of the bravest and best voyagers the world has ever seen have been able to advance into the regions of ice and snow.

We have now (November, 1853) to recount the certain discovery of a north-west passage, made by British seamen, in the summer of the present year. In order to tell the story, however, we must go back eight years.

It was on the 25th of May, 1845, that the gallant Sir John Franklin set sail, in the ship *Erebus*, accompanied by the *Terror*, (both screw ships of thirty horse power,) on his voyage to the arctic regions. They were to enter Lancaster Sound, and to proceed as nearly west as possible, sparing no efforts to get by Behring's Straits.

They had on board provisions, clothes, and fuel for three years complete, and were accompanied, up to the 12th of July, by a tender, which brought back the last letters ever received from them, though they were twice afterwards seen and spoken with during the same summer of 1845.

As it was not at all expected that the *Erebus* and *Terror* would return before the end of the year 1847, not much alarm, though a good deal of anxiety, was felt until after the expiration of that term; but when winter passed away, and no

news of the gallant men arrived, every one felt apprehensive for their fate, and many sympathised in Lady Franklin's fears.

Early, therefore, in January, 1848, a vessel, the *Plover*, was sent in quest of the lost ships; and another ship, the *Herald*, Captain Kellett, which was then stationed at Panama, was ordered to meet the *Plover* at Behring's Straits, for it was thought that by this time the missing vessels would be nearer the mouth of that Strait, supposing they had advanced on the passage, than any other point. •

This, however, was not thought enough. Two other ships, the *Enterprise* and the *Investigator*, were to proceed to Baffin's Bay, and, if possible, get into Lancaster Sound. These were under the command of Sir James Ross. Several expeditions were also sent out, in which parties were ordered to proceed, both by land and by boat, through the extreme northern parts of North America, by the half-frozen lakes, and inlets, and rivers, as it was thought possible the voyagers might have been forced to leave the ships, and might now be wandering over those cold, barren lands to the north.

Every one of these expeditions failed in bringing any information; nor was it, indeed, until the 23d of August, 1850, that Captain Austin, who had been sent out with a squadron, by way of Baffin's Bay, found the only traces that have as yet been discovered of Sir John Franklin and his people at Beechey Island, Wellington Channel.

These traces, however, only proved that here

they had wintered in 1845-6; but no indications as to their after course could be found: and from that time there has not been a single *certain* proof of their existence or their fate. Many noble efforts have been made, partly at Lady Franklin's expense, at that of private friends, and of the government also, but all in vain.

I mentioned the *Enterprise* and *Investigator* being sent under Sir James Ross, by way of Barrow's Straits. They left England in June, 1848, but were forced to return next year; and hardly were they home, when these ships were again sent out under Captains Collinson and M'Clure, to Behring's Straits. There they met the *Herald* and the *Plover*, and entered the straits together, in the autumn of 1850.

It is curious to trace the fate of these vessels which have been so long busied in exploring voyages. One only among them, the *Investigator*, Captain M'Clure, got through the ice which blocked up the more northerly part of the strait.

The *Enterprise* was obliged to give up, and to take its course to Hong Kong for the winter of 1850. The *Herald*, too, tried in vain; and its commander, Captain Kellett—who was the officer highest in rank on the station—when he turned back, made a signal to Captain M'Clure, who was further advanced, to return also.

The brave captain, however, could not bring his mind to obey the signal. Having got so far, he had set his heart on proceeding, and on he went, not choosing to obey orders, which was

certainly a bold, and, generally speaking, would have been a wrong thing.

Three years passed away; no tidings came of the disobedient captain; when, in the month of April, 1853, that same Captain Kellett who had ordered him to return, being now commander of another ship, the *Resolute*, arrived at Melville Island, in the course of another exploring voyage, and there found a written document, left by captain M'Clure almost a year before.

This letter had been sent over the ice by men who had crossed on foot, from the *Investigator* to Melville Island, on the chance of meeting with some vessel there.

Captain M'Clure knew perfectly well where he was, and that only a barrier of ice prevented his getting his ship quite through Barrow's Strait homewards. He therefore described his position in the letter, in case anybody could find him, and restore communication.

You may judge that Captain Kellett and his men were very glad to read this, and a party was immediately sent to visit the blocked-up ship. One officer, Lieutenant Pim, got before the rest, and came walking up, without being observed at first, being taken for one of themselves. Of course it was a most joyous meeting. Captain M'Clure and his crew had much to tell of their three years' life in the icy regions. They had been well in health till within a few months, when three men had died. They had, of course, gone through great dangers.

As the ice was prodigiously thick about the

ship, it is most likely that another winter must still be passed there by Captain M'Clure. Captain Kellett and Captain Collinson are also both in the arctic seas. Some of the most sickly of the crew of the *Investigator* have been sent home, and all that can has been done to give fresh supplies of food to those that remain.

The accounts of his voyage, sent home by Captain M'Clure, are very interesting; but no tidings have been heard of Sir John Franklin, and a heavy loss was sustained in the death of a gallant young Frenchman, Lieutenant Bellot, who was drowned on the voyage.

Some addition to our knowledge of the arctic regions has, of course, been gained both through Captain M'Clure and also by Sir Edward Belcher, who is still, it is believed, in the Polar Sea.

When we remember, that ere long we shall enter the ninth year since the *Erebus* and *Terror* left our shores, we cannot but be sad, fearing that the brave crews can scarcely have escaped their multiplied perils. And yet the late intelligence gives a degree of hope. Game has been plentiful in those regions; many great dangers have been overpassed; and it is known that large supplies of provisions have been left at various points.

If they live, may they be restored to their anxious friends! If not, they will have died an honourable death.

* * * *

I believe I did not tell you, in former pages, of the rise and growth of a society in England called the Society of Arts: it began in the year 1756.

It was meant for the encouragement of painstaking men, who were trying to improve upon other men's inventions, or to invent new things themselves. Many of the useful and many ornamental arts have been very much encouraged by this Society, which offered prizes for the best carpets, the best porcelain, the best manufactured metal articles, and numerous other things.

On the marriage of our Queen to Prince Albert, he was made President of the Society, and an exhibition of new English manufactures was opened at its rooms in 1847. •

This proved a very popular measure, and in 1848 and 1849 there were still better exhibitions, so that the Prince was led to believe it would be a still better idea if the world at large could be invited to bring goods to a great Exhibition, and thus sprang up the plan which was executed in 1851.

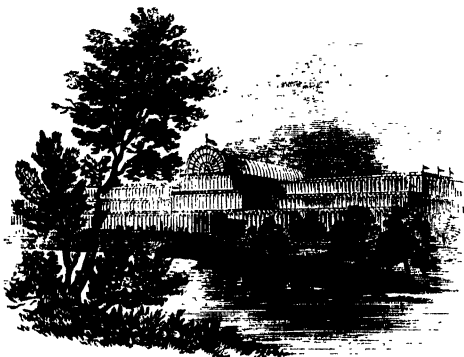
Money, however, and a vast deal of it, was wanted for the Building and for the Prizes, and for many other expenses belonging to the plan. A number of rich people joined together to meet these expenses, and gave security for *two hundred thousand pounds*, being pretty sure that it would be paid back in half-crowns, shillings, and six-pences.

Then came another question. As the building was not wanted to stand very long, it was important to have it so made that it could be put up and taken to pieces with the least expense.

A great landscape gardener, Mr. Paxton, now Sir Joseph Paxton, had some years before built

some immense hothouses and conservatories, large enough for large trees to grow under them, and it occurred to him that a house made of glass and iron would be by far the most convenient thing.

The price of glass had been lately very much lowered, and Messrs. Fox & Henderson, two great builders, to whom Mr. Paxton spoke, agreed to begin what has since been called the Crystal Palace. They did not begin it till July, 1850; and it was ready for receiving goods in January, 1851, though not opened till the first of May; and



The Crystal Palace.

it is remarkable that it was 1851 feet long. It was about six times as large as St. Paul's. It took in some beautiful elm trees which stood in the Park, and when the fountains were playing, and the shadows of the trees fell on the gay painted

girders, and the beautiful objects, and the ever-moving company were displayed, it really seemed as if nothing had ever been so bright and so bewitching.

And there came all nations to this fair. The Turk was there with his carpets and saddles, and his drugs; the Russian was there with his green malachite tables and beautiful damask cloths, and the Dane with statuary, and the Germans with every sort of comical toy and clever invention; and the French with their rich silks and velvets, and lamps, and other things.

The farmer found all sorts of new ploughs and harrows; the cotton spinner and weaver every newly invented machine. The coachmakers brought beautiful carriages. You could not think of anything that was not to be found somewhere or other in that fair of fairs. From Australia, from the Cape, from the West Indies, from the North, and from the South, came products of every kind, useful or beautiful. Sweet flowers perfumed the air; bright jewels sparkled on the stalls; the voice of music was heard. Happy were the children that saw it; and even old people from Cornwall and from Scotland came to look and admire.

At first the prices of admission were high,—there were five-shilling days, half-guinea days, then half-crowns, then shillings.

More than 50,000 people were known to be in the building at once, and in all there were 6,201,856 visitors during the four months of its being opened. ●

On the first of May, 1850, just a year before this Great Exhibition was opened, the Queen had a son born, who was named Arthur, after the Duke of Wellington, who stood godfather to the little boy. The Queen always loved and respected our great Duke very much, and whenever they met in public or private, she spoke much, and with great regard, to him.

When the Exhibition was opened, of course the Duke was there. He was now old and somewhat feeble and deaf, yet healthy, and seemed likely to



The Duke of Wellington

live some years ; but on the 14th of September, 1852, a very short illness ended his life, in his eighty-fourth year. On the 10th of November, the remains of this great man (which

had till then been preserved at Walmer Castle, where he died) were brought to London, and on the 18th the funeral took place at St. Paul's.

It was one of the most solemn spectacles ever witnessed in London. From very early in the morning, every one was awake and stirring, and people went to take possession of places engaged beforehand in the line of the procession. Every shop was shut; most people were in mourning; the bells tolled; the minute guns were fired, and the military bands played the Dead March in Saul. The procession was very long, and everybody seemed struck by the sight of the Duke's own horse, which was *led* without a rider. When they got to St. Paul's, the funeral service was very finely read and chanted, and at length the body was let down into the vault close to Lord Nelson's. All London felt that day that a great and good man was gone. Many tears were shed, and very deep and sincere was the grief.

During part of the spring of 1853, the present Duke of Wellington threw open Apsley House, where the great Duke had lived when in London, for people to see. A certain number, as many as was convenient, for some weeks obtained tickets, giving them leave to walk about the rooms and see the pictures. This was very interesting: there was the long room, where, once a-year, on the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo, the Duke gave a dinner to his brother officers and friends. After seeing this and other rooms, people were allowed to go into his study, and lastly into his little bedroom, where, on a small camp bed-

stead, he always slept. He was very simple and hardy in his habits, and everything about him showed how little he cared about mere outward show and style.

September, 1859.

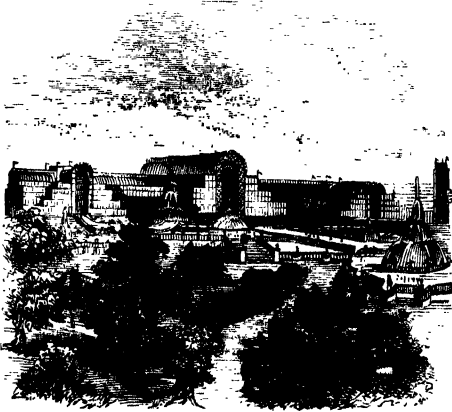
Once more we are permitted to add, in a few pages of this history, a record of the events of the five years which have elapsed since the last entry was made.

To what has been before told of the names and ages of the members of the Royal family, may be added the birth of a daughter, the Princess Beatrice Mary, on the 14th of April, 1857; the ninth child of our Queen and Prince Albert.

On the 5th of January, 1858, the Princess Royal was married to Prince Frederick William of Prussia, heir presumptive to the crown of Prussia. This union has since been blessed by the birth of a son.

The years 1852 and 1853, were years of progress and preparation for the erection of that remarkable building, the Crystal Palace, at Sydenham, which was opened May 1st, 1854. The situation of this building is one which seems to be pointed out by nature for just such an edifice. Its elevated site, Penge Hill, highest among the Kent Uplands, commands a noble and extensive view. It happened that just at the time when the building was projected, a park of two hundred acres, and a mansion, were on sale; these were speedily purchased by a company, and Sir Joseph Paxton,

Fox, Henderson, and others, began their operations in earnest, on the 5th of August, 1852.



The Crystal Palace, Sydenham.

The materials of the building were to be chiefly iron and glass, as in the Exhibition building of 1851, but it was to be very much more extensive, and above all, it was to possess such pleasure grounds as had never before been laid open to the enjoyment of any people in the known world. They were to be beautified with statues, fountains, water-works, with flowers of every variety. Bands were to play, special railways provided, and all at the lowest possible rate.

The inside of the building was to contain facsimiles of many celebrated works of antiquity, a Pompeian house, an Assyrian court, parts of the

Alhambra, models of gigantic Egyptian works, copies of celebrated monuments, screens, statues, vases, pictures, &c. There were also to be courts appropriated to the display of new inventions, and of articles of exquisite manufacture.

Space was to be left for rare exotic shrubs, trees, and flowers. There were to be concert rooms, dining rooms, flower shows, &c. The water-works were to be the grandest in the world.

Everything proposed has been done, and more, MUCH more. The Sydenham Palace is now a great repository of art models, and of natural objects; it is a Museum, not indeed of great originals—not by any means equal to the British Museum in its real, sterling objects of value, nor yet matching the Exhibition of 1851 in its display of exquisite foreign works (temporary as it might be). It is a lasting, a beautiful, valuable assemblage of *copies* of fine and interesting objects, of some original works, and of healthful and lovely scenery, and as such, we hope it will continue to be supported and to give delight to English people of remote generations.

In Manchester, in 1857, was seen an Exhibition of a different character. This was the Art-Treasures Exhibition. In a building erected for the purpose were assembled the most valuable contents of the finest galleries of pictures in England. Private collectors sent the great treasures which they owned either by purchase or bequest. All these were hung up to the best advantage, and occupied days in the inspection. Though, of course, on a smaller scale than our

Crystal Palace, yet the particular objects were so rare, and the worth of the whole so enormous, that it may well be reckoned the most remarkable among Exhibitions.

Next must be mentioned the South Kensington Museum. The estate on which it stands, was purchased by Government, and by the Commissioners of the Great Exhibition. It is between Hyde Park and Brompton. Mainly designed for the purposes of the Schools of Design, one principal object is a Museum of Ornamental Art, very rich in specimens of fabrics, of models, casts, and copies of beautiful antique articles of furniture, vases, wall decorations, &c. The whole Soulages Collections, the Sheepshanks Gallery, a fine collection of modern paintings, and for the present, till a final decision is come to about a building for its reception, the Vernon Gallery, transferred from Marlborough House.

There is also a valuable department called the Educational Museum, in which an immense store of apparatus of improved kinds, for the use of schools, is stored. The books, maps, desks, and other school furniture of rival Educational Boards, stand side by side, and offer many points of comparison to those who are practically interested in the fitting up schools and colleges.

It would be, indeed, a great omission, if the subject of buildings appropriated to purposes of high value were to be closed without mention of the magnificent new reading-room of the British Museum.

The buildings of the Museum had formed a large quadrangle, from the windows of which we looked into a hollow court or square. This space, it was proposed, should be converted into a hall or reading-room for books, &c., for the comfortable accommodation of readers. The new room, now in constant use, and of invaluable service to the public, is a circular apartment 140 feet in diameter, and 440 feet in circumference; it is 606 feet in height, and is lighted by twenty windows round the lower part of the dome, with a glazed aperture at the apex. Every reader is most comfortably accommodated, and about 336 persons can be reading or writing at one time. The appearance is light and beautiful; the lofty walls are richly lined by books; the balconies and galleries which run round are bordered by the lightest iron railings.

In the centre is a raised circular platform for the superintendents, and all around this are ranged library catalogues, &c.

From this point, the tables or desks of readers radiate like the ribs of a fan. This vast room, however, by no means occupies all the space of the hollow square; between its inner central sides and the original square, there are wrought-iron fire-proof galleries three stories high, capable of accommodating an enormous number of volumes.

Although the Transatlantic Telegraph is as yet useless and disabled, it must not be forgotten that on the night of the 9th of August, 1858, the first

telegram was received at Valentia in Ireland, from Newfoundland. The hour at which the message was transmitted from America, was about 25 minutes past 8 p.m.; but that time, allowing for the variation of time in different latitudes, will not correspond with the hour in which the message is received; though but a moment may elapse in the delivery, it would not reach Ireland till the clocks of that country pointed at a quarter past 11 at night. It would take time to explain how it is that the hour never can be exactly the same in two places when the meridians differ; Paris is 9 minutes and 22 seconds in advance of Greenwich, and merchants at New York or New Orleans are enjoying daylight when our night is advanced. When it is 10 o'clock in the morning with us, it is about 5 at New York; and when ~~the~~ people at New York are getting up, it is past 12 in London. In New Orleans it is still later. Thus, if ever we succeed in effecting telegraphic Atlantic communication, we must send our messages at such hours as will be convenient to our friends over the water. As, for instance, a despatch sent from us at 10 o'clock in the morning, will get to New Orleans by 4 in the afternoon.

No one feels any doubt of the result in the end, but the difficulties are not yet overcome; for the cable, after being in use about a month, sustained some injury, which has hitherto prevented the transfer of telegrams.

The sad secrets of the Erebus and Terror, and of the fate of Sir John Franklin, are disclosed.

Captain M'Clintock, who gallantly undertook the last search, returned in September, 1859, in the steam yacht "Fox," which had been equipped by Lady Franklin and her friends,—leaving England in the summer of 1857. This vessel has confirmed the reports of the abandonment of the ships, and death of the crews. Our latest information had up to this time been derived from a whaler, who spoke the ships in *July*, 1845 (the year of their departure). We now learn from a written paper, discovered in a cairn on Point Victory, May 3rd, 1859, that the ships were abandoned in 1848, having been beset by ice ever since September, 1846; that Sir John Franklin died on 11th June, 1847; and that the survivors were about to start for Back or Fish River. From the date of this document (25th April, 1848), they can be traced only by their mortal remains, by their personal effects, and by reports of the Esquimaux. The relics are numerous: articles of clothing, books, letters, watches, spoons, guns, medicines, and instruments, have been brought away by Captain M'Clintock. One after another the brave men appear to have dropped and died, and the sad solitude of one or two survivors, it may be hoped, was quickly ended. To come upon their traces was a mournful privilege—one strictly due to them and their toils; and who can help feeling that Lady Franklin has nobly acted up to the dictates of duty, as well as of affection! Honour to all such!

The first sounds of war, after so long a time of peace, struck sadly on the heart. For a long time

previous to 1854, the designs of Russia had been exciting great jealousy in the minds of England and France; and at length, her oppressive conduct to the Turks led to a declaration of war on the part of these powers. Afterwards, aided by Sardinia, war was declared on the 28th of March, 1854; and immediately after, preparations were diligently made for the transport of English troops to Constantinople and the Crimea. The Crimean territory was a most important one to Russia. It had been an independent province until between sixty and seventy years before, when the Russians took it "under their protection," and have thenceforth occupied it by Russian troops and governors. This tract of country contains about 8,500 square miles. It is surrounded on three sides by the Black Sea, which communicates by a narrow strait with the Sea of Azof, to the north-east, and the only connection with the Russian territories is by the neck of land, the Isthmus of Perekop, which in one part is only five miles broad. As the Crimea is the key to the Russian dominions on the Black Sea, and as it has been a great corn-growing country, the successive Emperors had taken the utmost pains to fortify the coasts, and for this purpose, about 63 years ago, the vast forts of Sebastopol began to be erected, and harbours formed. Not far from this place it was that our good and great prison reformer, John Howard, died of a fever, and here his monument was erected by Russians. The dockyards and arsenals of Sebastopol were designed by a Frenchman, and executed by an Englishman; so that the allied

forces of England and France were now combined against the skill of their own engineers.

There can be no doubt it was a place of great strength, and that there were the most formidable difficulties in its conquest. It was a very handsome city. Possessing a large cathedral, many churches built with domes, vast barracks, an opera, public library, club-house, several hotels, and many beautiful private houses, with trees and gardens. Seven miles off was the small harbour of Balaklava, where our troops, stores, &c., were afterwards landed.⁶ We also sent a large fleet of ships of war to the Baltic. Those of our troops meant for the Crimea were not at once sent there. Their first landing-place was Gallipoli, a town on the European side of the Dardanelles. From thence they were shipped, some to Scutari, which is on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, while the main divisions, both of English and French, were sent to Varna, a town in Bulgaria, on the south-western shore of the Black Sea. Here the united armies remained from the latter part of June till September; a time of inaction and of great suffering from sickness—first cholera, then fever. The regiments became much dispirited by their severe losses, and great was the rejoicing when it was known they were to be re-embarked and meet the Russians in the Crimea. And now, indeed, the real war began. Under the commander-in-chief, Lord Raglan, the troops landed on a low part of the beach. Their first night was most harassing. No tents had yet been sent on shore, and a pitiless

rain came down on the unsheltered and hungry men for the whole night. There was no shelter for either officers or common soldiers; the wonder was, that more severe illness did not immediately ensue. In a day or two, however, they forgot discomfort in the battle field. On the 20th of September, 1854, the battle of the Alma was fought. There has seldom been a more arduous struggle. The Russians had a capital position, being on heights which commanded the allied armies everywhere. Yet our brave troops pushed up these heights, crossed the river Alma, and gained ground of the utmost importance.

The slaughter on both sides was great, but the victory of the allies complete. They could now attack Sebastopol from its weakest side, and get possession of the harbour of Balaklava, which from this time was the landing-place of all the supplies.

On the 5th of November was fought the battle of Inkermann, in which also the allies were victorious, though at a fearful cost both of officers and soldiers.

From this time, indeed from the battle of the Alma, the troops endured most grievous privations and sufferings; it may be said, quite to the following March, 1855. Cholera, want of proper food, clothing, and shelter, made dreadful havoc among them. The losses were far greater from these causes than from the guns and offensive weapons of the enemy. It is melancholy to think how much of mismanagement there was in all this, since the compassion of the people at home led to enormous gifts of everything that could be needed.

Yet these gifts did not find their way to the sufferers till very long after they were sent. Meanwhile, in the hospitals, Miss Nightingale, (a name never to be forgotten,) and her band of assistants, were nursing the sick and wounded, and labouring to gain a better future treatment for the common soldier.

The siege of Sebastopol proved far longer and more difficult than had been anticipated, and death was busy among the general officers; Admiral Boxer, of the navy; General Estcourt; and, on the 28th of June, most of all lamented, Lord Raglan, who had been one of the most esteemed of the Duke of Wellington's old Peninsular Generals, and was much beloved and regretted. It was not till the 9th of the following September that Sebastopol was taken. When the Allies entered, they found this strong city a heap of ruins, only tenanted by the dead and dying. Those who retreated in no very long time afterwards opened negotiations for peace. In January, 1856, we made such an agreement as led to the cessation of hostilities, and the treaty was signed in March. As the war has proved a useful check to the ambition of Russia, and as great injustice might have been committed without our interference, we must not too deeply lament the great calamities attending this war; but it will not be remembered without the deepest sorrow for many a year, and the Crimean war will always be spoken of as one in which there were cruel neglects, and at the same time most generous efforts for our suffering soldiers.

Worse still, in some respects, was our next struggle. A fearful mutiny began among the native troops of India, but joined in by many who were not our soldiers, and in whom we placed some reliance. In order to explain this we must shortly give a sketch of the state of India in 1857, which obliges us to go back much further.

How did we come by this vast empire? How comes it that an island like ours should be now the supreme governing power over an extent of country larger than Europe, if we leave out Russia, and over 75 millions of people, if we include European residents as well as all the Asiatics? Many people will say we had no business with such a realm; that it has been unjustly gained, and been a source of misery to ourselves and others. Something of truth there may be ~~in this~~; on the other hand, we have been brought gradually into our troubles, by the necessity of keeping up our good faith to merchants, to a great company, to native powers, and, very often, to wretched ill-used people whom we have protected. The beginnings of our connection must be placed 260 years ago, when Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to some merchants, for the purposes of trade with the natives of this fine, highly cultivated, and rich country; the people of which had been at the head of human civilization 1,000 years before Britain was brought under Julius Cæsar. Yet, rich and great as were the upper ranks of these people, there was intense poverty and wretchedness, all kinds of barbarity were practised, human sacrifices were offered to the grossest

divinities, and children were drowned without mercy, and women burnt on their husbands' death.

The conversion of these people to Christianity, though the most blessed result which could arise from our connection with India, is one of the very hardest of all similar undertakings. Every attempt seems to show that very, very few are able to understand us, or enter into the ideas we want to introduce; so widely different are their notions from ours, and so separated are the people themselves by their castes, and by means of the influence of the Brahmīns, their highest order of religious men. So much for the Hindoos; but one-tenth of the people in India are *Mussulmen*, who are a cleverer, stronger race, and hold the Hindoos in check; they are quite as violently opposed, however, to Christianity, and publicly pray for our overthrow. Then there are Buddhists, and Parsees, and a great many other sects, and hosts of mere robbers and chieftains, with their followers, who cannot be reached by any argument but the sword.

It is, however, not to be doubted but that if we continue to hold India at all, our education, our commerce, and our railways, must at last have influence, and bring us more into mutual knowledge of one another; and we never must lose sight of the duty of improving them to the utmost. Our commerce at first was small, and even that was divided with the French. They encroached, we attacked them, and we have triumphed and must hold our own. We, however, do so under great difficulties.

Englishmen can rarely remain many years in the climate of India. Missionaries, chaplains, merchants, officers, soldiers, judges, &c., all must retire after a time, and this leads to frequent unsettling. We have been favoured with excellent Governor-Generals, and most valuable commanders and judges; and though our collectors of land-tax, and other taxes, have been sometimes rapacious and unpopular; more especially those native collectors whom we have been compelled to employ; yet it seems clear that our government is greatly preferred to that of native princes by the people at large.

And now we come to the SEPOYS. The Sepoys are native soldiers, drawn, some from high castes among Hindoos, some from the Mussulmen, some from other sects. They were early employed, and with great caution, under European officers. Being able to bear the climate, it was absolutely necessary to mix up some of the natives in guarding our forts and towns; but the trouble and danger have been very great, and there have been *many* mutinies before this last. They are willing and anxious to serve; but, though many have been faithful, it is to be feared the majority hated us all the time they were taking our pay and fighting our battles.

At length, in the summer of 1857, came a great explosion of long-smothered bad feeling. What immediately gave rise to it is still disputed. There was no doubt great anger excited in some regiments by the notion of bullock's fat having been employed in the cartridges used by the soldiers, the fat or anything belonging to the cow

tribe being sacred in the Hindoo religious code. It was said that the English had a plot for forcing all the country to become Christians. Signals of revolt were sent from one station to another, and the first thing that Europeans learnt about the mutiny was that everywhere the troops were firing on their officers, killing the women and children, burning the missionaries' houses, and torturing or misusing their wives and little ones. All this burst out so quickly and unexpectedly that there was no time to get aid. The Sepoys cut the wires



Sir Henry Havelock entering Lucknow.

of the electric telegraphs, and stopped all communications; whole colonies of English men and women, whole barracks of officers, &c., were destroyed in the most cruel manner. No one

could tell on whom to rely, and yet some of the Sepoys were faithful, and defended the women at the hazard of their lives. This sketch cannot be extended so as to relate the siege of Delhi, Cawnpore, and Lucknow, all attended with the most dreadful sufferings on the part of the English and Anglo-Indians, but most heroically endured. In reading the narratives of some of the brave men and pious women who fell, we seem carried back to an early period of Christian History. Our people went to death with the spirit of martyrs, and our great Generals, Sir Henry Lawrence and Havelock, fell, examples of christian heroism. It is hoped that the worst is now well over; yet our Indian empire is never to be regarded as likely to remain long at peace. Our trust, next to Providence, must be in earnest and constant endeavour to deal justly and mercifully with the millions of this difficult people.

Although Great Britain has not been involved in foreign war since the termination of the Crimean contest, much of public attention has been turned towards the question of the proper maintenance of our national defences, and, above all, that of our maritime force. Setting aside all false or exaggerated alarms, it cannot admit of a doubt that England and its people have a right to ask for the common securities of life. Few of us would sleep well if the doors and windows of our houses had no bolts and locks. We do not proclaim by the use of them that we believe our neighbours *intend* to attack us in the night, but we feel that rational precautions in

defenceless hours cannot be objected to by any one, and can no more justly be omitted, than putting our money into a bank for safety.

In the long course of years, however, which has gone by since England and France were at war, our ships have been let down both in numbers and equipments, so that we, "who ruled the waves," have been latterly inferior in these respects to our neighbours. Very vigorous efforts are making by Government to bring up our arrears. We are now, perhaps, nearly on a par with the French in the number and character of our vessels, but inferior in the manning and equipments. Many suggestions have been offered by practical men, with a view to meet this serious want in our navy. At present the disinclination of merchant seamen to enter on board her Majesty's ships is very slowly overcome, though a large bounty has been offered. Impressment is far too serious and odious a measure to be entertained.

An attempt is about to be made to provide for the permanent maintenance of a body of volunteer seamen at each of our most important ports, ready to be sent on board vessels as wanted.

The expense of such a measure is its principal objection, but this can hardly be set against so great a need. France, by her "Inscription," as it is termed, has a corps of 90,000 men, ready to be drawn on in emergencies. We surely ought to be able to rely on a supply of twenty or thirty thousand.

Although no Englishman would wish to re-

awaken a taste for war, or to excite false panics, it is not possible to see our shores placed at a disadvantage, without wishing to remedy the evils of past neglect.

Whether abroad or at home, the improvement of the condition of the human race is an object which constantly occupies the thoughts of the better part of society, and it is one on which we may hope to have more and more light thrown.

Here in England, great misery, great poverty, fearful ignorance and crime, meet our eyes in all directions, and especially in our large towns. When manufacturers for any reason are less prosperous than usual, many hands are turned ~~on~~, and these bring distress wherever they go.

Efforts are making to put emigration to our British settlements on a better and safer footing, so that poor men and women, on landing after a long voyage, are not turned absolutely adrift, but provision is made for assisting them to find work and food.

Among those who have conferred great benefit on numbers of emigrants, the name of Mrs. Chisholm must always be mentioned with honour.

But no one would wish to send into far distant lands our industrious, pains-taking people, while a chance remains of promoting their good at home; and whatever may be the expediency of their departure in some cases, every wise English ruler would rather see them happy and prosperous here.

In this direction, then, the strongest efforts should be made—and never let it be forgotten that there is in every country a great amount of *self-made* poverty and misery, which no laws can remedy, because it springs from the absence of a serious sense of duty, of patient industry, and of good management.

It is hardly possible to overrate the great increase of the means of comfort in illness, and of every sort of advantage in health, which has taken place in England within the last sixty years. It might be said that every power in nature has been set to work for our convenience; and, above all, the thoughts of many minds have been given to whatever may improve the mental and bodily condition of every class.

~~Discase~~ itself is disarmed of much of its suffering by the skill with which it is treated. When fearful accidents take place, operations are now neither so severe nor so protracted as they were; and we may to ~~ve~~ thankfulness that, by the use of chloroform, the pain of many terrible operations is spared. Independently of this, the numerous hospitals, and the able medical assistance everywhere to be found, are all in favour of human health and recovery. Something is done for the cleansing and removing nuisances in towns; and baths and wash-houses, and improved lodging-houses, are much more general.

Look at the surface of England generally: our clothing is cheap and good, often beautiful; our houses are well built and lighted; our roads, where railways do not take their place, are as

smooth as a gravel walk; fine bridges traverse every stream of importance. At his fireside, an Englishman has his tea from China, his sugar from the West Indies; his knives and forks are capitally made; the glass in his windows is good; his beautifully printed Bible may be bought for a trifle; he goes to a place of worship where the comfort and warmth of all are attended to. He may have his useful magazine for a penny a week, and even the poorest cottager possesses what would have been thought luxuries in Queen Elizabeth's time.

I have mentioned, in numbering up some of the improvements of the last forty or fifty years, what a great deal has been done for the assistance of such of the people as wish for instruction, both in religious and mere temporal matters.

It has been said, that Bibles are circulated in immense numbers, and useful books made cheap and easy of access; besides which, schools and places of worship have multiplied greatly.

When we see, however, what a quantity of ignorance and wickedness there is in the world, we are sometimes startled, and tempted to ask, Have all these things really done much good?

There can be no doubt they have: but piety and goodness are quiet, and are little heard of; while vice is always abroad.

But the grand conclusion I come to, whenever I think much upon these things, is that people are never really helped but when their wills are disposed to desire help.

A plentiful feast may be spread on our table;

but we only benefit by it on condition that we stretch out our hands and take what is offered, and put it to our mouths, that we may eat and live.

So Bibles and ministers, and schools and books, are placed within our reach, but we shall not be the better, if we do not attend to them: nor *then*, if our wills do not receive the truth, and let it govern our lives.

When I look back to the first days of the people of England, and trace their progress till now, I still see and feel the same thing, that the people are not the better for all that has been done for them, if their hearts are not turned to the Giver of Good.

I look back at the pious Alfred, and think how he improved his few talents. He lived in a ~~time~~ of darkness and discomfort; but his heart was right before God: his clear eye saw his duty, and his mind strengthened even while he practised it.

And let every Englishman, poor or rich, think of him too! a sinner, but penitent; a sufferer, but patient; surrounded by ignorance, yet striving for knowledge; without common comforts, but endeavouring to multiply them.

All that he did, and all that he was, was owing to his own ardent desire of improvement: if we too desire it, all the means offered us will be helps and comforts to us: if we do not, we shall still remain unimproved in the midst of all our advantages; poor, in the midst of abundance.

